DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 313 658 CS 009 849

AUTHOR	Lytle, Susan; Botel, Morton
TITLE	PCRP II: Reading, Writing and Talking across the Curriculum.
INSTITUTION	Pennsylvania State Dept. of Education, Harrisburg.
PUP DATE	88
NOTE	183p.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055) -- Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Change Strategies; Communication (Thought Transfer); Communication Skills; *Educational Change; *Educational Improvement; Educational Principles; Elementary Secondary Education; *Holistic Approach; Language Acquisition; *Language Arts; State Curriculum Guides; Theory Practice Relationship
IDENTIFIERS	Pennsylvania

ABSTRACT

This book discusses PCRP II, an integrative framework for language and literacy which teachers and administrators can use to examine, when appropriate, to improve school and classroom practice in language use across the curriculum. Chapter 1 offers an introduction and summary. Chapter 2, "Perspectives on Theory and Practice," presents four perspectives for looking at the curriculum: learning as meaning-centered, social, language-based, and human. Chapter 3, "The Five Critical Experiences," (reading, writing, extending reading and writing, investigating language, and learning to learn) defines each experience, elaborates its specific research and theory bases, and suggests classroom activities applicable across the grades and across the curriculum, as well as activities for different grade levels and content areas. The fourth chapter, "Constructing Curriculum," addresses the integration of the five critical experiences in daily, weekly and long-range instruction and curriculum planning, and deals with ways to use the PCRP II framework as a heuristic for critical reflection on current practice and for designing units and planned courses of study. Chapter 5, "Designing Congruent Evaluation," maintains that integrative models of curriculum and learning are more likely to be successful if the evaluation program reflects these models, and proposes six principles for designing the evaluation procedures. The sixth chapter, "Implementing PRCP II through Networking," discusses the rationale for PCRP II and for the statewide plan for implementing the framework, and provides a set of specific but adaptable suggestions for how this book may be used to effect change at the level of districts, schools and individual classrooms. Twenty notes are included and an 11-page bibliography is attached. An appendix contains the report of the Pennsylvania Department of Education conference on PCRP II. (SR)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

PCRP II

READING, WRITING AND TALKING ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Susan Lytle

and

Morton Botel

University of Pennsylvania

for

The Pennsylvania Department of Education

1988

Commonwealth of Pennsylvania
Robert P. Casey, Governor

Department of Education
Thomas K. Gilhool, Secretary

Office of Basic Education
Donna D. Wall, Commissioner

Bureau of Curriculum and Instruction
Irvin T. Edgar, Director

Division of Communications, Math and Instruction
Helen A. McLain

September, 1988

The Pennsylvania Department of Education will not discriminate in its educational programs, activities, or employment practices, based on race, color, national origin, sex, age, religion, ancestry, handicap, union membership, or any other legally protected classifications. Announcement of this policy is in accordance with state and federal laws, including Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, and Sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Employees and participants who have an inquiry or complaint of harassment or discrimination, or who need information about accommodations for handicapped persons, should contact Susan Mitchell, Affirmative Action Officer, Pennsylvania Department of Education, 333 Market Street, Harrisburg, PA 17126-0333 (717-787-1953). For additional copies of this publication, please contact John Meehan, telephone number (717) 783-3946.

Pennsylvania Department of Education
333 Market Street
Harrisburg, PA 17126-0333

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements

I. Introduction/Summary 1

II. Perspectives on Theory and Practice 11

III. The Five Critical Experiences 22

  [1] Reading: Transacting with Texts 22

  [2] Writing: Composing Texts 48

  [3] Extending Reading and Writing 78

  [4] Investigating Language 89

  [5] Learning to Learn 111

IV. Constructing Curriculum 129

V. Designing Congruent Evaluation 139

VI. Implementing PCRP II Through Networking 152

Appendix: Report of PDE Conference on PCRP II 160

Footnotes 164

Bibliography 166

Acknowledgements

We wish to acknowledge here the leadership, enthusiasm, and continued support for the development of this framework by Secretary of Education, Thomas Gilhool, Commissioner of Basic Education, Donna Wall, and Department of Education curriculum leaders, Irwin T. Edgar, Helen McLain, and John Meehan.

We are grateful to the Pennsylvania Association of School Administrators and the Pennsylvania Association of Elementary and Secondary School Principals and their Executive Directors Stinson Stroup and Frank Manchester, for their co-sponsorship with the Department of Education of nine regional informational and planning meetings to launch PCRP II in the Commonwealth.

We particularly want to thank these educators for their critical reading and insightful suggestions while reviewing early drafts of the PCRP II: Jill Bartoli, Shelley Baum, Marilyn Cochran-Smith, Carole Edelsky, Bob Fecho, Michelle Foster, Barbara Georgio, June Hodge Davis, Torch Lytle, Diane Masar, Donna Ogle, Tere Pica, Marian Rosecky, Kathy Schultz, JoAnn Seaver, Marty Waring-Chaffee and Betsy Wice. We also appreciate the contributions of the following educators for their helpful suggestions for revising the PCRP II: Rita Altman, Bonnie Botel-Sheppard, Carol Brown, Judy Buchanan, Penny Bryan, Heidi Gross, Cathy Hatala, Helen Holt, Pat Johnston, James Lee, Kathy McGettigan, Jack McGovern, Ellen Milgrim, Allie Mulvihill, Helen Oakes and Linda Packman.

We are also grateful to the fifty educators who participated in the PDE Conference on PCRP II held in Harrisburg, April 1988 (see Appendix). Their thoughtful reflections will guide the long-range implementation of this framework.

Susan Lytle and Morton Botel

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION/SUMMARY

PCRP II is a framework for language, literacy and learning across the curriculum. It addresses the critical importance to learning of reading, writing and talking at every grade level, in every subject, as well as in programs designed for special and remedial education. The PCRP II offers a new vision for enhancing academic achievement and communication skills in the content areas while supporting three other quality goals of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania: analytic thinking, self esteem, and understanding others. This framework draws on ten years of experience in implementing PCRP I as well as an extraordinarily productive decade of theory and research in the many disciplines related to language, literacy and learning in schools.

There are at least three interrelated reasons for reconsidering curriculum and instruction at this time First, in the decade since PCRP I, a considerable body of theory and research has added to the original conception of the framework and pointed in some significant new directions. The experiences of districts which implemented PCRP I over the past ten years provide another rich source of data. Second, teachers and administrators everywhere are concerned that curriculum at all levels has been developed in a piecemeal fashion and that all the pieces do not add up to a coherent whole. The resulting fragmentation puts pressure on teachers and administrators to cover material without providing the underlying structure essential for effective teaching and student learning. Third, educators at all levels as well as the general public are extremely concerned about the substantial number of students identified as "at risk" or performing below expectation or needing remedial help in reading and writing. Despite enormous expenditures for educational programs designed to close this gap, gains in basic skills have been limited and, in domains requiring higher order thinking, particularly disappointing.

What is needed, we believe, is an integrative framework which (1) informs educators about current theory, research and promising practices in the teaching and learning of language and literacy and (2) serves as a tool for districts to develop more stimulating and productive academic environments for all learners. Before describing the PCRP II framework and the plan for its implementation state-wide, some further explication will illustrate why such a framework is necessary.

Research in Language, Literacy and Learning

Published in 1977, the PCRP I met a need of educators at all levels who were interested in making connections between language and learning and who sought a holistic alternative to curriculum based on a delineation of skills and subskills. The simple but powerful concept of "critical experiences" provided a rationale and structure for planning and evaluating instruction in reading, writing and oral communication. Throughout the Commonwealth, many teachers adopted and adapted its proposals, including reading to students regularly, instituting self-selected reading, and providing opportunities for students to respond to texts orally and in writing from a variety of perspectives.

Although intended as a K-12 framework across the curriculum, its components were at the time most accessible to elementary teachers who developed curriculum and instructional methods based on its fundamental concepts. As the framework was disseminated, middle and secondary teachers from a variety of content areas also indicated an interest in and commitment to exploring the role of language in learning all subject areas. Through PCRP workshops and seminars, educators (including administrators as well as teachers) critically examined their own practices and generated strategies for connecting the development and use of language with the learning of content.

The theory and research base that informed the PCRP I has grown dramatically in the past ten years. Linguists, cognitive psychologists, learning theorists, composition specialists, anthropologists, literary critics and educators have made remarkable contributions to a literature informing us about the relationships of language, thought and learning. Much of this work confirms the direction of PCRP I, and makes it possible for us to clarify and expand the original version and thus to build a more detailed and compelling framework for use in schools.

In reading research, for example, the multi-disciplinary Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois (funded by NIE in 1975) has carried out extensive research on comprehension; scholars at the Center have made major contributions to our understanding of how variables of reader, text, task and context affect the activities of reading, learning to read, and reading to learn. NIE/OERI recently commissioned Becoming a Nation of Readers (1985), a report which synthesizes recent research findings and makes recommendations for teaching. Efforts are being made to bring evaluation in line with these new approaches; the states of Michigan and Illinois, for example, are using the new research in reading to develop modes of standardized testing which are more congruent with current theory. Writing research has been similarly productive. Donald Graves and his colleagues at the University of New Hampshire, for example, have provided rich data about the writing of elementary school children. The many sites of the

National Writing Project have provided opportunities for thousands of teachers of writing at all levels, K-College, to share their expertise and become acquainted with the growing literature on written communication. The recently established OERI-funded Center for the Study of Writing, which is closely affiliated with the National Writing Project, has already made important contributions to this literature.

These and many other efforts in the past decade greatly enrich and expand the possibilities of the PCRP II framework; they represent winds of change in the direction of a more rational and intellectually demanding curriculum. The PCRP II draws heavily on these theorists, researchers and educators as well as on our own research and experience working with teachers and districts who implemented ideas from PCRP I.

Fragmented Curriculum

At a recent meeting of a reading and language arts committee in a Pennsylvania school district, everyone agreed that they were under the weight of too many separate programs, tests, and materials. Feeling overwhelmed by time pressures and drowning in paper, they decided to focus their efforts on integrating reading, writing and talking and on connecting these language processes with the learning of content We do not believe that this is an isolated incident.

The problem of fragmentation in the curriculum takes many forms and exists at many levels. The subject areas of the curriculum - e.g. literature, social studies, science, mathematics - are often considered separate domains, taught in the upper grades by specialists in different departments and in elementary classrooms by teachers whose charge to teach basic skills often overwhelms their efforts to address as well the critical needs of children to acquire knowledge of the world. Reading has traditionally been separated from writing, while grammar, usage, spelling and vocabulary are often isolated and taught as if separate subjects. Many content area teachers have recognized the need for their students to read and write effectively in order to learn, but in many districts efforts to promote language use across the curriculum are just beginning.

Concern with this issue of atomization and with the pervasive movement to separate skills teaching from content led twenty-seven prominent national educational organizations, representing all of the major subject areas of the curriculum, to form the Essentials of Education Consortium (l981). Their position papers call for the development of more 'interdependent' programs in which reading, writing and oral communication are taught in the context of the subjects or disciplines. John Goodlad's study of schooling (1984) also questions the proliferation of so many unconnected pieces of curriculum which stand in contrast to our broad, schoolwide goal statements. Together they argue for more holistic approaches to language and learning.

Concern with Student Achievement

The need for an integrative framework with which to examine critically our current practice and to plan more effective curriculum and instruction is also driven by the extensive recent dialogue regarding student achievement. The past decade has been marked by an increase in testing, by a continuation of the long term decline in SAT Verbal scores, and by a proliferation of remedial programs, starting in the early grades and continuing into college where courses focused on reading and writing are frequently mandated. In relation to the proposed framework, it is important to note that the huge expenditures for remedial programs (initiated with Title I and then Chapter I and followed by special education for mildly-handicapped children) have been primarily focused on reading. The research on Chapter I shows consistent but small improvement in performance of students served; most agree that the impact has been minimal, given the expenditure of money and human resources. Reports from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) on achievement in reading, writing and literature suggest that the percentages of students who have mastered higher order thinking skills are also declining. Heavy emphasis on the "basics,' narrowly defined, may have diminished the time devoted to tasks involving analysis, interpretation, and evaluation.

Dissatisfaction with the effects of schooling also motivated the establishment of the Commission on Excellence (1983) and the array of task force reports which in turn have resulted in a broad-based reform movement in education, led in large part by state governors. Many are calling for a reconceptualization of remedial programs, moving away from a narrow focus on skills to providing students with more meaningful learning experiences with reading, writing and talking. Most recently this dialogue has expanded to include concern with greater content learning, beginning in the early grades; this reflects a growing consensus that reading and writing are not acquired independent of one's knowledge base.

The PCRP II Framework

We believe that content is learned through language, and in order to learn with language, certain experiences are critical through the grades and across the curriculum. By "experiences" we mean the language events which students participate in at school and which affect their learning outside of school as well. Synonyms for "critical" include essential, crucial, important, fundamental, basic and foundational. By specifying "critical experiences," then, we are concerned with the central processes and products of learning through using language in the classroom. Attention to processes as well as products of learning is key here. Curriculum statements typically focus on objectives and outcomes with little if any attention to the experiences which mediate them. By providing a framework of experiences which relate the activities of teachers and learners at all grade levels across the curriculum, PCRP II addresses a fundamental need in curriculum development.

We know that teachers and other educators expect and need powerful rationales for their day-to-day practice, that pedagogy is not a catalogue of techniques or methods, but rather the reciprocal relationships between theory and practice. As teachers, our theoretical frameworks inform the countless professional decisions we make about what and how to teach, and our practices as teachers and learners in turn inform our theories.

The next chapter of this document explains the fundamental assumptions about language, literacy and learning on which the framework is based. To synthesize and provide a perspective on current theory and research, four lenses for critically examining our current practice are presented. Not discrete or mutually exclusive, the lenses overlap, color and inform each other:

I. The first explains the centrality to learning of meaning-making, the notion that effective readers, writers and speakers use language actively and constructively to gain new ideas and insights. Language can be a powerful tool for relating the new to the known, for making the concepts of a subject one's own, and for becoming aware of what one does and does not understand--the latter a "metacognitive" process that is currently viewed as essential to becoming an effective and independent learner.

II. The second lens explores the concept that language is inherently social, that language use occurs in a situation, and that learning takes place in the context of a community of learners. We make meaning in collaboration with others; shared experiences result in individual (mental) behavior. Instruction at all levels and in all content areas needs to reflect attention to creating communities of readers, writers and talkers and to providing meaningful purposes for learning which emanate from the broader contexts of school, family, neighborhood, and our national (multicultural) environment.

III. The third perspective emphasizes the interrelationships of the language processes - of reading, writing, listening, and speaking - each of which is enhanced by use of the others. To learn to read, one needs to write in a variety of genres and for many different purposes. To write, one needs wide experiences with reading, thereby gaining knowledge of the world and knowledge of the possibilities inherent in written language. Oral and written language should be continuously related; learners become skillful by using language for authentic, communicative purposes.

IV. The fourth lens focuses on learning as human activity. Readers and writers bring their own prior knowledge and belief systems which they orchestrate in ways unique to themselves. Through active use of language in the learning process, students' own voices and styles can be expressed and encouraged, while at the same time explorations of similarities and differences contribute to understanding the perspectives of others.

The Five Critical Experiences

Building on these perspectives, the next section of the PCRP II presents the Five Critical Experiences. Each is defined, then its specific research and theory bases elaborated in relation to teaching and learning. For each experience, classroom activities are suggested which are applicable across the grades and across the curriculum and specific suggestions are given for different grade levels and for content areas. Described briefly, the five Critical Experiences are:

[1] READING: TRANSACTING WITH TEXT

-bringing prior knowledge and experience to construct/compose meaning
-encountering texts which embody different purposes, concepts and structures
-using a repertoire of strategies for a variety of purposes
-exploring similarities and differences in meaning and response
-bringing critical and creative questions to the text and being willing to take risks
-responding in a variety of ways: discussions, enactments, writing and the use of other media
-learning to read one's own texts and the texts of other students

[2] WRITING: COMPOSING TEXTS

-using a wide range of kinds of discourse: expressive, informational and poetic
-acquiring a repertoire of composing processes
-selecting the strategies most appropriate for different kinds of discourse, audiences, and purposes for writing
-learning about relationships between oral and written language
-using writing to learn content, to engage actively in the study of a discipline
-using writing to make sense of and affect the world

[3] EXTENDING READING AND WRITING

-empowering oneself to become a more independent and self-reliant learner
-choosing among options what to read and write in and out of school, as a part of the regular program
-using reading and writing to satisfy personal and social needs
-developing a variety of strategies depending on the text, context and one's own purposes

[4] INVESTIGATING LANGUAGE

-exploring language in the context of language in use, not as a discrete set of skills
-building upon one's own prior knowledge and intuitions about language
-acquiring metalinguistic awareness, i.e. knowledge about language and how it functions, including knowledge of the structures of language (systems or parts and how they are related to each other) and knowledge of the social rules of language use
-doing problem-solving tasks with whole texts; dealing with the parts only within a meaningful context
-seeking information about language forms and functions in order to accomplish communicative purposes
-understanding relationships between language and culture
-appreciating cultural and linguistic diversity in the classroom
-learning about different styles of language appropriate for different circumstances

[5] LEARNING TO LEARN

- building knowledge or awareness of one's own thinking processes and of what is entailed in the processes of reading, writing, listening and speaking
- using this knowledge to orchestrate one's own thinking and learning
- developing a repertoire of strategies for different tasks such as note-making, studying, and generating questions
- learning to function independently and interdependently
- learning to pose as well as solve problems
- taking risks in learning and learning from one's own false starts or errors
- learning to collaborate with others
- generating appropriate questions and responding appropriately to questions

The first two critical experiences, reading and writing, focus on text and on students' use of texts to learn and make meaning. The other three critical experiences may be seen as ongoing and concurrent with the literacy activities described in the first two. Talking and listening are embedded throughout the framework.

PCRP II emphasizes that students need frequent opportunities to participate in all five critical experiences, in every grade and subject. The five are typically interwoven in the curriculum through the integration of language skills with content. The five critical experiences offer teachers K-12 and across the curriculum a common language and frame of reference for talking about student learning.

Curriculum and Evaluation

The fourth chapter of this document, "Constructing Curriculum," addresses the integration of the five critical experiences in daily, weekly and long-range instruction and curriculum planning, and deals with ways to use the PCRP II framework as a heuristic for critical reflection on current practice and for designing units and planned courses of study.

Chapter five, "Designing Congruent Evaluation," presents the view that integrative models of curriculum and learning are more likely to be successful if the evaluation program reflects these models. Six principles are proposed for designing the evaluation procedures. First, evaluation should interrelate language skills and content. Second, evaluation should put major emphasis on various forms of observation to assess student learning. Third, evaluation should focus on dimensions of student behavior which relate to improving performance. Fourth,

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

evaluation should provide information for teachers, parents and students about the students' evolving personal structures of knowledge: what they know, how they came to know it, and what significance it has for their own lives. Fifth, evaluation should involve students in assessing their own work and the efforts of their peers. Sixth, evaluation strategies need to be differentiated in order to address the needs and purposes of various constituencies: students, teachers, parents, administrators, school board members, and taxpayers. Recommendations are then given for "what" and "how" to evaluate, using the critical experience framework. Procedures for evaluation include observation and documentation of student learning, reading and writing conferences/ interviews, reading and writing portfolio analysis, as well as informal, teacher-made and standardized tests.

Implementing the Framework

The sixth chapter, "Implementing PCRP II Through Networking," brings us back full circle to the rationale for the PCRP II and to the state-wide plan for implementing the framework. It provides a set of specific, but adaptable suggestions for how this document may be used to effect change at the level of districts, schools and individual classrooms.

The use of the PCRP II framework for critical examination of current practice and for collaborative planning and problem-solving requires a school or school system willing to make a long term (3-5 year) commitment to becoming a community of reflective practitioners (Schon 1983). The particular shape of the implementation will vary from district to district, but each will involve planning and instituting a set of networking structures to insure the continuing collaborative education of the teaching and administrative leadership staff of the school community. These networks will involve teacher-to-teacher, school-to-school, and often district-university and/or district-intermediate unit collaborations.

One result of these local initiatives on the part of teachers and administrators will be The PCRP II Papers, an ongoing publication authored by Pennsylvania educators (teachers, supervisors, and administrators from participating districts and universities). These papers will document strategies, structures and programs for enhancing students learning through language in diverse schools and school districts. They will promote the dissemination of good ideas developed by participants and will thus contribute to networking across the state.

By working against the isolation of teachers in classrooms and providing opportunities for collaboration within and across schools and districts, the PCRP II aims to help restructure schools and districts as learning communities where the attitude of staff is one of mutual support and consultation. Thus any plan for implementing the framework should model and practice the pedagogy of PCRP II itself. The implementation of this document depends primarily on instructional and curricular leadership and on continuing, well-organized opportunities for teacher collaboration and mutual support. Teachers are key players in designing, specifying, evaluating and re-forming the curriculum, because in the end they are responsible for making it happen in the classroom.

We are confident that the districts who are willing to engage in these systemic interactions will find that implementing the PCRP II framework makes a difference - in maximizing student motivation and performance, in enhancing teacher professionalism, and in creating and sustaining an enriched climate for learning among all participants in the school community

Chapter Two

PERSPECTIVES ON THEORY AND PRACTICE

The goal of this document is to provide a conceptual framework which teachers and administrators can use to examine, and when appropriate, to improve school and classroom practice in language use across the curriculum. To introduce some of the fundamental assumptions about language, literacy and learning on which this framework is based, this chapter presents four perspectives or lenses for looking at the curriculum: learning as **meaning-centered, social, language-based and human.** As explained in the introduction, these perspectives are not really separate or discrete, and although distilled from current theory and research, they should not be regarded as a summary of all the relevant literature. Instead, the metaphor of a lens suggests a way of looking at students learning and teachers teaching from a variety of perspectives, our vision colored by one lens at a time[1]. Figure 1 illustrates the process we are suggesting:

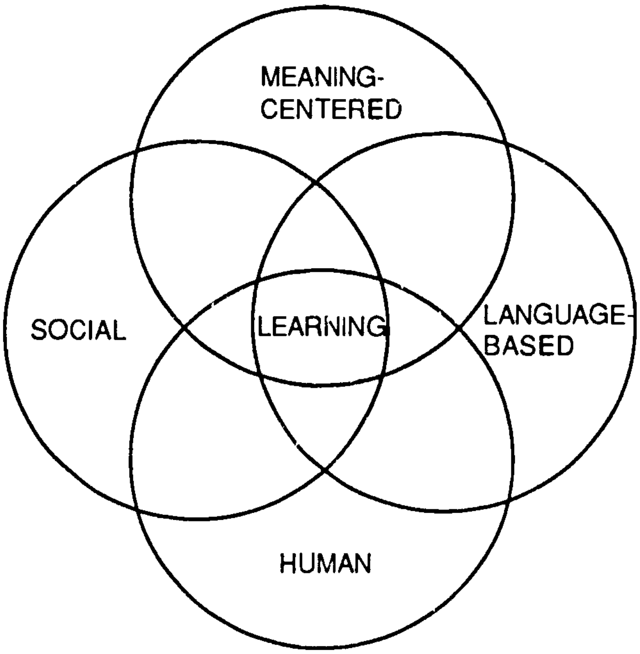

Figure 1: Four Lenses for Looking at the Curriculum

Taken together, these four lenses provide background for the chapters on the Five Critical

Experiences in which these themes are elaborated and related specifically to K-12 curriculum.

When looking at reading and writing practices in particular classroom environments, we need to pay attention to the multiple layers of context which inform what is happening. Picturing these nested contextual frames suggests that each layer both embodies and reflects attitudes, values, beliefs, practices, and policies about literacy and learning. Teachers choose texts for children to read, but the same texts may be presented quite differently in different teachers' classrooms. Writing assignments or homework may reflect parental values and expectations, while the functions and uses of literacy in the community may or may not be congruent with what is taught in school (Heath, 1983, 1986). Context is not simply the background for individual learning but rather the interrelated systems that structure ongoing activity (Cooper, 1985). The following diagram (adapted from Cochran-Smith 1984) begins to suggest some of these complexities:

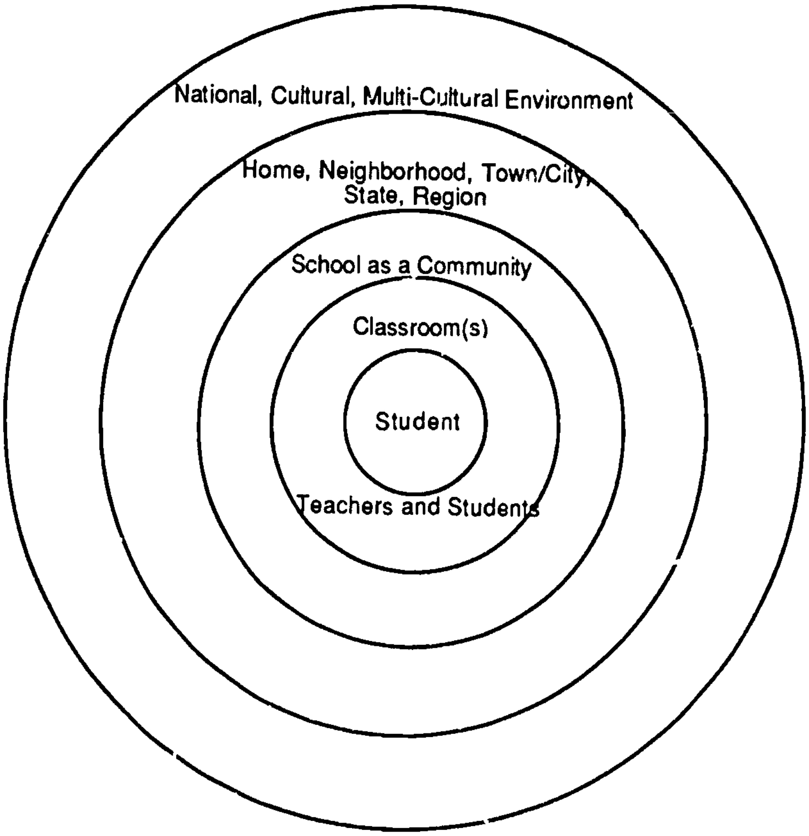
National, Cultural, Multi-Cultural Environment
Home, Neighborhood, Town/City, State, Region
School as a Community
Classroom(s)
Student
Teachers and Students

Figure 2: Multiple Layers of Context

Because reading and writing are not simply sets of technical or psychomotor skills whose performance is assumed to be essentially the same across contexts, examining and improving language use across the curriculum means something somewhat different in each setting. Although classrooms and schools and districts may find they have much in common, the PCRP II is based on the assumption that differences are also important. Rather than a rigid prescription for change, then, what is needed is a generative framework which can be adapted by professional educators working in a wide variety of socio-cultural contexts.

Learning as Meaning-Centered

Describing learning as meaning-centered reminds us that the most fundamental concern of any learner is 'making sense.' In the relationship between reader and text, then, the making of meaning is primary. To describe the activities of reading and writing, we prefer the word "transacting" which "designates an ongoing process in which the elements or parts are seen as aspects or phases of a total situation (Dewey and Bentley, 1949; Rosenblatt, 1985)." A transactional view of reading and writing argues that writers construct texts "through transactions with the developing text and the meaning being expressed (Goodman, 1984 p. 80)." Transformed in the process are the text itself and the writer's schemata or ways of organizing knowledge. During reading, readers construct texts by transacting with the page and indirectly with the author. Although reading is generally considered a "receptive" language process, this does not mean that the process is essentially passive. Readers use directions from the page to construct or compose meaning from their own prior knowledge; the reader must read between and beyond the lines. In this view one can question the whole notion of literal meaning, and assert, instead, that all reading is inferential or interpretive.

Like reading, the process of writing is generative of meaning: we do not simply write down or transcribe ideas that are fully formed before we put them to paper. The act of composing itself brings us ideas and insights. As meaning-making processes, reading, writing and talking are dynamic; meanings are developed and changed, discovered and clarified, during the activities themselves. Iser (1978) has described this aspect of reading as "setting the work in motion" and setting oneself in motion too.

Clearly in reading and writing the learner's prior knowledge plays an important role. Using language to learn requires actively relating the "new to the known," remembering what is already known or assumed about something in order to relate the new knowledge or information to one's existing structure of knowledge and to make new connections. There are many types of knowledge important to the acts of reading and writing, including knowledge of the world, of language, of the conventions and structures of texts, and of reading and writing themselves. Since all meanings are made in the context of prior meanings, with each person bringing a unique fund of prior knowledge and experience, we should not expect everyone to respond to texts in the same way.

Using language to make (not take) meaning involves both problem-posing and problem-finding. Problem posers continually raise critical questions appropriate to their purposes and to the context in which they are learning. They try to discover what is "problematic" in a text - what is implied, left out, or foregrounded, and why that might be so. Problem-finding or solving means monitoring and checking one's own level of understanding, planning what to do next, and using strategies to resolve difficulties in comprehending or composing. These activities assume a learner who is busy constructing his or her own personal system or knowledge, or as Smith (1975) puts it, "building a theory of the world in the head." In this view, learning is the individual's own sense-making activity. Expectations about how the world works are constructed out of one's experience (Lindfors 1987).

Readers and writers need the ability (and the inclination) to access and orchestrate what they know in order to learn. Often this process is messy, tentative and exploratory. It involves taking time to notice what one does and does not remember or understand, or perhaps partially understands. Learning also entails risk-taking, acquiring a tolerance for uncertainty. To make the ideas and language of a subject their own, learners need feedback and the opportunity to put the language of books (and teachers and peers) into their own words and to engage or process ideas meaningfully and deeply. Learners also need to acquire a repertoire of responses to the difficulties encountered while learning in this way ; often their only choices appear to them to be to skip things or ask the teacher.

Finally, meaning-making with language is greatly enhanced if learners (and teachers) view "errors" in reading and writing as windows on the mind, not pathologies. Rather than regarding mistakes as noise in the system, something simply to be corrected or gotten rid of, errors need to be viewed as efforts after meaning, evidence of some system or concept at work - "successive approximations" or "partial successes" (Shaughnessy 1977; Lindfors 1980, 1987). Students can learn to pay attention to their own approximations, to adopt an inquiry-based rather than a cover-up and get-it-done attitude. The counterforce in many classrooms is what is sometimes referred to as "the relentless push to the right answer," our well-meaning (but perhaps misguided) attempts to move the class along, keep the discussion going, and cover the material.

In contrast, inquiry into error or partial understanding requires an air of tentativeness and the extensive use of clarifying questions, by both students and teachers. This attitude toward uncertainty increases the likelihood that students will take risks. As Dweck (1983) has pointed out, there are serious problems with "errorless learning," first that it doesn't promote persistence in the face of obstacles, and second, that students who begin to depend on success in order to feel smart are more likely to interpret setbacks as failure. They may also use tremendous intellectual and social energy in trying to avoid being wrong. In pointing to the value of errors, Moffett and Wagner (1983) argue that extensive pre-teaching so that students will avoid errors is misguided. Absolutist thinking - 'you're either right or you're wrong' - does not contribute to an atmosphere of critical inquiry in which making meaning, not getting correct answers, is the essence of learning.

Learning as Social

An important part of the focus on meaning-making in learning is the notion that each learner needs to construct his or her personal system of knowledge or theory of the world. But we know that learners do not do that alone. Learning occurs in a social context; we make meaning in collaboration with others.

In the past several decades, for example, our understanding of how very young children develop competence in oral and written language has grown dramatically. Rather than learning to speak or write by passive imitation of adult models, we know now that children actively build complex repertoires of language strategies in order to make meaning out of their experience of the world (Harste, Woodward and Burke, 1984). Making use of context, they create rules for speaking, and their families, in turn, assume that these early vocalizations are meaningful. Parents and older siblings give feedback to children in some cases by expanding and elaborating on what children have had to say, and in other cases by modelling and telling stories. Language is thus created and recreated through social activity; the participants assume a mutual exchange of ideas, an effort after meaning, and therefore emphasize communication rather than focus on errors. In this environment children become increasingly competent language users before they ever begin formal schooling (Newman 1985; Heath 1983).

Studies on early child language development indicate the importance of social interaction to language learning and suggest the need to create meaningful, interactive language environments in classrooms at all levels. The work of Vygotsky (1978) and others suggests that the kind of social or interpsychological learning environment created in the classroom influences what students learn on an intrapsychological or individual level. In other words, social systems shape cognitive development. When teachers and learners interact and 'think aloud' about how to do things, for example, they learn not only the content but also how other people think and learn (Boomer, 1985). Another example is childrens' spontaneous and often unsanctioned talk in classrooms - what some consider "time off task." Recent research (Dyson, 1987) provides compelling evidence that children often use these opportunities to engage in intellectually demanding tasks; the academic and the social are not so neatly separated, nor should they be.

Recent research also points to the significance of the social participation structures which shape students' opportunities to learn; through their interactions, teachers and students shape the contexts in which teaching and learning take place (Erickson, 1982). In order to learn subject matter, students need to learn how to take turns at speaking, how to be effective and appropriate when they get a turn (Mehan, 1979), and how to interact with peers in groups constituted to perform a variety of tasks. As Cook-Gumperz puts it, "literacy learning takes place in a social environment through interactional exchanges in which what is to be learned is to some extent a joint construction of teacher and student. It is the purpose of educational settings to make possible this mutual construction" (1986, p. 8).

Knowledge of how to interact, how to communicate with one another appropriately in different situations, and how to make sense of what others say and do (part of what Hymes (1974) calls "communicative competence") is acquired by learners in a meaningful, interactive environment (Lindfors, 1987). We know that language is inherently social; writers assume readers, readers imagine writers. Talkers focus on listeners, and listeners attend to talkers. Readers and writers in the real world discuss, plan, research, collaborate, read and edit each other's work (Cooper, 1985). In short, they participate in communities of readers and writers. When classrooms function as communities of learners, the students' language processes, i.e. their choices about particular ways to go about reading, writing and talking, reflect the purposes established in social and communicative networks. And as much as possible, classrooms need to provide opportunities for learners to use language in ways that are closely related to the functions and uses of language in the wider social world.

To establish a community of learners in the school context means paying attention to how students learn to use language in social groups. Opportunities to work in pairs, triads and small groups greatly increase the amount of oral language students use. In addition, peer groups expand the audience for student writing beyond the teacher and provide valuable feedback on work in progress. Collaborative reading and talking about texts, whether written by published authors or by other students, provide the occasion for students to expand their own repertoire of responses - to listen for similarities and differences among their classmates' concepts and styles of responding. As students interact socially, they become teachers, shaping and elaborating each other's ideas.

Some have argued that because peers share similar perspectives, they can make unique contributions to each others' motivation, confidence and development of social skills in school (Argyle, 1976). Problem-posing and solving in social interaction with peers make possible the exploration, hypothesis-testing and idea generation that are integral to active learning of any subject. Students need social support for inquiry. Although teachers can and should lead frequent whole class activities, small groups of students can work together effectively to accomplish a variety of tasks.

Because children come to school with different cultural backgrounds and expectations for language use, teachers sensitized to these differences need to create structures that maximize the potential of diverse groups of learners. Most schools reinforce norms of individual achievement and competition; building social networks for collaborative learning takes careful planning and reframing of expectations. And although there are many questions that remain unanswered about the relationships between the larger instructional contexts and the internal dynamics of the groups themselves (DiPardo and Freedman, 1987), we have considerable evidence that collaboration and groups are critical for language development in schools,

Learning as Language-Based

Closely related to learning as meaning-centered and social, the third lens or perspective reminds us that learning in all content areas involves the use of language, and furthermore, that the best vehicle for language development is language itself, what Harste has called "using language to fine tune language." Using language does not, however, mean breaking it down into parts and teaching it part by part. Whole language theorists (cf. Edelsky, Goodman and Goodman, Harste) remind us that language is used to make meaning, to accomplish peoples' purposes; language always occurs in a situation, and these situations are critical to the meaning that is being made. As Edelsky points out, language is a system of systems, all of which interact and influence each other any time language is used. These systems (of sounds and spellings, of meanings, and of contexts and rules of use) cannot be extricated from instances of language in use without changing or decontextualizing them - and thus reducing their meaningfulness.

The available language for talking about these distinctions is often confusing and creates dichotomies where there may be none. For example, sometimes "process" teaching is opposed to "skill" teaching. Emphasizing the processes of learning is not incompatible with emphasizing the skills, even and especially when "skills" mean learning to spell or punctuate or paragraph. What differs is the approach: when and where and how to teach them, and what the consequences of these different approaches are for student learning. PCRP II is based on the notion that students learn language best by using it purposefully and studying its use while engaged in meaningful communication activities. Essentially, then, the PCRP II addresses language skills through attention to language processes and to learning content. Opposing "process" teaching to "content" teaching (e.g. How can I teach these students how to read when I have to cover all this content?) is similarly problematic and unnecessary. Content is learned with and through language processes, so at least some attention to process is essential.

Often "teaching skills" is used to mean teaching surface bits of language apart from meaningful situations. Workbooks exercises, for example, often present parts of language as discrete, thus removing these aspects of language from their context, making them harder to comprehend, and reducing the learner's purpose to fulfilling an assignment, rather than making meaning. This is not authentic reading or writing, but rather a simulation, an exercise in reading and writing (Edelsky and Smith, 1984). Exercises lack the most essential features of language in use and thus have little power as learning activities for students, particularly when compared to the alternatives available in classrooms where reading and writing are taught as meaning-making and social activities. Other examples of decontextualized language include grammar books, skillsheets, and vocabulary lists, for they provide skill practice outside of real reading and writing and without the inherent purposes of communicating and understanding.

We know that information taught out of meaningful context is abstract, difficult to learn, task-specific and often quickly forgotten. To become skillful readers, students must be involved in tasks which have real consequences. Learning language, and using language to learn content, are ultimately personal, unique to each individual learner; students may acquire a shared body of knowledge, but they will learn the specifics of language in quite different ways. What is systematic (cumulative, but not simply linear) in this learning is not primarily in the materials but rather in the individual learner's experiences, and in the complex interactions of students with each other, with the teacher, and with others within and outside of the classroom learning community.

Given a rich language environment, purposeful activity, and abundant opportunities for choice, students will use language for authentic, communicative purposes. Our problem is not how to teach language but how to enhance the language learning already taking place (Brossell, 197). As language users at home, young children organize the information to be learned in a manner and sequence reflecting their psycho-social needs; they are, by nature, systematic learners (Lindfors, 1987). Carefully observing the learners' activities in the classroom, a teacher can plan curriculum based on the learners' needs and interests. The goal of teaching, Smith (1973) suggests, is to respond to what the child is trying to do, and to enable or empower learners to use language for their own purposes.

Becoming a reader and a writer occurs gradually throughout the grades and across content areas, a growth process probably best pictured as a spiral or continuum rather than the linear accretion of specific skills (Bruner,1961). Young readers are like adult readers in that they use the same strategies that adults do when making sense of whole texts. Even adults who are mature and fluent readers and writers continue to develop as readers and writers as they encounter more and more difficult texts and learn to generate and respond to them in new ways. Developing as a reader and writer in a context where reading and writing are separated is a tremendous and unnatural constraint on students' opportunities to become competent with written language.

Creating authentic language learning environments also means integrating the language processes with each other, especially the activities of reading and writing. Here we are confronted with an unfortunate legacy. Reading and writing have a clear history of separation in our curriculum from grades K - 12 and extending into college. Yet the similarities and relationships between reading and writing argue strongly for teaching and learning them together. Reading is sometimes referred to as a receptive language art and writing as productive, but it is more helpful, and accurate, to view them both as constructive, both acts of "composing." Reading and writing co-occur, so that the processes merge and effect each other. Acts of reading often involve nearly simultaneous acts of writing, like note-taking and marking a text. Writers are their own first readers. The processes are in some sense reciprocal, and as Smith (1983), Tierney and Pearson (1983) and others have indicated, children need to learn to "read like writers" and "write like readers."

Oral and written language should be continuously related and integrated. Although people write differently from the way that they speak, neither speaking nor writing is a unified phenomenon (Cnafe and Danielwicz, 1987). There are multiple styles of speaking and writing which overlap and vary with context, purpose and subject matter. As with reading, speakers and writers need to develop a repertoire of approaches, a versatile set of strategies for different tasks, texts and contexts. We know that children presented with the same routines for responding to text, day after day, never learn to vary their style of reading to suit different tasks and purposes,but they do learn the very unhelpful and incorrect idea that the same approach is to be employed with all reading materials. Experimentation with a wide variety of types of written text is essential, as are opportunities to discuss, enact, and present ideas orally for many different audiences and purposes.

Learning as Human

The final lens focuses on the intrapersonal dimension of learning, the notion that all learners use language to make meaning in unique ways. Students each bring their own fund of prior knowledge and experience. As they progress through school, they have the potential to develop their own distinctive styles of reading and writing, their own voices and strategies for learning. By styles, then, we do not mean to suggest internal, fixed traits, but rather what Johnston (1985) calls "states," features of individual performance which vary across situations. In order for students to become increasingly independent learners in a variety of situations, they need to become reflective, to acquire hat is currently called "metacognitive awareness" or knowledge of their own thinking. As they become more conscious of their own styles of reading and writing and of the resources they are bringing to learning, they become more attuned to different texts and tasks, and more capable of selecting or developing learning strategies appropriate for particular situations.

Attitude also affects peoples' images of themselves as readers and writers. Attitudes may be seen as beliefs that individuals have about themselves relative to a given task (Paris and Gross, 1983). Students' feelings are a powerful component of how they think and learn. This is sometimes referred to as the relationship between "skill" and "will." Crucial variables for success in school include the effort one is willing to expend in completing a school task, the underlying assumptions children bring about 'locus of control' (i e. whether they are in charge of their learning or whether things are being 'done to them'), and students' general feeling of self-worth.

Building self-esteem and learning to understand others (two of Pennsylvania's Quality Goals of Education) further depend on exposure to literary and non-fictional texts that present students with significant ideas (McLeod, 1986) and with differences of opinion so that they can learn to dialogue, to "doubt" and "believe" (Elbow, 1973), and to write on subjects about which students can express deep convictions. Fed a steady diet of facts and textbook syntheses, students cannot become the kind of active and engaged learners for whom this framework is intended. As Freire (1985) explains, reading the word is dependent upon reading the world. A child's growing awareness of the world involves experiences and objects as texts, a kind of reading through which the self learns and changes. Reading and writing texts is part of human development; learning to read is an act of knowing, a creative act in which the learner comes to understand the self and the social world. Children read the world before they read the word; when they write a new text, they not only represent but also transform the world. Looking through the human lens, then, we see the enormous potential of language to empower individuals and groups to reflect and to act on their worlds.

Conclusion

Our intent in this document is to provide a structure and a starting place for both inquiry and action, to encourage a process of critical reflection in which theory and research inform practice and practice informs theory and research. Although the PCRP II is comprehensive, using the framework entails going beyond this text to read, write and talk about some of the research on teaching and learning on which it is based. Teachers and administrators who participate in these discussions will also need to look closely at what is currently going on in their classrooms and schools, to consider the theories or assumptions implicit in classroom practices, to compare their observations with what they read, and to experiment with teaching/learning strategies proposed in PCRP II. In this way, educational practitioners will become more than just sophisticated consumers of research. Through their own interpretation and implementation of these ideas, teachers and administrators can make vital contributions to our collective knowledge about the interrelationships of language and literacy, teaching and learning, as played out in specific contexts.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Chapter Three

CRITICAL EXPERIENCE 1
READING: TRANSACTING WITH TEXTS

The first critical experience focuses on the development of active, motivated readers who engage in reading for a variety of authentic purposes, both in and out of school. Here reading is viewed as a complex interplay of many factors, not the simple exercise of skills. By calling reading events "transactions," we emphasize the organic, ongoing nature of the reading processes (Dewey and Bentley 1949; Rosenblatt, 1985) to which readers bring prior knowledge, experience, beliefs and attitudes. Meanings are not simply "in the text," to be extracted by readers. Successful encounters with texts are constructive and interpretive: readers of all ages relate the new to the known, integrate and refine concepts, make (not simply take) meaning. Children learn to read and read to learn--both at the same time. From the beginning, then, reading is about making sense of the world. Creating a learning environment in school in which meaningful reading transactions occur frequently, throughout the grades and across the curriculum, is the focus of this critical experience.

The first section, "Theory and Practice," draws implications for teaching from current research on the reading processes. It explores what readers bring to the act of reading, the different types of transactions with texts that can occur, and the need for readers to acquire a repertoire of strategies for different texts, tasks and contexts. "Classroom Activities: K-12" points to ways that teachers in all grades and content areas can create the environment for such reading transactions through discussion, enactment, presentation, writing and other media. Using a "Before, During and After" structure, teachers can plan reading/learning activities for individuals, pairs and/or small groups as well as for the whole class. In "Suggestions Specific to Grade Level and Content Area," these general approaches are linked to specific contexts.

Theory and Practice

READERS

Using language in constructive and meaningful ways is not new to children just beginning their formal education. We know from current research that when students enter school, they already come as active processors of language. In their day-to-day transactions with people and their physical environment, they have acquired a complex repertoire of strategies for creating meaning out of their experience (Newman, 1987). Being introduced to reading as 'meaning-making experience,' then, naturally extends the pre-school child's world, no matter how few or how many specific opportunities children may have had to engage in literacy -related activities before coming to school.

At every age and grade level, children bring relevant prior experience, knowledge, attitudes and beliefs to reading. By prior knowledge and experience, we mean what students know about the world, including what they know about oral and written language - their expectations about the content, structures and conventions of texts they choose or are assigned to read. They also bring information about what is involved in the act of reading itself - what their experience has taught them counts in reading and ways to cope with what they do and do not understand.

According to current research (cf. Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Rumelhart, 1980), our prior knowledge is organized into structures called schemata. A schema may be a concept or a set of related concepts. Readers use schemata to read between and beyond the lines: what is actually on the page is merely suggestive, never fully explicit. In classrooms readers need the inclination and the opportunity to access what they already know in order to respond to new information - to relate the new to the known. To help them learn actively from texts, teachers can help students build a context or framework for new ideas, encourage them to extend their structures of prior knowledge, and to read texts in light of other texts and life experiences. Lacking a framework, facts or concepts encountered randomly or casually are rarely integrated into the 'known' and thus quickly forgotten.

Reading constructively involves posing, as well as finding and solving problems (Freire, 1978; Shor, 1987). Problem posing and problem finding readers continually ask themselves questions. Monitoring their own understanding or partial understanding as they work through the text, these readers use a variety of strategies: they plan, predict, keep track of what is partially understood, hypothesize, search for evidence to support hypotheses, and in many other ways take control of their reading processes. Problem finding and problem solving readers read to build a useful, personal structure of knowledge. They do not act as if they were empty vessels or receivers of information. As they read, they attempt to integrate new information with prior knowledge, earlier parts of the text with later ones. Rather than viewing texts as the authority and reading to find answers to someone else's questions, problems posers/finders read critically and creatively, taking charge of their own meaning-making processes.

To develop problem poser/finders/solvers, then, instruction needs to be organized so that readers are encouraged to become actively engaged with texts, to take a tentative or questioning stance, to go beyond initial or surface understanding. and to become responsible for their own interpretations. Even very young children can be problem posing/finding/solving readers; pre-schoolers, for example, when being read to by a parent or teacher often hypothesize about what will come next, ask "why" questions and evaluate the ending of a story, according to their own experience and expectations. Often this is because of the ways teachers and parents guide childrens' readings as they read aloud to them.

To read actively also entails readers' knowledge of their own reading processes and strategies, what is currently referred to as "metacognition" (Brom, 1980). Effective readers are at least tacitly aware of (a) what they bring to the text (prior knowledge, belief systems, attitudes, experiences), (b) what the text brings to them (including features of structure, content and form), and (c) what purposes and expectations are implied in the reading task, both as defined by the reader or the teacher. Strategies or processes (e.g. previewing or not, reading quickly or slowly, questioning etc) are in turn governed by purposes. Purposes help readers "keep track" so that when the text presents difficulties, some further strategy can be used to comprehend. In purposeful reading, the learner cares enough about the text to use strategies for understanding what is not immediately understood. If reading in school is regarded as "completing assignments," readers are unlikelv to learn to read strategically.

Learning to read across the curriculum means learning the terminology, conventions, and rules of evidence for different disciplines, but it also means acquiring some general approaches to reading that are useful across a variety of texts and contexts. The chart that follows, TYPES OF TRANSACTIONS WITH TEXTS, describes ways readers become engaged with text before, during and after reading (Purves and Rippere 1968; Beach 1986; Lytle 1982). Because the processes of reading and responding to text are extremely complex and contextualized, taking "reading" itself apart for analysis can be problematic. Adapted from research on actual readers in the process of reading, however, this description provides a more holistic and theory-driven alternative to the typical lists of subskills. Unlike subskills (e.g. finding the main idea), transactions differ in important ways for different tasks and contexts. The chart implies no hierarchy or order; indeed, many of these transactions occur simultaneously, overlap and affect each other. In different situations, some will be more appropriate for literary texts, others for informational texts.

TYPES OF TRANSACTIONS WITH TEXT

TYPES	DEFINITIONS	SAMPLE QUESTIONS
EMOTIONAL, EXPERIENTIAL AND AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL	Initial response, showing involvement with the text; identifying and/or empathizing Experiencing the text by using mental/sensory imagery	What stands out for me? How do I feel about this?
CONNECTIVE	Linking text with prior experiences, with attitudes and ideas and similar texts, other ideas within the text; making analogies	What does this text make me think of? remind me of? How does this text fit with what I already know about this subject?
DESCRIPTIVE AND ANALYTIC	Noticing features of the text, e.g. choice or function of particular words,syntax or length of sentences; functions of sentences or paragraphs in the text; characters and events; tone; type of discourse; style; use of metaphor or other figures of speech; author's arguments	How does this text work? What's going on here? What does it say?
INTERPRETIVE AND ELABORATIVE	Using reasoning or problem-solving strategies to construct meaning, resolve doubts and make sense of text; hypothesizing; making predictions, asking questions; using evidence to confirm or disconfirm a hypothesis or prediction or to answer own question. Explaining, exploring, making inferences, questioning and defining intentions, problems, themes, symbols Creating, revising and adding to text. Pondering implications of ideas, incl. incongruities, discrepancies, ambiguities, omissions.	What does this text mean? What might be added here? omitted? changed? Where can I apply these ideas? How valid/reliable is this argument?
EVALUATIVE	Evaluating the text according to criteria related to appropriateness, effectiveness, difficulty, relevance, importance of content or form	Does this make sense? How [good] is this? What do I agree/ disagree with?
SELF-REFLECTIVE	Noticing one's own processes of reading; monitoring or keeping track of current understandings of words, sentences, or discourse level meanings; noticing conflicts between text and own knowledge an beliefs	What am I doing as I read ? What questions do I have? What do I understand? not understand?

Given age-appropriate texts, tasks and contexts, even beginning readers are capable of engaging in these types of transactions. In other words, reading analytically can occur in Kindergarten; students in the fifth grade can interpret, evaluate and be self-reflective about age-appropriate texts. In a strict sense, these transactions are never finally "learned" or "checked out of" since we continue to grow and develop as readers throughout our lives. Activities need to be designed which encourage students to experience the range of possible transactions and to internalize a set of questions for use in independent, self-guided reading. This chart may be useful to teachers in planning small group and whole class discussions, writing assignments, and other activities which encourage active reading.

TEXTS

For students to develop as active and strategic readers, schools need to provide access to a wide range of texts at every grade level and in every subject area. By texts, we mean all types of printed material from stories, poems or novels to textbooks, monographs, journal articles and newspapers, including materials authored by students themselves. By extension, oral or visual "texts" such as films, video or audiotapes, teacher lectures and student presentations may also be considered part of learning to transact with texts.

Texts read in school can be grouped into two general categories: literary (including fiction, drama and poetry) and informational (including any other type of writing designed primarily to inform or persuade). Although in the preceding description of readers we have chosen to emphasize the similarities in transacting with different types of texts rather than the differences, it is also important to point out some unique qualities.

Literary Texts

Starting with kindergarten and the primary grades, literature plays a key role in learning to read. Throughout the grades and in many subjects across the curriculum, reading and responding to literature expand the lives of students by broadening and enriching their experience, by enhancing their pleasure and appreciation of language used as a medium of art, and by acquainting them with the literary traditions of various periods and cultures. Literature offers many opportunities for talking, listening and writing, including interactions which are based on the students' own literary writing.

To provide these opportunities, a wide variety of literary genre needs to be introduced and students engaged aesthetically with these texts. This means, in part, focusing on what is "lived through" in the reading event (Rosenblatt, 1978). The evocation of the text, as Rosenblatt calls it, involves attending to ideas, feelings, images, situations and characters. For Iser, meaning in literature is "an experience, a complex set of thoughts, visions, and feelings rather than a residue of propositions or assertions remaining after a text has been read (Probst 1986)." Reading and responding also involve the exploration of universal themes and the realities of one's own life, in relation to what literature has to say about significant social, ethical, aesthetic, cultural and political concepts and issues.

With literary texts, the goal is not to answer a set of questions or to arrive at a single meaning or interpretation. To Iser (1974), a "literary text must ...be conceived in such a way that it will engage the reader's imagination in the task of working things out for [one]self, for reading is only a pleasure when it is active and creative." The text is not the only source of meaning; readers, as we have said above, bring their own histories. Reading literature means co-creating, with the author, and with each other, the literary work. Classroom activities built on these assumptions give students confidence in their ability to deal with difficult texts: to discriminate, make judgments, and to appreciate the author's craft.

Informational Texts

In addition to literary texts, as students progress through the grades they need to encounter a variety of informational or expository materials, including not just textbooks but also manuals, essays, newspapers, magazines, journals, monographs, and documents. Many schemes exist for classifying these texts, but the distinction between texts that aim primarily to inform (i.e. record, report, define, analyze, classify, explain, analogize, generalize or theorize) and those that aim to persuade (i.e. instruct, recommend, demand, legislate, regulate, judge, advocate or argue) may be most useful here (Britton 1975; Mellon 1981). These are not discrete categories, of course, because a text may be both informational and persuasive at the same time, and many fictive or imaginative texts both inform and persuade.

A survey of texts currently in schools would likely reveal that many more textbook-like, informational materials than either primary source or persuasive materials are in use. More access to primary sources gives students opportunities to cope with material written for audiences other than themselves. In addition, children can be encouraged to think about how historians write history, for example - what kinds of documents they use and how they select and manage historical evidence. Persuasive materials invite critical and creative thinking and reading, and lend themselves to debate and development of arguments. Part of the difficulty students encounter in writing in the middle and upper grades may be explained by their limited exposure - as readers - to materials which take a position and argue it. In general, whole texts, written for authentic purposes in the world and brought into the classroom, usually make better reading materials than fragments, or materials written or rewritten strictly for school use.

Clearly we should be concerned primarily about the quality of the material we ask students to read and the nature of the activities they engage in with text, and much less concerned with specific levels of text difficulty or readability per se. Readability formulas are based on the notion that text difficulty can be determined by measuring features such as vocabulary and sentence length. Furthermore, that texts with particular combinations of these features can be assigned specific grade or reading levels. There are at least two problems with this. First of all, we know from much classroom experience that difficulty is not strictly an "in the text" phenomenon, that it is contextual, related to the readers' prior knowledge and to the social environment for reading in the classroom. Except in materials designed for 'reading programs,' texts do not easily arrange themselves along a simple continuum of increasing difficulty.

Belief in a scientific basis for reading grade levels, however, has led to a second problem: dependence on using these graded materials as the foundation for reading instruction. Constructed by using readability formulas to generate or adapt texts, material rewritten according to a formula is often confusing to read; ironically, "simpler" language obscures the connections between ideas and extracts the interesting words and concepts which would contribute to its comprehensibility. More complex texts (e.g. with conjunctions and clauses) are often easier to process. A concern with "covering material" or "moving students through material, " with "management" rather than meaning and engagement, has become pervasive, so that little time is available for activities with the wide variety of authentic materials described above, nor the diversity of tasks or purposes which is the focus of the section below.

READING TASKS

By reading task, we are referring to what students choose or are asked to do with texts in school - the range of goals or purposes for which they read across the grades and content areas. Given what we have said about readers and texts, it is important to consider the different types of tasks teachers typically assign and whether this array enables students to learn to read strategically and for their own purposes.

One useful framework for examining tasks comes from a model developed by Jenkins (1979) and used by Brown (1982) and others. Designed to explore questions about learning from texts, the model posits four interacting factors or variables, to which we have added a fifth:

1. The characteristics of the learner - i.e. knowledge, skills, attitudes
2. The nature of the materials - i.e. text structure, content
3. The criterial tasks - i.e. the goal or end product of the activity
4. The learner's strategies - i.e. what the learner does
5. The multiple layers of context which inform learning in a particular setting

What the model suggests is that any reading event involves an interaction among all five aspects. The reader's strategies include what section of the text to read first, how quickly or slowly to read, how much and what kind of attention to pay to different aspects of the text (language, structure, point of view, facts etc), how to mark or take notes on the text, what questions to keep in mind while reading, how to read rapidly to search for particular information or deeply to evoke images and appreciate language. These strategies may be deliberate and conscious, a matter of planning and forethought, or quite unconscious, virtually automatic. A **reader's strategies** reflect a set of (perhaps implicit) choices based on:

-**self-knowledge** (What do I know already? What do I believe about this topic? What are my questions?)

-**prior understanding and expectations about** what such reading **materials** are likely to contain (Have I read this author before? How is this textbook organized? What do I know about newspaper editorials?)

-a **'reading' of the task** (What does this assignment ask of me? What do I want to learn? What do the teacher and/or other students expect? What will we do with this reading in class? Will I write or draw about what I have read? Be tested on it? Use it to create another text for my classmates? Do I need to remember all of this, or can I return to these materials when I need them? How can I use this in my report/project/life?)

Far too many students approach all reading tasks in the same way. They do not vary their style of reading according to text, task and context. They have little conscious awareness of choice and hence little investment or sense of control over the processes or outcomes. Becoming strategic means acquiring a repertoire:. what is critical is that students be given many opportunities in school to figure out how to go about reading something. Some of these tasks or purposes will be set by the teacher, others will be negotiated between teacher and class, and others should be tasks that students have chosen for themselves, among an array of possibilities.

By context we mean what we have added to the Jenkins/Brown model: a fifth dimension. Context refers to the attitudes, beliefs, values and practices about reading and learning embodied in a particular classroom, school, school system, and community (see Chapter 2). An individual student's reading occurs in the context of the system's and teachers' expectations, as expressed in the choice of texts and tasks, and the ways these are framed and presented to the students. In one sense, teachers and students mutually construct this context through their interactions in the classroom.

Looking at the array of tasks typically offered in schools, we can see a cause for concern. Although any type of text can in theory be read for a variety of purposes, students are too often assigned to read informational texts for a single purpose. Faced routinely with a set of questions posed by a teacher, a textbook, or contained in a worksheet or workbook, students become passive responders, reading the assigned material and then giving back to the teacher answers to test-like questions which are presumed to be "in the text." Fed a steady diet of "read this story or chapter" and then "answer these questions," students read to remember facts long enough to repeat them in class discussion or on a test, and they do not get encouragement to formulate their own questions. Furthermore, they come to regard texts as authoritative, containing facts or truths, and their task as reader to be one of absorption. Many materials ask readers to find the author's 'main idea,' yet we know that literacy events involve the intentions of both readers and writers. A particular text may be read for different purposes by different readers, or by a single reader for different purposes at different times. To assort that all readers should be able to agree on a text's "main idea" is to assume that the meaning is in the text.

Informational or expository texts (like literary texts) contain a plurality of meanings, depending on the context and the reader's purpose. Rather than extracting meaning, then, the reader needs to take a constructive stance, using whatever approaches will yield the desired type of understanding and interpretation. In confronting a particular textbook, for example, a reader's primary task may not be to absorb all of the information. Instead, the reader probably needs to be quite selective, to decide which concepts or arguments merit attention, while making a deliberate attempt to regard other material as not 'meaningful' in this particular situation (i.e. knowing what not to read). Selecting depends on a clear purpose and context for reading. Lacking these, students will fail to take charge, and instead go on 'fishing expeditions,' dropping bait here and there hoping to capture the "right answer".

Literary texts, on the other hand, are too often taught and read as if 'informational' - as if the task of the reader was to extract facts and ideas to answer the teacher's or basal manual's questions. As Winograd and Johnston (1987) and others have pointed out, questions following reading focus students on the content and the products of reading and away from total involvement in the process. Returning to the ideas of reader-response theory , we find four principles or assumptions about **reading literature** (adapted from Rosenblatt, 1978) particularly useful:

1. Reading is a lived-through experience or event. The reader "evokes" the text, bringing a network of past experiences with the world, with language and with other texts.
2. The meaning is neither in the reader nor in the text, but in the reciprocal transaction between the two.
3. There is no single correct reading of a literary text.
4. In any specific reading activity, given agreed upon purposes and criteria, some readings or interpretations are more defensible than others.

Since all meanings are made in the context of prior knowledge, and since each person brings to the transaction a unique fund of prior experience, attitudes and beliefs, everyone should not be expected to approach the text in exactly the same way or even to have similar responses. To explore similarities and differences among individual readings, open-ended discussion and other tasks driven by students' (as opposed to teachers') questions and interests are essential. Three and four above are not contradictory, although in practice it may take time to help students understand their meaning and implications.

Although there may be many meanings constructed by readers in a particular context, this does not rule out the possibility of truly incoherent readings, as when someone "transacts" a meaning that cannot be traced to any cues in the text. Some of these problematic transactions are very subtle and take time to tease out and understand. Rather than seeming to condone an extreme form of relativism, what we are suggesting (with Purves, 1972) is that readers be encouraged to examine closely their own responses, exploring where in the text and in their previous experience their ideas come from. In classrooms where teacher and students function as a community of readers, students develop curiosity and commitment to comparing their own perceptions and interpretations with those of others. It is through these patient conversations that particular readings may emerge as more compelling.

READERS, TEXTS, TASKS AND CONTEXTS

Putting it all together, then, entails creating an environment for learning that encourages active, purposeful reading of a wide range of materials. The classroom (and the school as a whole) becomes a community in which students experience "reading" as an intellectual and social process. Group transactions with text contribute to the individual's sense of uniqueness at the same time that they provide the opportunity to explore points of commonality. In this view, reading ability is not something "in the reader" any more than meaning is simply "in the text." Depending on how reading is presented to learners, on what texts and tasks are foregrounded and valued in particular settings, the abilities of students as readers are socially constructed by schools.

Classroom Activities: K-12

To create an environment for learning in which reading is experienced as meaningful 'transactions with text,' a variety of formats are useful. With adaptations, these activities can be used successfully with students of all ages and across the curriculum:

I. **DISCUSSIONS** - informal, spontaneous sharing between/among pairs or triads; structured discussion tasks designed for pairs, triads and small groups; whole class discussions (led by teacher or students)

II. **ENACTMENTS** - oral and choral readings, role-playing, dramatizations (including Readers' Theater, pantomine, improvisation, simulation), panel discussions, debates, etc.

III. **PRESENTATIONS** - talks, speeches, oral reports, demonstrations, panels

IV. **WRITING** - retellings, questions, notes, mappings, all other literary and informational forms

IV. **OTHER MEDIA** - artistic (eg drawing, sculpting, constructing), musical, audiotape, video or film

All of these formats or activities involve some form of composing, whether oral or written, and may take place before, during or after reading. When they occur after reading, they may naturally lead to further language activities, such as discussing or writing in response to enactments or drawing from something that has been written.

The most obvious kind of enactment occurs when teachers read aloud to students, an event which we believe should occur **daily** in the primary and middle grades and as frequently as possible at all grade levels. Hearing literature and other texts (including students' work) read aloud gives all students access to more sophisticated and linguistically complex texts than may be handled independently. In addition, the teacher's role as oral interpreter and mediator enhances comprehension by showing the reader what to do with texts (Cochran-Smith, 1988). Providing opportunities for students to interact as they listen to these more challenging texts - to ask questions, compare experiences etc. - provides a "scaffolding" (Bruner, 1961; Vygotsky,1978) for building more complex responses. The following chart suggests ways that teachers (and parents) can use the storyreading process to help children develop the literacy and social knowledge needed to respond to print:

Reading Aloud to Children

Cochran-Smith[2]

(1) **Storyreading is a process of interactive negotiation.**

- -both storyreader and listeners participate actively (children do not sit quietly and "just listen")
- -storyreading takes the form of a dialoque or conversation, not a "performance" by the reader
- -reader and listeners jointly build or "negotiate" the meaning of the story

(2) **The storyreader alternates between two roles.**

monitoring:

- -interpreting the text as well as the sense listeners are making of it
- -assessing the "match" between the fictionalized readers implied in texts and the real "readers" listening to the story

mediating:

- -filling in some of the gaps that exist between children and the texts they are being read
- -providing background information that real readers do not have
- -modifying the text by shortening or simplifying its syntax and vocabulary
- -providing additional connectives, transitions, or explanatory language
- -recycling pages of text or pictures where confusion occurs
- -reacting to the text as a reader and modeling appropriate reader response

(3) **The storyreader initiates two kinds of interactive sequences during storyreading (not simply follow-up)**

Life-to-Text	**Text-to-Life**
point is to make sense of the text	point is to relate or apply the text
use knowledge gained outside the text to make sense within the text	relate the text's theme, moral or message to one's own life experiences
-knowledge of the world (labels, connotations, interrelationships)	-using books for counseling, solving problems
-knowledge of literary conventions (genres, bookmaking)	-using books for acquiring new information or confirming prior information
-knowledge of narrative (character, action, temporal sequence, cause and effect relationships, prior and forthcoming event relationships)	-using books to stretch the imagination
-knowledge of how to respond as a reading audience	-using books for relaxation, entertainment

Any of the activities listed above may occur before, during and/or after reading. Using the **BEFORE, DURING and/or AFTER** concept as an organizing structure, teachers can plan experiences for individual readers, pairs, triads(groups of three), or small groups, as well as for activities involving the whole class. The structure can be used for any type of reading material, literary or informational, and may be used as an alternative to the prescriptive routines of the basal reader and accompanying workbooks and skill materials or to textbooks and their accompanying questions and exercises.

In the chart that follows,"Surrounding Reading with Talking, Listening, and Writing," we have provided a partial listing of options for language activities to surround reading. Although some are more appropriate to literary and others to informational text, all encourage readers to become actively and meaningfully engaged with the text:

BEFORE READING:	strategies designed to link students' experience to the text, access relevant prior knowledge, become acquainted with the scope and organization of the text before reading it
DURING READING:	strategies designed to help students read constructively, to use a range of "types of transactions" appropriate to the task [cf. chart p. 25], to capture initial personal responses
AFTER READING:	strategies designed to develop initial responses, to gather data about responses from students, to connect with other texts, to consolidate facts and ideas, and to deepen and extend students' responses

Using the chart involves selecting activities appropriate to the students, text and purpose, and/or setting up a structure for students to make their own selections. As Winograd and Johnston (I987)recently pointed out in reference to elementary reading instruction, purpose setting before reading has become "ubiquitous and narrow." Rather than routinely asking students about the topic of the text to be read (Winograd and Johnston's example is "Have you ever had a nightmare?"), teachers can provide interactive language-rich experiences before reading which motivate and stimulate readers, individually or as a group, to construct their own purposes. When teachers dispense with "before reading" activities because of the constraints of time ("Read chapter five for tomorrow and answer the questions'), students are likely to read merely to satisfy requirements, to 'get it done' rather than to inquire into or learn about the subject.

SURROUNDING READING WITH TALKING, LISTENING AND WRITING

BEFORE READING

Questioning (teacher and/or students) and Discussing

using prior knowledge,
textual clues (title, headings, summary etc)

Brainstorming

using textual clues
using topic of article
using key words or concepts
using an analogy or problem

Extended Brainstorming + Categorizing + Mapping*

using material from text, topic, key words etc

Previewing the Text

examining clues to overall structure
setting purposes and gen. questions
selecting appropriate reading strategies
teacher/student reading aloud

Writing

non-stop: focused or generalized
jotting or note-making
questions
pretest or questionnarie

Enacting

role-play, improvisation
dramatization , debate etc.

Constructing

sketching, drawing, building

Viewing

film, video etc on topic of reading (while writing)

DURING READING

Teacher-Directed

questioning/predicting
role-taking
playing doubting/believing
reading aloud

Students Independently

marking or glossing text
taking notes
writing questions
partner reading
keeping reading journal

AFTER READING

Discussions

retellings (from different points of view)
responding to any before or during reading activities

Enactments

debate, panel discussion,
dramatization, simulation
role-play etc.

Oral Presentations

demonstrations; talks

Writing

nonstop: focused or generalized
note-making
writing or ans. questions
mapping or revising map previously made
literary or informational text
making up test

Reading

related material
rereading text from different perspectives

Constructing

sketching
drawing

Viewing

slides, filmstrip,
video, film etc. related to text

---

*Mapping includes charting, diagramming, and other visual or graphic representations of ideas. [see Critical Experience 5: Learning to Learn]

There are many similarities between the Before, During and After framework and the DRA and DRTA, but there are also important differences. In using the Before, During and After framework for planning, one teacher developed the following chart to explain to herself and to her colleagues how she thinks it differs from the typical directed reading activity (adapted from Pincus, 1986)[3]:

D.R.A (Directed Reading Activity)	B.D.A. (Before, During and After Framework)
Readiness and Motivation	Before
- teacher discusses concepts, vocabulary, situations from text with class - teacher sets purpose for reading ("Let's read to find out. . .) - no writing is involved - talking occurs, but only with students who are not reluctant to speak	- teacher asks students to write about concepts, vocabulary, situations from text - students share what they've written with each other, in small groups, then whole group - each student writes and talks - teacher asks students to predict what story will be about and to set purpose for reading - teacher helps activate prior knowledge
Oral/Silent Reading	During
- students read silently - sometimes students read orally in round robin fashion	- teacher may read aloud to class or students may read silently - students "talk" to the text by annotating while they read; questioning, comparing etc - students connect new to known; relate what they are reading to their own experiences
Followup Activities	After
- students answer comprehension questions - many students skim text for answers - teacher selects questions and/or writing topic	-students discuss what they have noticed while reading - students may suggest topics to write about etc. - students may engage in problem-solving or discovery activities to explore the texts further

One version of the BDA framework that many teachers find particularly helpful is called the K-W-L (Ogle, 1986). Before students read, they access what they **know**, during reading they emphasize what they **want** to find out, and after reading what they **learned** and still need to **learn.** Using some predictable formats students become familiar with the structure and with encouragement can innovate and extend its possibilities. Having students frequently assume the roles of characters in fiction or history, to add another episode or to rewrite an ending - these activities can be done over and over again with different texts in different subject areas. Rather than constantly looking for "new techniques," teachers and students explore deeply and fully the variations possible with certain fundamental strategies. Based on what we have learned from teachers, we think a few of these formats merit special mention.

Dialectical Journals/Notebooks For Responding to Reading In All Subjects

The dialectical or double entry journal (Berthoff, 1981) promotes students' exploration of their own responses. Using a notebook page divided in half, students use one side for what stands out while in the process of reading or listening: immediate responses, questions, observations about the writer, memories called to mind , direct quotations, speculations, citations, facts, concepts, summaries - like written "think-alouds." On the other side, they comment on these notes: questions, interpretations, elaborations, and evaluations of what has been noted. At the end of each page of notes, students can reread and draw new connections before going on. One side, then, is for collecting information - observations made about what is going on in a text while in the process of reading it - and the other for connecting - linking those observations to prior knowledge, generating new questions etc. Among other advantages, dialectical notebooks teach students to monitor - to pay attention to what they do and do not understand. Dialectical journals provide rich material for small and large group discussions, and assure that students have made some of their own sense or meaning to bring to the group encounter.

Teachers of young children can introduce this process using experience charts, perhaps gathering the responses of the group while reading aloud. Variations on this strategy include beginning with a dialogue journal (writing back and forth between teacher and student or students and student). Here the teacher or another student makes the connections. Students can move gradually to the interior dialogue and self-reflectiveness a dialectical journal is particularly designed to promote. Dialogue journals may be passed between students during class to encourage written dialogues about material to be discussed or as "pre-writing" experiences from which students can generate drafts. Used with other types of journals , dialectical journals integrate reading, writing and oral language and center both on ideas and on self-awareness of thinking processes.

Literature Study

Like dialectical journals, "literature study" is not simply an activity or set of activities but rather represents a stance about how students encounter texts (Edelsky, 1987). Focusing on the world created by the language of literary texts, students learn the world of the author through "living in the author's world" and "analyzing the author's craft." The aesthetic purpose is to "learn the world the author gave cues for, to understand it from the inside, to sense its unity and design, to feel it, sense it, smell the smells, taste the tastes, to take in the metaphors and symbols and subtexts so that there is even a change in what we know beyond words of our own worlds." Its analytic or critical purpose is to analyze the author's craft by using literary elements.

Briefly the procedures are as follows. Students choose a book from titles for which there are multiple copies. Those who have chosen the same book meet briefly with the teacher to agree on the date they will have finished reading the book on their own. On that date, this small group of students (usually about 4-5) meets with the teacher for the first of three or four sessions, designed to meet the two purposes: aesthetic and analytical. After having read the whole book and "wallowing" in the author's world, students - with the teacher as facilitator - share how they saw that world - and what living there was like for the reader. If the teacher asks questions, they are designed to learn about students' responses, not to interrogate, revise or evaluate them. The teacher assumes comprehension - that the students have made some kind of sense of the text, i.e. have constituted the author's world for themselves. In other words, in discussions of the author's world, teacher and students aim for a "grand conversation" where "topics can be initiated by anyone, where people talk spontaneously and with some intensity and thoughtfulness about extended segments of interaction" rather than a "gentle inquisition" - where teachers check up, control topics and turns, and comments are addressed primarily to the teacher (Higgins[4]; Edelsky, 1987). Edelsky has also characterized this approach as an 'open the book' , rather than a 'close the book and tell me what you remember' approach.

The sessions that follow generally focus on how the author crafted the novel to create the various effects the students have experienced Through close examinations of particular parts of texts, students explore, for example, how an author shows that a character has changed. Together the teacher and students develop assignments to investigate something about the author's craft in preparation for the next session, and the teacher does the assignments along with the students. Teachers who use this approach see a direct and immediate carryover into the students' writing and writing conferences. And students begin to say, "I just read a great book and I want to do a literature study on it."

Literature study then is not about "teaching reading" or "higher level comprehension" or even Great Books. Here the literature is primary, not secondary. As Edelsky (1987) explains it, "when the literature is secondary, people are more likely to treat the whole thing as a reading exercise and thus not get the language use value out of their action; they are less likely to let the literature touch their own lives and shape their own knowing, and even less likely to see themselves and the author as fellow writers, able to share tips and insights on writing as craft."

In other words, literature study is about reading as a resource for knowing, about literature as a framework for knowing the world. Although we have not encountered parallel structures for informational texts, one could imagine creating teacher-led small group encounters with primary source History material, for example, or scientific reports, the goal of which would be both immersion and analysis.

Rendering/Enacting/Transforming Texts

Immersion in text by various kinds of dramatic responses appeals to students of all ages. Spontaneous role-taking, reader's theater (dramatic readings of literature), and other methods enhance appreciation and involvement in unique ways. Here we provide just two examples of how to set up this work with small groups, with the recognition that teachers will need to move slowly and with much structure into these activities. The directions here are aimed toward middle and secondary students so teachers of the primary grades need to make the most adaptations.

Intended to bring out an "Intellectual knowing in our students that doesn't come out in classrooms," **text rendering** (adapted from the work of Peter Elbow as presented by Elaine Avidon[5]) is a process that reminds us that meaning cannot be merely handed over to the learner and that our questions often "silence" students. Used with poetry, a language that has been used to exclude rather than include, text rendering sessions invite students to work in small groups to respond directly to poetry. The same idea could be used with particularly well-written short pieces of prose.

(1) Read the poem aloud to each other
(2) Using tone of voice, gesture etc, have a conversation about the poem using (only !) the words of the poem .
(3) Do a couple of different readings of the poem: compose and recompose it as a group. [As Avidon explains its, in a jazz sense, you're going to be "jamming on the poem."]
(4) Write whatever you are thinking now - whatever you want to say to/about the poem.
(5) Render the poem to the whole class: choose a part of the poem or some lines, adapted or as is, and "perform" it for the rest of the group.

Classes in which students "render" poems are designed for experiencing rather than talking about the literature, although the sessions can clearly be followed by discussion, writing and other followups.

Other kinds of enactments or transformations work well for short stories, novels and a wide range of informational or expository text as well. Unlike text rendering, these small group activities may be most successful when students have done some prior preparation with notes, a response or dialectical journal, or even a written think-aloud in the form of notes jotted along the margins of the text to be read. Like text rendering, the process of working together in the small group, planning the group presentation, is as valuable as the product. The sequence of activities for enactments (written for older students who have been introduced to each of the forms) might go as follows:

(1) In your small group, discuss the essay, story, chapter of novel, journal article - using your own prepared individual responses.

(2) Plan an 5-7 minute enactment which demonstrates a part of the group's response to/interpretation of the text. The enactment may take the form of a role-play, Reader's Theater presentation, dramatization, trial simulation, debate or panel discussion, or some combination of these.

(3) Presentations to the whole class, one after another without discussion - while other groups of students jot responses. These presentations may be all of the same type of enactment (all Reader's Theater even with the same text emphasizes different aspects) or may include a range of response options (assigned by the teacher or selected by the students).

(4) Followup discussion and/or writing.

These activities involve close, collaborative, active reading and often rereading, selection and analysis of elements to emphasize in performance, and critical evaluation of facts and concepts. In each case they also require a good deal of planning and structure and a very present, involved teacher-facilitator.

Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area

K-4

Self-contained grade or cross-grade classroom teachers typically set aside a period of time for reading instruction. In many (perhaps most) classrooms, instruction is organized around the use of a basal reading program and the placement of children into high, medium and low groups for the purpose of instruction. The teacher's manual in the basal program provides a set of procedures for the directed reading of each story. What we are advocating here are whole class and heterogeneous small group activities in which children have many opportunities to collaborate in responding activ / to literary texts by discussing, enacting, writing and using other media. The core of the program, then, is literature, with the basal used (if at all) as an anthology. (In Critical Experience 4, "Investigating Language," we will discuss approaches to teaching students decoding, the mapping of sounds and symbols in the reading process).

The literature may be arranged in thematic units or several books by the same author may be read in succession--to compare themes, style, type of illustrations, etc. Selections are read aloud to children on a daily basis. The importance of the teacher reading aloud to children at this age cannot be overemphasized. Storytime is a powerful language event for beginning readers, one in which the teacher becomes a co-wonderer and out-loud thinker, playing with language and constructing and reconstructing events with children (see Cochran-Smith 1988).

The use of expository text materials in the early grades is often limited to the introduction of content area textbooks in Social Studies or Science in grades 3 or 4 with some use of childrens' magazines or newspapers or other materials for children to consult in writing "reports." We would recommend instead that non-fictive materials of all sorts should be provided for primary grade children starting in Kindergarten. Teachers (and children) can use the library to locate books for rotating thematic collections. Thematic units are particularly good for introducing children to expository texts; for example, first graders love reading about dinosaurs, animals or about space. Different children are attracted to different types of material. If there is a real need to use the material, i.e. if the students "own" some project and they know they need the information for their own work, they will begin to read to answer their own questions. When this happens, the whole reading event is different and more productive.

Childrens' trade books about factual subjects should be supplemented by the teacher reading aloud and discussing articles from current newspapers and other popular publications. In particular, children should be introduced early to materials that do more than present scientific or social "facts" but which attempt to argue a position about those facts. Learning to read critically and creatively, then, is not limited to literature. When Science and Social Studies textbooks are available for use, we recommend that they be used selectively and generously supplemented with trade books, magazines and other primary sources materials, and with a meaning-making rather than fact-gathering orientation.

Grades 5-8

In implementing Critical Experience I teachers in **self-contained grade classrooms and English teachers** will provide a variety of small group and whole class activities similar to those in grades K-4 but with increasingly challenging texts and assignments. Often this entails the class reading whole books (e.g. novels) together, then breaking up into smaller groups for related reading and writing activities. Literary texts should not be reduced to information or facts that students are required to remember. Instead, we recommend in-depth study of a core of literary works related to a theme. By theme we mean some organizing principle or idea that makes the whole greater than the sum of its parts. A "thematic" unit may entail the study of one author (e.g. Katherine Patterson or Ray Bradbury), one genre (e.g. drama, poetry, autobiography/biography or science fiction), or one topic. Another kind of unit designed for older students who are reticent about dealing with whole books might involve reading a lot of childrens' literature for a purpose, e.g. making a tape for younger children. Lists of supplementary readings for each thematic course or unit can be used to accommodate the variations in students' interests and needs, and to provide options for independent (but correlated) reading (see Critical Experience 3).

For Other Content Area teachers (e.g. **Social Studies, Science, Home Economics, Languages) and teachers in self-contained classrooms**, textbooks in Social Studies, Science and the other middle grade subjects pose problems for both teachers and students. Most of the texts either grossly oversimplify concepts and relationships so that readers are forced to make giant leaps and assumptions, or they overwhelm the reader with facts and teachers struggle to "cover" material that comes with detailed, factual end-of-chapter tests and checkouts. Students rarely find these textbooks appealing, and very quickly a set of negative expectations about "having to read" assignments takes over For the least able readers in any class, the textbooks can be even more formidable.

Although admittedly not magical, the suggestions made above (e.g. BDA framework) can be very effective in changing this situation. They may require temporarily trading off some short-term factual learning for students' longer and deeper engagement with the ideas and concepts of the text.

As Newman (1985) points out, the "main problem for older nonfluent readers and writers is that, in school at least, they've stopped negotiating, they've stopped trying to make sense, they've stopped taking risks (p. 35)" To convince older students that reading and writing are supposed to be meaningful, **Teachers of Reading Classes, Chapter I and Resource Room Teachers** in Grades 5-8 can design thematic units which incorporate a wide variety of literary and informational texts. These themed units or courses can sometimes be dovetailed with other subjects, such as Social Studies or Science. One example would be a unit on "Immigration and Family History" using immigrant stories from literature, oral histories, and linking this to what is being taught in American History (J. Holcomb[6]). These classes can also contain lessons focusing on textbooks and other materials recommended by teachers in the content area departments. Given fewer constraints for "covering" the material, Reading Specialists with classes or Special Education teachers in resource rooms are in a unique position to provide rich, interactive activities around content materials, thus reinforcing and extending what is going on in content area classrooms. To do this, collaboration of middle/junior high teachers across the curriculum is essential. Reading teachers can interview content area teachers about what they ask students to read, write and study in their classrooms, and can design a "language across the curriculum" focus for the reading classes based on what they learn (see Chapter Four: Constructing Curriculum and Chapter Six: Implementing PCRP II Through Networking for additional ideas).

Grades 9-12

At the secondary level **English teachers** generally use literary texts as the organizing structures for their overall curriculum. Teaching literature ought not to be teaching "about literature" so that students merely acquire information in class that they give back to teachers on tests and examinations. The experience of "evoking" the literary text is more than ever the central one, and recent work in theories of reader response (see Thomkins, 1980 for an overview and Corcoran and Evans, 1987, for an excellent translation of these ideas to practice) provide a rich source of ideas for reforming classroom practice. Becoming more aware of the processes involved in reading literature, secondary students become increasingly independent and self-confident readers who interact more thoughtfully with their peers. Secondary students can be introduced to some of this literary criticism themselves, and helped to understand its relation to literature study in school. Most important, all students should have access to the best literature; rather than a liability, the heterogeneity of literature classes can be reconstructed as an asset.

The notion of "types of transactions with text" (see chart on p. 25) may be particularly helpful in two additional ways. First, students who are invited to respond from all of these perspectives will come to understand how these types are actually part of an inseparable whole. Secondly, and as a result of this experience, they will understand better how there can be agreement among members of an interpretive community (Fish, 1980) about the meanings of texts. College bound students, for example, certainly need to understand how the Educational Testing Service (ETS) might go about constructing multiple choice items for tests of literature, and all students need to be weaned from perceiving the teacher as the super-reader or, at the opposite extreme, from regarding meaning in literary text as "just a matter of opinion." The use of evidence to make arguments about interpretations of literature is a critical part of literary education, as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)continues to remind us.

Secondary **Reading** and **Resource Room** classes are most often designed for students who have difficulties in reading and learning in their other classes. The curriculum in these classes should be as closely related to the expectations/materials used in content area classes as possible. Just as in the middle grades, secondary **Reading and Study Skills Teachers** should expose their students to a wide range of authentic, whole, literary and informational materials, rather than short, out-of-context test-like passages and questions. The activities in reading classes should relate directly to those in content area classes, with the luxury of more time for in- depth, extended response to everything that is read, and perhaps more self-conscious emphasis on process (See Chapter IV: Constructing Curriculum). Time spent on reflecting on one's own reading and learning processes is essential. **Reading Specialists** who work with content area teachers at the secondary level can assist in the design of activities and perhaps connect content area teachers with other professionals (e.g. librarians and resource room teachers) whose functions clearly intersect.

Content Area classes may use literary texts for a variety of purposes. Advanced language classes, for example, provide opportunities for students to discuss, enact and write about texts in foreign languages in ways very similar to English teachers. In some schools thematic or topical units extend across content areas, so that Social Studies teachers may use American literature while teaching American history, for example. Students may be encouraged to read and respond to historical fiction and biography , perhaps self-selected in relation to a period of history being studied in class.

Many classes center on a textbook, with few trade books, journals, newspapers or other materials used on a regular basis. Even so, many teachers report that their students do not (or can not) read the assigned materials, so that oral presentation in class or the use of handouts and worksheets have supplanted the extensive use of any print materials. Based on our experience with teachers working in the most challenging of circumstances, we are suggesting that activities like those described above motivate learning and make it possible for students to read even difficult informational materials more successfully. Taking advantage of the fundamentally social nature of reading can get readers for whom individual work is slow and frustrating more involved. Breaking from the routine of "read to answer questions" can start students who appear to be unwilling or incapable of reading in a new direction.

Chapter Three

CRITICAL EXPERIENCE 2

WRITING: COMPOSING TEXTS

The second critical experience centers on writing as an intellectual and social activity fundamental to learning in all content areas. Similar to reading as presented in the first critical experience, writing is a complex language process involving the construction, analysis, interpretation and communication of ideas. To the act of writing learners bring prior knowledge, experience, beliefs and attitudes. In the world, and ideally in the learning environments of the school, writers write in varied contexts and for varied purposes. Their composing processes and products reflect the particular settings, functions and audiences for their writing and the profoundly social nature of writing itself. Learning to compose for different purposes, and to select the processes most appropriate for these purposes, is a key part of learning to write and writing to learn. Students need to have many varied opportunities to write - for themselves, for their peers, for the teacher and for other audiences outside the classroom. Curriculum and instruction communicate powerful notions of what writing is and what it is good for. Instead of teaching writing as a technical skill to be mastered, schools need to provide provide personally meaningful opportunities for students to use writing for articulating, clarifying, critically examining, and remembering ideas in all the disciplines, and thus for making sense in and of their worlds.

Focusing on the nature and uses of writing, the first section - "Theory and Practice" - explores the importance of purpose and choice in structuring an environment for writing and learning in the classroom. "Classroom Activities K-12" provides several generic approaches to the integration of writing and reading in all content areas. It also focuses on strategies for designing writing assignments and for responding to student writing. "Suggestions Specific to Grade Level Content Area" mentions a few of the issues related to the acquisition and use of writing at different age and grade levels and in the content areas.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Theory and Practice

WRITERS

All children come to school as composers - having participated in situations where spoken and written language have been used for learning and for communication As Freedman et al (1987) point out, language has been available to them "to investigate, to play with, and to use in personally satisfying ways." As they mature, children gradually acquire more sophisticated knowledge of different systems of language, but they do not do so in the same way. Learners vary in style as they interact with different situations and with the complex nature of the writing system itself (Bussis et al., 1985; Dyson, 1985; Freedman et al, 1987). In their comprehensive survey of research on writing, Freedman et al (1987) make it clear that writing development cannot be described one-dimensionally, nor can a single course of acquisition be specified for all learners. Developing as a writer is a social process, the result of complex interactions of individual learners' processes, products, and the socio-cultural contexts which affect what and how students learn.

Students at all grade levels learn to write as they use writing to learn From research on writers' processes, we know that using language to make meaning is generative and dynamic. The process of writing itself brings us ideas and insights, we do not merely write down or transcribe ideas that were fully formed before we put pen or pencil to paper As we write, our meanings change and develop, and because we write, a deeper kind of thinking is possible. Important to becoming a writer is experiencing the process as a process - interactive, inherently uncertain, exploratory, collaborative, and often requiring nurturing and encouragement. To become writers, children need to write, not to learn "about" writing and then practice it, as if writing were simply an isolated activity to be exercised until mastery.

The "technical skill" notion of writing is not, however, easy to dismiss American schools have a long history of teaching writing through exercises, and of teachers assigning and correcting writing, focusing on the products of writing with much less attention to writers' efforts at meaning-making and more to grammatical and mechanical errors The attitude that student writing is a burden, a huge pile of papers to red pencil and return, has been part of the image of teaching for a long time. In addition, and sometimes as a consequence of this history, many students (and teachers) carry a legacy of myths and misconceptions about the nature of writing, about themselves as writers and about professional writers as well These myths (e g 'you need to know what you are going to say before you begin to write' or 'there's a right and wrong way to write') are deeply ingrained

Even given the recent surge of interest in process approaches to writing, national surveys of writing instruction in schools (e.g. Applebee) find that most school assignments still provide little room for writing even of paragraph length and that writing is more likely to be assessed than taught. Applebee (1984) found that when students did write longer texts, the emphasis was on the "accuracy of previous learning, rather than on reasoned exploration of new ideas or experiences (p. 184)."

In the past fifteen years, our knowledge of writing and thus the possibilities for improved instruction in writing has been greatly enhanced by research on writers' composing processes. We know now that composing is a powerful learning process, that writing helps students relate the new to the known - to connect their experiences and prior knowledge with the subject they are studying. Through writing of various kinds, students put the language of books into their own words, processing ideas meaningfully and deeply so that they can think about and remember them. Self-paced and involving trial and error, writing can slow down thinking, allowing more time for planning and reflection. Because it leaves a record, whatever is written can be reconsidered and used to aid memory.

Writing also serves a central "metacognitive" function: it helps students become aware of what they do and do not understand. By writing something down, learners can reflect on ideas critically and use what they have written in discussion with others. By getting feedback on what they have said or written, they can learn to revise and elaborate their ideas, making them more intelligible and meaningful to others. In these ways, writing helps students make new connections, reason and exercise critical judgment. The serious effort to compose one's thoughts can lead, as Gage (1986) suggests, to the "very important discovery not only of what to think, but why (p.22)."

The initial translations of writing research to practice described a five stage process called "the composing process" or "the writing process" which includes (though not always with these terms) prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. The curriculum subsequently developed under the rubric of a "process approach to writing" encourages teachers to develop prewriting activities, to have students draft and revise their drafts with responses from teachers and peers, and to edit their work for publishing, thus sharing what they have written with audiences beyond the teacher. Helping students to draft in order to discover (not just to transcribe fully formed) ideas and to distinguish between revising to clarify meaning and editing for correctness are among the significant new practices that the process approach has helped to institute.

Current theory and research on composing processes, however, have moved beyond the five steps or stages to provide an even more interesting and compelling picture of what writing involves (Graves, 1983; Bizzell, 1986; LeFevre, 1987). We are now more conscious of how a writer's process varies with different types of texts and with different purposes for writing. Not only is writing understood as a recursive rather than a linear process, but we know that processes such as "prewriting" and "revision" are not distinct, always necessary or even appropriate for every writing task. Instead of following a fixed order or lockstep procedure in which "processes" substitute for what we might previously have called "skills," we see now that students need to have many experiences with different purposes and types of writing so that they acquire a repertoire of composing processes which they can use selectively, depending on the demands of the situation. We need to guard against the possibility that process activities become recipe-like and formulaic, and that students come to view them, as recent research suggests may be the case (Applebee, 1984), as a new set of hoops to jump through rather than as empowering strategies for learning, for generating and refining knowledge, and for creating works of art.

Student writers need many opportunities to experience (and experiment with) different dimensions of composing and to do so in meaningful contexts. Neither discrete nor linear, the processes are described here to suggest some of the implications of composing theory for practice. These are presented as dimensions or aspects of composing, not as steps or stages in a single composing process:

Getting Started/Prewriting/Invention/Planning: Pre-writing has been used as a catch-all term for experiences that precede or motivate writing. The term is in some ways a misnomer, however, because it is not really "pre" or "before writing" but rather includes writing to generate or explore ideas, plan, rehearse etc. All of our experiences may be considered "pre-writing' since we compose (i.e. make sense of) the world all the time. As Britton has pointed out, all of life is a prewriting activity. Writing and writing assignments may evolve from public shared experiences in the classroom that involve talking and listening (e.g. reading aloud, discussing brainstorming), observing (experiments, films, enactments), reading, and of course, writing itself (mapping, free-writing, journal sharing). A small group discussion of a story , for example, may be seen as a "pre-writing" activity; students meet and discuss what they have read, and then, perhaps, they go off to write about what they have discussed.

The advantage of seeing "pre-writing" as fluid and on-going, intrinsic to life in classrooms, is that it frees teachers from feeling they must always artificially stimulate or "stage" events in order to motivate and seed writing. In addition to students using the "stuff of their own life" to write with, life in the classroom community, and the significant ideas that are being studied in literature, social studies, science, mathematics and other subjects, provide plenty of material for getting writing started. In addition, at appropriate times teachers from the early grades can show students how to brainstorm, jot, question, make notes from listening and reading , keep journals, map, outline and chart - and the many other ways that writers invent and explore ideas while writing. For the developing writer, these activities begin to constitute a repertoire. They are helpful in finding out what to say, as well as how to say it ; they involve students in probing their subject, recalling relevant experiences, examining the relationships among ideas and often finding some order in their material (Murray 1985). They also involve students in collaborating with others to generate and probe ideas. Care needs to be taken, however, so that extensive whole group brainstorming and mapping do not lead to students thinking that writing is merely transferring ideas from the board to their paper.

Treating pre-writing as on-going and thus not a distinct kind of preamble to writing will help students to see how writers write all the time, and may convince students with negative attitudes about writing to see how "composing" their experiences and putting them down on paper are not such different activities. Taking time to help students find, compare and explore ideas will help students avoid the "wait for inspiration" or "I have nothing to say" syndromes. And students will come to realize that jotting and brainstorming and other so-called pre-writing writing activities are extremely helpful after some kind of draft has been written - in revising or reworking a text as well. The distinctions between pre-writing and writing, or pre-writing and revising - as we can see, are often fuzzy at best.

Drafting: Attempting to make a whole text is not the same as jotting or brainstorming concepts or fragments of language. When appropriate for the purpose and type of writing, students need to experience "drafting" by which we mean the spontaneous production of connected prose, generated with the knowledge that the text produced will be re-vised or 'seen again'. For young writers this may mean learning to cross out, to leave blanks when the "right" word doesn't come to mind, or the willingness to write every other line so that the text can be continuously worked over. For older students this may mean a deliberate effort to "turn off the internal editor", and even deliberately, for the time being, not to think about the writer's audience (Elbow 1981). Trying to get it right the first time, or trying to spell everything correctly, may prevent the writer from making discoveries while in the process of composing.

What we are describing here is as much an attitude as a process. For nurturing students' abilities as talkers and writers, classrooms need to become places where teachers, and student writers, 'let some things go' - encouraging play, speculation and tentativeness in the learning process. Drafting texts is an excellent way to demonstrate that attitude - to show students how informing and creative the composing processes may be when students no longer write just to "get it done" and "get it right." When students make this kind of effort to experiment with new ideas and structures, we can expect their writing to contain for a time problems and errors that they appeared to have mastered previously.

Revising: As in the case of pre-writing, revising is an on-going activity that may occur concurrently with pre-writing (getting and revising ideas, almost simultaneously) and drafting (the sort of selecting and rethinking that goes on as one writes, no matter how rapidly). Students come to understand revising as continuous, as a process of re-viewing, re-envisioning re-seeing and re-making that helps them to understand their subject and to generate ideas. In the beginning, young children may revise only by adding on to whatever they have written. Later they may learn to "mess up" what they have written by changing or reordering. Use of a computer, when possible, or information about how to cut and paste, use white out, or write every other line may be direct ways to encourage revising.

What is important here is not the teacher's mandate to revise, but the provision of a classroom community and climate in which writers strive to make their meanings clear. To teach revision, it is important that the students have a "felt need", what Elbow (1981) calls an "itch." . If students write for compelling purposes and caring audiences, have the opportunity to learn about how professional writers write, and have high expectations for their own work, they are more likely to want to revise what they have written (Calkins, 1986). As is described in the following sections, revising often occurs in response to information from peers and the teacher about how the writer's draft meets particular readers' questions and expectations. The motivation to revise comes from the entire atmosphere in which the writing (and talking) is taking place, and not from the injunction to do so. Middle grade and older students may be able to identify contexts - other than writing - in which they "revise," - and may be able to draw analogies between these situations and ways to become good readers/revisors of their texts.

Editing: As Fulwiler (l987) defines it, " editing is the process which makes sure that you say exactly what you mean to say in the most appropriate language possible (75)." Editing may be inappropriate for journals or informal writing, but essential for texts students want others to read and understand. Teachers and students can develop a limited number of rules for editing by working from students' writing, and can show students how to condense, delete, and combine sentences, to edit for everything from spelling and punctuation to order, transitions, style and tone. Many students find learning to use real world editors' marks brings editing into a more professional realm (Johnson, 1981). Editorial boards and teams may be created to play special roles in editing student work for publishing.

Although an important aspect of composing, editing should not be stressed prematurely and at the expense of drafting and revising. Students need first to care about what they have to say, before they become invested in the way that they say it. Many teachers have students select particular pieces to edit and publish, and rather than assuming that a published piece must be 'perfect,' they limit their focus to helping students cope with a reasonable number of problems for each piece of writing. They develop mini-lessons on specific matters like leads, agreement, or sentence variation in order to draw attention to recurrent problems (see Critical Experience 4: Investigating Language). Most important, they teach grammar and mechanics in the context of students' writing, not as a separate subject or set of exercises.

Publishing: By publishing we mean students sharing their writing, and therefore do not restrict the concept of publishing to students' presentation of finished drafts to an audience. Sharing can occur at any point in composing , so that students can "publish" their plans, their drafts, or their edited copies. At different junctures publishing serves different functions for the writer and can occur in different settings.

Publishing of final drafts can occur within a single class by having students read each others' papers, listen to papers read aloud, create booklets or collections of work, and/or post or display their writing. Some of these same activities can occur across the classes of a content area teacher in the middle or upper grades. In some schools sharing can take place across a grade by setting up poetry readings, dramatic performances or collaborative publications such as a grade level newspaper for students and parents. Publishing across grades can occur by use of display cases, a school magazine or newspaper, cross-grade letter writing, writers' assemblies, and by collaborative projects between older and younger students. To the 'outside world', writers can send materials to community or local newspapers, or local or national writing contests. Teachers who encourage publishing have found that widening the audience for student writing has a dramatic affect on student attitudes and on the quality of writing produced.

For each of the processes described briefly above, the writer's actual approach will reflect selection among a range of options, based on the writer's purposes for writing, the genre or type of writing, and the writer's intended audience. Learning to choose - topics, types of writing, audience, and processes - is part of what we mean by acquiring a repertoire of composing processes. Young writers will not learn what to do if they only move as a group through a series of teacher-designed exercises or experiences to the production of final copy.

TEXTS

We know from recent research that much of what is called writing in school consists of students answering questions, recording information or writing to demonstrate the acquisition of knowledge. Too often the sole audience for a student's writing is the teacher in the role of evaluator. Consistent with the view of reading described in Critical Experience I, learners need opportunities to write for a variety of purposes, in varied genre or types of writing, and to a range of audiences, both known and distant. One approach to describing this range, generated by Britton (1975), Applebee (1984) and others, distinguishes among three general functions or purposes of writing:

EXPRESSIVE (sometimes called **PERSONAL) WRITING** includes writing intended primarily for the self, e.g. to record information from observation, listening or reading, to discover ideas or clarify thinking, or to express emotions. Expressive writing may be seen as thinking aloud on paper; writers often use expressive writing freely and spontaneously, i.e. to keep diaries or journals in which they note and explore facts, opinions, feelings, and moods. This kind of composing may be relatively unstructured, used to explore ideas rather than to shape and present them.

INFORMATIONAL (sometimes called **TRANSACTIONAL) WRITING** includes language used to inform , record, report, advise, explain, make requests, instruct, theorize or persuade. This is language used to act on the world - to get things done by interacting with people and things.

POETIC (sometimes called **IMAGINATIVE) WRITING** includes language used as an art medium. Poetic writing is an 'object' made out of language so that the words themselves and their references made a formal pattern . These patterns include the sounds of the language, the writer's feelings and ideas, and in narrative, the events as well. (Britton p. 90).

Although we know that these functions often overlap, i.e. that expressive and transactional writing can be imaginative or poetic, we also know that all three are important for learning across the grades and across the curriculum. When this description is used as a template against which to examine current practice, the results are disappointing. Several studies have found that secondary schools tend to focus almost entirely on transactional or informational writing. Even writing "to inform" is often in the form of essays written for teachers who already know the material being presented. In many classrooms students do little expressive writing, while too often the imaginative or poetic functions of language are relegated to early grade writing or to courses designated "creative writing." This title implies that writing fiction or poetry is creative (and that other kinds of writing are not) and their appeal tends to be limited to students who have been so identified.

The chart that follows shows some of the types of texts that perform different functions. Not meant to be exhaustive, these lists place some types of writing in several slots. Drafts of texts could conceivably move from one column to another. What is important here is the potential for learning inherent in different functions and types; at each grade level and in each content area, writing can present somewhat unique challenges and possibilities to the learner. If these functions and types are repeated year after year throughout school, development of writing abilities can be seen in the increasingly complex texts produced (an argument for cumulative writing folders throughout the grades). Some typical school formats (such as "the book report") can be effectively varied by encouraging students to use a wide range of types and functions, particularly those such as book reviews that have clear analogues in writing outside of school.

FUNCTIONS AND TYPES OF WRITING

EXPRESSIVE

notes
journals and diaries, including
  dialogue journals
maps or diagrams or charts
letters
learning logs
writer's notebooks
double entry notebooks
glossing/marking texts
questions

INFORMATIONAL

reports
editorials
commentaries
essays
letters
memos
proposals
posters
interviews
biographical sketches
books and booklets
autobiographies
reviews
research papers
resumes
questions
tests

POETIC

poems

stories

songs

letters

novels

plays

interviews(imaginary)

Writing is often directed to an audience beyond the self, and most often in school, that audience is the teacher in the role of examiner (Britton, 1975). Other useful audiences include (l) the writer's self (2) the teacher as a co-investigator or learner (3) peers in the classroom or school (4) other adults in the school community (5) peers in other schools or communities (6) family members or others known to the writer through participation in a group or organized activity and (7) any other distant audience, unknown to the writer Virtually any of these could be or become authentic audiences for students throughout their lives. In the following section, we will describe the kind of classroom environment in which students explore writing not only with different purposes and types of texts, but for varied audiences and contexts.

WRITING TASKS AND CONTEXTS

Through writing in and out of school, we want students to construct their own personal system of knowledge or theory of the world, but we know that they do not do it alone. Writers make meaning in collaboration or negotiation with others. Writing itself is socially constructed: used and interpreted according to the conventions and assumptions of different communities. Looking beyond the classroom and school into the community, we see that the meanings and practices of writing vary from context to context. In some communities where written language has a wide variety of functions and uses, for example, these practices bear little resemblance to what is taught in school (Heath, 1983). In other cultures, literacy is transmitted and writing is used without connection to formal schooling (cf. Reder, Scribner and Cole, 1981). One way to help students understand writing in a broader context is to encourage them to study the particular uses of written language in the community beyond their classroom (see Critical Experience 4: Investigating Language).

Creating a classroom environment for writing requires careful planning of the roles and interactions of students and teachers so that the inherently social nature of language enhances student learning. As Cooper (1985) has pointed out, writers in the real world talk, plan, research, collaborate, read and edit each others' work In the classroom, we need to think about the kinds of roles writers in classrooms play and the kinds of interactions writers and talkers engage in. Who writes (and talks) to whom and about what? How are students exposed to models (peer and professional) of writers at work? How are writers encouraged to work together? What does working together mean?

The teacher in such an environment needs to observe and build on what students can do, providing the appropriate kinds of structures to support the learning of individuals, small groups as well as the class as a whole. One approach to planning for students is to 'litter their environment with enticing language opportunities and guarantee them the freedom to experiment with them" (Harste, Woodward, and Burke, 1984). Certainly students need frequent opportunities and invitations to write. Many opportunities already exist in the daily curriculum for spontaneous, expressive writing to explore ideas and responses to experiences in and out of the classroom. Where a teacher may now use talk, writing may sometimes be used instead. Where a teacher may be using short answers or fill-in-the blanks, connected prose may be substituted. Where students passively read or watch a film or filmstrip, they can be shown how to use writing to record their impressions, identify problems in understanding and/or questions for further study.

Teachers also structure in specific times for writing as well as initiate writing in various ways. They may specify actual writing assignments, and/or provide time and materials for students to initiate writing for themselves. Both teacher-developed assignments and workshops in which students initiate writing (i.e. find their own topics, forms and audiences) have advantages. A well-conceptualized writing assignment can extend and deepen the student's grasp of subject matter and provide the opportunity (and necessity) for higher level thinking. We know that learning to write across the curriculum requires assignments that help initiate writers into the conventions of various discourse communities; writers in content areas need to learn the procedures and rules of evidence in the various disciplines and thus to explore the crucial relationships between particular forms and uses of writing and the contexts in which it occurs. Selecting one's own topic and using one's own language are not typical in "real world" assignments beyond the classroom (e.g. the workplace). When students work on a similar writing assignment, they provide more engaged and responsive audiences for each others' work.

On the other hand, finding something to write about, selecting the most effective and appropriate form and audience, and thereby "owning" the writing may be regarded as central processes of composing which cannot be learned when teachers simply assume these responsibilities for students. Students may write, but they will not become writers. Writing for personally important purposes is one priority here. Learning to view the world as a writer is another. Even when students design their own assignments, teachers can still play an active role in helping students locate topics through conferences, demonstrations and reading/writing activities. What may be most important, whether the writing is teacher-designed or student-initiated, is that the writing be purposeful and that the student be committed to that purpose.

One innovative approach to student ownership of writing comes from the work of Dixie Goswami who involves students as collaborators in curriculum research and development. Goswami cites as examples third graders who study the Mennonites and then put together a curriculum guide for the next group of third graders and high school science students who rewrite selections from their textbook which are difficult for less able readers In these cases, students are writing for real rather than hypothetical audiences and participating in the creation and evaluation of learning environments for other students.

The writing environment will be significantly altered if students have access to technology, particularly word processing on computers, viewed by many as the single most promising applications of microcomputers currently being used in schools (Daiute, 1984). In addition to considerable evidence that word processing facilitates composing in a variety of ways, recent studies suggest that computers are used, misused or underused in accordance with each teacher's underlying beliefs about writing, the classroom, and the culture of education more generally (Cochran-Smith, Kahn and Paris, 1988). Computers can be used to enhance any belief or practice in teaching writing, so that teachers who support collaboration will find ways to have students use them together, while teachers who view writing as an solitary process are less likely to encourage collective planning, drafting or revising.

Other innovative uses of word processing invite students to insert their own texts into existing passages (and then challenge others to detect the additions) or to cocreate or dialogue with a text by writing comments or reactions to either fiction or non-fiction texts, while in the process of reading it (Newman, 1987). Improvising with word processing so that students reflect on their reading and writing strategies may lead to students' creating their own alternative ideas. This kind of language play in which writers and readers make decisions contributes to fluency and to enhancing their understanding of the interconnectedness of the language processes (Newman, 1987).

Classroom Activities K-12

The following section suggests a few of the many approaches currently available for implementing these ideas in the classroom. It is divided into three parts, the first describing ways that reading and writing may be integrated. The second section focuses on assigning writing, giving some examples of writing assignments such as journals and research reports that can be used throughout the grades and across the curriculum and then some ideas for the careful construction of assignments which still leave room for student choice. Finally, ideas are presented for responding to writing by written comments and by setting up different types of conferences and classroom workshops

INTEGRATING WRITING WITH READING

The types of classroom activities listed in Critical Experience I: discussions, enactments, presentations, writing, and other media - all involve writing as well as reading, so in a sense we have been talking about integrating reading and writing all along. Here we want to emphasize the importance of relating writing to reading in three particular ways:

(I) Surrounding Reading with Writing

Instead of planning a focused or directed "reading" activity, teachers at all levels and across the content areas can plan more holistically, i.e. with the goal of involving students in using writing and talking to respond meaningfully to what is being read. Many teachers have become accustomed to using writing as a response to reading. regularly assigning questions to be answered after a text is completed. In Critical Experience I we suggested that the range of alternatives in responding to text in written form be expanded and that many other oral language activities be used after reading as well.

Here we would like to highlight the uses of writing for "Before" and "During" reading, as well as add some more specific written alternatives for "After. " In revisiting the Before, During and After Framework to highlight the uses of writing, we want to show the many options teachers have for using writing to affect the quality of student learning and engagement with texts of all sorts. This framework can be used by grade teacners who wish to integrate writing into response to literature lessons, for example, as well by content area teachers at all levels who want to help students comprehend and remember text or other print material.

In using the chart that follows, "WRITING TO READ," a teacher would (I) select the most appropriate strategies for a particular text and purpose and (2) when possible, give students some choice of ways to respond in writing. What is most important about the writing that students do before and during reading is the opportunity that writing gives for all students to become actively involved. Writing has the virtue of engaging all learners simultaneously - so that all can focus on and think about the matter at hand. Teachers are well aware that when whole group discussions are going on, many students play a passive role. Even a brief jotting or listing activity makes every student a potential contributer when the responses of the group are pooled or shared. Many teachers find that doing this kind of jotting frequently improves the quality of discussion (students have time to think and remember what they know) and increases the number of students who regularly participate. Pre-reading writing activities often help less able readers get motivated and ready to read, and demonstrate that expertise or relevant prior experience are not limited to a few students in the group.

Although this approach may appear to slow down the teacher's coverage of material, the students' active use of language insures a high level of meaningful involvement and participation in the class and the likelihood of better comprehension and retention of the material that is being taught. In addition, writing activities such as these require that everyone think about the material, not just the student who is called upon to contribute. Some have argued that what we need is to cultivate in students "the art of slow reading" (Mayher, Lester and Pradl, 1983). Used in combination with "Types of Transactions with Text" from Critical Experience I, teachers can generate an unlimited set of strategies for getting writing started. It is probably important to mention that doing too much of this kind of thing would probably diminish its effectiveness (i.e. cause a class to spend months on a single novel), so that teachers, as always, need to find the right balance.

Many of the writing and talking activities suggested involve a component of questioning. In some cases, students may be asked to respond to the teacher's questions either orally or in a written response sheet. The strategies for using writing before, during and after reading are designed, in part, to alter this traditional set of roles: teacher as questioner and student as answerer. Many of the pre-reading writing activities, for example, are planned to help students question what they already know and prepare to raise their own questions while reading. The methods suggested here, then, emphasize the importance of student-generated questions in learning. Learning to question requires the opportunity to compose questions and to practice comprehending and responding to the questions of peers. Good writing reflects the author's awareness of important (or surprising or useful) questions and topics to write about. In Critical Experience 5 we will explore the topic of student self-questioning as a central process of learning how to be a good learner.

WRITING TO READ

WRITING BEFORE READING

Stimulus

- title
- phrase
- single key idea or concept
- group of words or concepts (from text)
- topic or subject
- opening paragraph
- statement of opinion
- question or problem

Type of Writing

- nonstop (spontaneous)
- questions
- list - words, reasons
- brainstormed associations
- map or chart
- personal narrative
- problem solve

WRITING DURING READING

- selective underlining
- marking the text
- questioning
- glossing
- noting difficulties in understanding
- making notes
  - double entry journal
  - mapping

WRITING IN RESPONSE TO READING

- retellings
  - as is
  - from different points of view
- nonstop writing
  - focused
  - generalized
- mapping
- answer questions
  - (your own, others, t)
- planning enactment (Reader's
  - Theater, dramatization, etc
- develop own topic
- respond with story, dialogue,
  - description, analysis, critique, rebuttal, new ending, etc.
- translate text into different
  - genre

Genre From the Inside Out/Pairing Texts

A second way to integrate writing and talking with reading is to have students read and write in the same genre or type of writing. This calls the learner's attention to the features and constraints of different kinds of discourse. Unlike the traditional idea of providing prose models for students to imitate, integrating the language processes by reading and writing in the same genre probably best begins with writing.

Virtually any type of writing lends itself to this kind of pairing For example, students at various ages can do "memory writing" and then read memoirs, they can conduct interviews (with each other, with family members, with students older or younger, or with adults) and then read interviews (in newspapers and magazines). After reading they can revise their original text or respond to what they have read English teachers can encourage the writing and reading of poetry or fiction , an excellent way to help students get an insider's view of writer's choices (Grossman, 1982; Willis, 1984). In Science class, they can explore different ways to record observations of natural phenomena and then be introduced to conventional formats and structures for reporting and analyzing data. In Social Studies or History, they can write fictional autobiographies of historical figures based on text materials, films and class discussions Then they can read primary sources or selections from primary sources, and begin to see how historians function as detectives and inference-makers, not merely as reporters of "facts "

(3) Combining Literary and Informational Ways of Knowing

An article by Woolsey and Burton (1986) describes how a third and fourth grade teacher helped students gather information about the human body as part of the science curriculum while at the same time they explored critically the possibilities of well-crafted informational books for using poetic language and stimulating aesthetic response. While students read and took notes from the standard references in order to write about and become specialists in particular aspects of the body, the teacher read aloud and displayed a variety of books which used unique formats to convey their information The books - which used formats including straightforward question and answer, guessing games, the alphabet book structure, narratives of various kinds including diaries or journals - provoked discussions about what the author had done to convey the information. The students were invited to consider using some of these formats to present their own information about the human body Invited to share their work in progress, the students became a real community of writers, writing to share their own individual piece but also to contribute to something larger than themselves, i.e. the class study on the human body From this experience students learned not only information but creative strategies for reporting data, strategies that may be called literary. Rather than view informational and aesthetic texts as artificially separate, they began to relate reading to writing in innovative ways. The use of historical fiction in social studies or biography in science provides similar opportunities.

ASSIGNING WRITING

(1) Generic Writing Assignments

JOURNALS: Sometimes called diaries, writer's notebooks, daybooks, logs or learning logs, double-entry, dialectical or dialogue journals, journals have become widely used to introduce students to the power of expressive writing, enhance fluency, and link writing directly with classroom learning (see Fulwiler 1987 for the most extensive discussions of journals and many of the ideas in this section more fully developed). In journals students are encouraged to take risks in expressing their own thoughts and reactions, to make personal connections with class material and to observe, collect data, and respond to the ongoing events of the class or course. Written in the first person, journals are being used across all subject areas. Often responding positively with questions and/or suggestions, teachers use them for feedback and for establishing personal contact with each learner.

In some classes teachers invite students to write whatever they wish in their journal, while others specify topics or invite responses to readings and discussions. Often students are asked to log and reflect on what they are learning, and in the process to figure out what they do and do not understand. Some teachers invite students to divide up their journals, leaving part for more diary-like personal writing and part for a class notebook. Many journals are designed to emphasize learning to become a good observer - of oneself, of texts, of the world, and of life in the classroom.

A variety of ways to use journals in class have been suggested. In Critical Experience I (Reading: Transacting with Texts) we described briefly the dialectical and dialogue journals the former designed to foster an interior dialogue and the latter to promote written conversations among teachers and students. Students can be asked to read aloud from their journals to start discussions or share responses to reading (see Critical Experience 3: Extending Reading and Writing); they can search their journals for topics to write about or use the journal to prepare for a discussion or examination. Personal diaries, observation notes, and literature logs (dialogue journals about independent reading) are probably most widely used in the elementary grades, while middle and secondary students benefit also from daily use of journals to write in, read from and talk about the subject at hand. Fulwiler suggests teachers start a class with a five minute journal write, perhaps on a topic related to the discussion (e.g. using a quote from the reading assignment) or defining a term (e.g. metaphor, hydraulic, nationalism) that will be presented or discussed. At the end of the lesson or class journals can be used to summarize, pull out the most important or interesting points and raise unanswered questions. During the lesson or class a brief jotting in the journal can help students focus or solve a problem (e.g. a math problem solution written in prose or some brainstorming about several lines from literature that they did not understand) Journals can also be used for progress reports on independent and small group projects.

Autobiographical narrative writing plays a special role in many content area courses and elementary grade curricula, and the journal can be a repository for much of this writing One seventh grade teacher (M. Cox Chapman[7]) had students construct a "Table of Contents" in the first week of school - for a volume of autobiographical pieces that would be written throughout the semester. Students individually and in groups brainstormed topics that one might write about - everything from summers to families to sibling rivalry - and added ideas to their lists from the lists of classmates. Throughout the course students returned to their original lists for ideas and topics.

A variation on this has been developed by a high school English teacher (D. Masar[8]) who has students construct a time line of events from their life, with positive ones above the line and negative ones below. Over the first quarter they are invited to code and write about some of these, using different symbols for events they'd like to go back and relive exactly as were, events they'd like to go back to and change, situations in which they learned something important about themselves, and finally situations in which they learned something important about someone else. A similar process is used by one teacher (S. Baum[9]) to help students construct college application essays. In a mathematics course, another teacher (J. Countryman[10]) begins class with having students write anything they want about themselves - time well spent in her class, she believes, because math doesn't always permit her to get to know her students as English or History teachers do. These journal entries are frequently about the students as Math students - a history of their experiences as Math learners, responses to difficulties, ways Math relates to their life outside of school. Each of these uses of autobiographical writing contributes substantively to the content of the course, and the journal becomes a regular and systematic source of data for both students and teachers.

RESEARCH/REPORT WRITING: Appearing in different guises throughout the grades, research papers or reports are controversial; as Mayher, Lester and Pradl (1983) put it, they are "at best useless, more often counterproductive (98)." Most agree that many assignments put too much emphasis on mechanics and result in too much copying from sources, while many students emerge untouched by the experience in terms of their understanding of what it means to research - to search and study and learn about a topic. In addition, students of all ages need to learn more about fundamental research processes like questioning, observation, interviewing, careful description, paraphrasing, selecting and note-making - but to learn these processes while doing meaningful research rather than as separate skills

Promising solutions link research to thematic units and focus on helping students identify personal interests and real questions. Students need to learn to use a variety of sources of data, not limited to print materials from the library. Using people as prime data sources requires learning to plan and conduct interviews which in turn entails decisions about tape recording and transcription, leading and open questions, and the uses of silence. Students can be encouraged to gather data by careful observation, listening and description of places, and by simple experiments in which they collect survey data. Print materials need to be used for two purposes: to provide a survey of the territory so that student researchers can become familiar enough to add to their questions, interview and select an angle for further study. Close reading and note-taking should occur fairly late in the research process when the student can be selective The most critical part seems to be doing research based on real questions. Mayher et al (1983) argue that learning to give evidence to support assertions and know what sorts of evidence count would be greatly enhanced by a shift from sterile research to papers based on real inquiry, using the methods mentioned above.

Macrorie's (1980) concept of I-Searching provides a good example. Based on selecting a topic to investigate that has genuine personal concern to the writer, Macrorie recommends (1) using the class or group for tips on how to study it (2) finding experts or authorities (of any age) and asking them for the most useful books, magazines, films etc ; thinking about the best way to interview people who know a lot about a subject (3) using both firsthand sources (people and events) and secondhand sources (books, newspapers, people talking about what others know or have done). A recommended format for writing up this search breaks with the conventional but provides for authentic recording of the experience (the process) as well as the findings (product). In four parts, the writer writes (1) what I knew and didn't know about the topic when I started out (2) why I'm writing this paper - what difference it may make in his/her life (3) the story of the search and (4) what I learned or didn't learn. Macrorie recommends simplified documentation, similar to what scholarly journals currently require, rather than laborious footnotes. Because the I-Search is so personal and accessible, even very young children can "conduct research "

Another format involves planning student research which supplements and extends a whole class inquiry. In one sixth grade (V [illegible])[11] students study the Renaissance all year - using sources from literature, history, science, art, music and mathematics. In addition to whole class discussions, films, field trips, dramatic performances etc, the students work on independent "contracts" which encourage them to select particular topics and to learn, in depth, from a variety of sources. In the part of the year devoted to the work of Leonardo da Vinci, for example, they do drawings of and research on the human anatomy, studying Da Vinci's observations in relation to current knowledge; in addition, they explore Da Vinci's painting and studies of plants and animals In the Elizabethan contract, students study and write about life at court during Elizabeth's reign, choosing among alternatives that invite them to imagine they are (1) responsible for Elizabeth's wardrobe (2) one of Elizabeth's personal servants (3) the court musician or (4) the chief armorer Study of Elizabeth's problems - the Spanish Armada, marriage, Mary Queen of Scots - all invite first person narrative written in the form of journals or diaries, autobiographies, or descriptions of battles from the perspective of participants. Diverse data sources supported by whole class interest in the topic make such research reports lively and informative. In a similar vein, students may produce joint products, such as a book on marine mammals created by a class of nine and ten year olds for other children (described in Martin, 1986).

To build communities of readers and writers in her classroom, P Johnston[12] has students do case study interviews in order to discover what it means to be a good student Students select a classmate, friend, neighbor, coach, teacher or anyone else, develop questions, and conduct the interview taking notes or tape recording. In an even more extended inquiry later in the year, students in her middle school class do ethnographic fieldwork on what it means to be a good reader. In addition to an interview, students observe and collect data on peoples use of reading and writing behaviors, and, finally, synthesize and analyze all of these findings to draw conclusions. Some of this "research" is done independently, while other parts depend on partners or groups.

By encouraging students to write as real researchers, teachers can help students probe topics so that they become "experts," learn to use a variety of questioning and data-gathering strategies, collect an abundance of information (but narrow one's topic), experiment with different formats for reporting what they have learned, use the same drafting and revision processes they use for other types of writing, and in the process become teachers for each other (Calkins, 1987). Research projects that combine independent with small group and whole class study help to create a collaborative community of readers and writers in the course or classroom

(2) Constructing the Writing Assignment

Although it is quite difficult to describe effective writing assignments out of the context of real classrooms, this section is designed to provide a set of heuristics or questions which may be helpful in planning and writing up assignments for students Teacher-designed writing assignments range from totally open on one extreme (students find their own subjects, genre, audience) to totally closed on the other (every choice is pre-determined by the teacher). In between there is a lot of variety possible, and most teachers include both open and closed and in different degrees. What may be most critical is the "connectedness" of the writing activity - is it just 'stuck in' or is it a part of some other thing that gives it real purpose and function? Of course not every writing assignment can be completely integrated, but if most are, the classroom takes on a different flavor (Edelsky, 1984).

Ultimately the quality of an assignment depends on its relation to a particular group of students and a particular course. Teachers probably internalize a set of questions about their assignments, such as whether they ask students to use writing (1) to connect the known with the new (2) to reconstruct new knowledge and use it in some way (3) to communicate meaning, rather than display or regurgitate facts (4) to learn something, not merely to serve the purposes of assessing learning. Working together teachers can develop criteria for good writing assignments and then apply them to their own.

Good writing assignments reflect decisions (explicit or implicit) about all of the dimensions in the list on the following page:

ASPECTS OF ASSIGNMENT DESIGN

a) **The teacher's purpose in making the assignment** - What will students learn? How does the assignment relate to the ongoing work of the class? How will the rationale or purpose of the writing be communicated to the students? How can I make this assignment authentic to students?

b) **The student writer's purpose and audience** - How will the writer determine or discover a purpose for the writing assignment? Who will be the audience for the writing? The teacher - as collaborator or evaluator? The writer's peers? another audience, appropriate to the assignment? Several audiences or readers, perhaps peers followed by teachers followed by some distant, unknown audience (as in the case of a Letter to the Editor)? Will there be some choice on the part of the writer, with regard to purpose and audience?

c) **The topic** - Will one or several possibilities be suggested? How will the teacher know if the students understand what is meant by these topics? If students select and develop their own topics, what resources (print people) will they need?

d) **The type of writing** - What function will the writing serve - expressive, informational or poetic? Can the student choose the most appropriate function and type of writing, or is that pre-determined by the assignment?

e) **The assignment-related processes** - What suggestions can the teacher (or peers) make about processes of writing that would be helpful in completing this assignment (i.e. does the assignment seem to require extensive research and/or planning, or can the writer begin with brainstorming or drafting? Are several drafts necessary? Desirable? Does the piece require careful editing? Can the writer anticipate an opportunity to publish this piece, perhaps for a wider audience? does the assignment require several steps, and if so, how much time in and out of class will be required? Will students work alone or together? In what ways will the teacher guide or respond to the work? Will conferences - peer and/or teacher - be part of the process?

f) **The criteria for evaluation** - What is especially important in completing this assignment? How will it be evaluated? By whom? The teacher? By other students? By another audience (e.g. readers of the school newspaper)? Will it also be graded?

When possible, each of these decisions can be communicated to the writers, preferably in writing Assignments that provide opportunities for choice, especially in (b) (c) and (d) above, have the effect of motivating writing, even if the choice is between two clearly specified alternatives.

RESPONDING TO WRITING

Interested and responsive audiences for student writing provide the essential motivation to write, to revise and to learn to give helpful feedback to others. In Critical Experience I we emphasized the variety of ways that students can learn to respond to "published" texts - stories, poems, newspaper articles, textbooks etc. Those same processes of responding are important for peer response to writing. As student readers learn to respond personally and descriptively and to interpret and evaluate literature, they can also learn at a very early age to provide meaningful, constructive responses to the drafts of other students' poems, short stories and essays. Response to a first draft or to a writer's pre-writing jottings may serve a different purpose than response to a finished product, published in a class' booklet. At different points in time throughout the process of writing, different types of response may be most effective.

In this section, a few suggestions are given for activities involving reading and responding to student texts both by peers and by the teacher. For more extensive treatment of this subject, we recommend close reading of several of the many volumes devoted to this topic (see, for example,.Calkins l986; Graves l983, Atwell, l987; Mayher, Lester and Pradl, l983; Fulwiler,l987; Spear, l988; Freedman, l987; Gere, l987; Murray, l985).

(1) **Teachers' written comments** : We know that a teacher's comments can play a powerful role in developing writing ability, students begin to define themselves as writers often largely in response to their teacher's responses Yet most of the commenting teachers have been trained to do interferes with writing. One problem with some teacher comments, especially those written on first drafts, is that they may take the student's attention away from his/her own purposes and focus the writer on what the teacher wants. Changes made are then at the request of the teacher, not because the writer has identified and planned a strategy for revising the text.

Another problem is that many teacher comments are vague, e g "avoid the passive," "be more specific," and "awk " Revising becomes a matter of guessing what the teacher wants

Another problem is "telling" instead of "showing" - saying what to do (e.g. develop), but not how. Even a well-meaning teacher (as D. Masar[8] has pointed out) can slip into becoming a very compassionate, but talking handbook, or can fall into the role of diagnostician, rather than co-investigator.

Comments on first and later drafts may differ:

FIRST DRAFTS

(1) Respond to what seems to be the student's intended meaning.
(2) Raise questions for the writer to think about.
(3) Give reader-based (Elbow, 1981) responses: "movies of the reader's mind" that show the writer how one reader is reacting to what is being read.
(4) Focus on the writer's ideas and purposes.
(5) Make suggestions for a process for revising - something to do that will help move the writing forward.
(6) Identify a strength (what one teacher calls a "gem to work with" (Baum)[9] and show writer how to build on it.
(7) Ask students what kind of feedback they would like.
(8) Limit comments to a few concerns for each paper.

LATER DRAFTS

(1) Continue to give reader-based response.
(2) Give criterion-based (Elbow) responses: comment on the quality of the ideas, the organization, use of language etc.
(3) Point to parts that seem to be working well (but remember that too early praise may make it unlikely that the writer will risk changing).

The following maxims, taken from Florio-Ruane (1986), provide general guidelines for teacher response, appropriate for conferences as well as written comments: (a) assume competence (b) know the learner (c) share interest in the task at hand (d) follow the learner and (e) capitalize on uncertainty. Although simply stated, each implies a stance on the relationships among teacher/reader, student/writer and the emerging text which can be helpful in thinking through what types of comments and responses will be most supportive and respectful of the writer.

Students can maintain writing folders which contain multiple drafts. Each piece should be dated and kept in order. The front of the folder may have paper stapled where the teacher and/or student can record specific aspects of writing that have been addressed, e.g ways to vary sentence structure, different types of leads, or specific grammatical problems that have been dealt with.

(2) Writing Conferences and Writers' Workshops: Writing conferences can be one-to-one (teacher/student or student/student), small group (peers), or whole group (teacher conferences in front of whole class). Some people call these small or whole class discussions of student writing "workshops." In a teacher/student conference, students learn to internalize a set of questions about writing which they can ask themselves and/or other students in conferences or small group feedback sessions. Some teachers ask or require that the students have an agenda for the conference before they can make an appointment to see the teacher, in other words, that the student comes to the conference having thought about what that conversation might do to help the writer move the writing forward. This guarantees that the writer comes with the purpose of learning something, not merely fending off or complying with the teacher's agenda. Students can also be taught to have conferences with themselves (cf. Atwell 1987).

Writing conferences can occur at any time during the writing process(e g. for planning or pre-writing brainstorming as well as for discussing drafts or parts of drafts).They can be about the content and/or about the process (Calkins 1986 details four types: content, process, design and evaluation). They can have a specific, narrow agenda (e.g. to answer the writer's questions) or a more general purpose (e.g. to edit the work collaboratively). Some teachers find it helps students to observe conferences of their peers, just to benefit from additional focused talk about writing and improving writing. Sometimes it helps students to role-play their intended audience. Teachers can extract from students' papers ideas for mini-lessons on writing (e g. different kinds of leads). Sometimes teachers conference briefly with students as they circulate around the room, stopping for a minute or two to give assistance or support.

Florio-Ruane (1986) and Michaels et al. (undated manuscript) remind us that we know from a large body of classroom research that teachers typically dominate classroom talk In an idealized writing conference, teachers share authority with students, creating a dialogic model in which the rights and duties of teacher and student are altered. In reality, conferences are too often like "lessons" in which an expert instructs a novice. The teacher's interpretive frame dominates the discourse. The process involves matching the student's text with the teacher's scheme, an actual with an ideal text. Instead, conference should be like conversations in which students initiate and teachers respond in the service of the student's writing growth. The chart that follows was designed by a teacher to illustrate these distinctions and would apply to reading conferences as well.

CONFERENCING CONTINUUM

Fecho, 1988

STUDENT-CENTERED	TEACHER-CENTERED
Student Talks	Teacher Talks
Student Initiates	Teacher Initiates
Student Responsible	Teacher Responsible
Student Active Learner	Teacher Active
Student Independent Learner	Student Dependent
Student and Teacher are Peers	Expert/Novice

Individual conferences, mini-lessons and and whole group conferences provide many opportunities for students to talk about writing - what works, what causes problems, what good writing looks and sounds like, and different ways for getting there. Writers' workshop or collaborative response groups provide other audiences for student writing, and give student writers (1) support, (2) other readers' perceptions of what the writing does, (3) opportunities to talk about the writer's ideas and how successfully they've been accomplished and (4) possibly some help, or solutions to problems that have been identified (Mayher, Lester, and Pradl, 1983) Many teachers feel that response groups need to be chaired by the writer whose work is being considered and should be started after the students have had exposure to other types of conferences so they do not simply continue with the more limited expert to novice model. Collaborative groups contribute in important ways to the interconnectedness of reading and writing in the classroom and to the development of a learning community [For recent ideas on peer response groups see Freedman 1985, Gere 1987; Spear 1988]

Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Areas

K-4

Young children need abundant opportunities to write with a variety of materials - crayons, pencils, thick and thin marking pens, pre-formed letters (magnetic, typewriters, word processors, letter cubes and alphabet letter stamps, puzzle letters), as well as clay, sand and other materials. Using pre-formed letters can precede their ability to form their own letters but can still involve them in composing their ideas. They also need a variety of things to write on - including large paper, round paper or paper plates, colored paper, magic slates, index cards, envelopes, booklets, large books and self-made books All of these materials can be gathered at a classroom writing center.

In Kindergarten, beginning writing may look to the adult like scribbling, but young 'writers' can usually retell their meaning when asked. We know that childrens' drawing is also an important precursor to writing Dictation, as in the Language Experience approach, should not substitute for childrens' own efforts to get their stories down Teachers should encourage "invented" or "inventive" spelling, i e. childrens' approximations of letters and words. What is most important is that children focus on meaning from the start and not on correctness Encouraging children to guess at spellings and/or to leave blanks for words will convey the message that what counts is getting it down. Later the writer can return to make the text more readable for others

Teachers in the early grades may want to make extensive use of dialogue journals, to encourage and integrate both reading and writing As Jana Staton describes them

> Dialogue journals are a type of journal in which students and teacher write back and forth to each other, having a friendly conversation in writing about topics of mutual interest. Through the dialogue, student and teacher are constructing a mutually interesting reading text about self-generated topics, with the teacher elaborating on some of the topics introduced by the student (1987, p 25)

Staton explains that each student is given a bound journal which is passed back and forth for each new response. On the early grades students comments are typically brief so that the teacher can respond frequently, if not daily Students may write about anything that comes to mind - something that happened in school that day, questions they'd like to ask problems they're encountering, whatever These entries may become a kind of writer's journal which the student may use to identify topics for further, more sustained writing Dialogue journals may be regarded as a precursors to essay writing, students learn through responding to their teachers' questions to support statements with information from texts or from their lives

It is important for young children that writing be mostly self-initiated and self-paced, and that time be set aside each day for a writing (and reading) workshop in which students work on their own writing. (For detailed discussions on how to set up and manage these workshops, see Calkins (1986) and Graves (1983)). Opportunities that occur to invite note and list making as part of the class' Social Studies and Science curriculum should be encouraged. Students can jot down observations of filmstrips, animal habits, and even responses and questions to texts being read aloud or enacted by other children. Writing before, during and after reading (see Critical Experience I: Reading) can also begin at an early age. Young children like to write stories from their own experience and also fantasies, monster stories, cartoons and a wide variety of other genre, particularly if the classroom library is rich with examples. Publishing childrens' work by posting it and making it into books is obviously a key part of nurturing a classroom writing environment.

Middle Grade Reading, Chapter I, Resource Room and English Classes

Teachers in the middle grades find that using both student-initiated writers' workshops and teacher-initiated assignments are effective ways to stimulate writing. Dialogue journals (as described above) may be used in writing about literature either whatever the class is currently reading or in response to the student's self-selected independent reading (see Critical Experience 3). The middle grades provide an opportunity to help students become increasingly self-reflective about their processes conversations about the range of purposes for writing, the range of types of writing, and the ways that genre differ are particularly useful Having students read and write in the same genre works well for 6th and 7th graders: autobiographical writing (memoirs, stories, narratives etc) can be done along with reading autobiographies. If asked to brainstorm and share their lists of possible autobiographical topics to write about early in the semester, students will always have a source of ideas and possibilities

Many teachers find that daily or frequent journal writing at the start of class (in reference to the previous night's reading or writing assignment, or to the work of that day) helps students to focus and have something to say about what they have just read or written (see Atwell, 1987, for many excellent suggestions for setting up a reading/writing classroom at the middle school level) Longer writing assignments in these grades should emanate from self-selected topics. Some middle grade teachers use "contracts" focused on themes in which students have a wide range of choices ranging from drawing, to researching, to writing from their own experience. The importance of choice as a motivator in the middle grades cannot be overstressed.

Middle Grade Content Area Classes

In the Social Studies, Science and other content area classrooms there are many opportunities to use writing to learn the subject matter at hand. Many of these are in the form of notes, taken from observing, listening, or reading. Formats for taking notes (e.g. the Cornell Method, cf Pauk 1984, described in Critical Experience 5) can be taught and practiced. The expectation that they will make their own notes about something (and not just copy from the board) is essential here. With practice and supportive feedback, students can learn to do this. Fulwiler (1987) suggests that teachers start class with five minutes of writing (perhaps in response to key words from the day's lesson or from the previous night's reading). Students can share briefly with a partner what they have written and then some with the whole class. This sets the stage for everyone to be involved in thinking about the task at hand, and makes it possible for all students (even the ones who tend to be shy or uninvolved) to have something to say (they've rehearsed it with a partner). These learning logs should not be kept on random sheets of paper but rather in some kind of notebook where the students could conceivably track their own growing understanding or questions about a topic. Fulwiler (1987) further suggests that teachers interrupt their lectures or discussion and have students write for a few minutes about what stands out for them or what questions they have. At the end of class students can also write briefly, asking themselves "What did I learn? What stood out for me? What do I want/need to know?"

Grades 9-12 Reading and English Classes

One tendency in secondary English classes is to limit writing assignments to teacher-initiated topics and to focus almost exclusively on transactional writing, especially what students and teachers call "essays" or "themes" Instead of narrowing the options, teachers in grades 9-12 can incorporate into the curriculum writing for all three functions or purposes - expressive, informational and poetic Writing is integral to thematic units which provide opportunities for students to write on the same or closely related topics over time. In any case, writing should be frequent, and should involve multiple drafts and editing only some of the time. Not every piece of writing needs to go through all aspects of the composing process, but when multiple drafts are appropriate, helping students develop more sophisticated concepts of revision (especially the ability to work productively in small peer revising and editing groups) is critical (see Spear, 1988). Though secondary school classes are typically discussion oriented, enacting/transforming literary texts helps older students break from established patterns and encounter what they read in new and provocative ways. These in-class dramatizations also provide shared experiences for writing.

Secondary Content Area Classes

Writing to demonstrate learning has been standard in the curriculum for a long time. In current movements known variously as "writing to learn" and "writing across the curriculum," teachers emphasize instead the role of writing in thinking deeply about and learning content, and as a consequence, the notion of studying content as more than learning a set of facts. There are at least two emphases here: (1) ways students can use expressive writing (notes, mapping techniques, journals, observation notebooks etc) to think in the discipline, i.e. use writing to learn (2) the types of discourse (e.g. language, use of evidence and argument) writers in a discipline employ, i.e. learning to write like a scientist or historian or how writing is used across the curriculum.

In exploring the linkages between writing and learning a subject, many content area teachers have effectively adapted the general approaches outlined above. For example, using the "Writing Before, During and After" framework (see pp. 37 and 62), teachers find that varying the routine of reading, discussing and answering end-of-chapter questions helps them "uncover" what students do and do not understand. Although the process is more time-consuming, they find that students "cover" the material in much more meaningful ways.

Many recent publications detail the various types of writing that are particularly relevant to different disciplines. In the Social Sciences/Humanities, for example, writers may assume the role of historical characters, writing to other historical figures, letters to the editor of newspapers or journals; they also keep journals, do oral histories, and use writing to argue different sides of a controversy. In Science students keep lab notes and field observations, but they also write in response to short lectures, putting down their understanding of difficult concepts. Math students keep journals, write out definitions and solutions so that someone else can understand them, and track their thinking processes, with freewriting that resembles written think-alouds. Industrial Arts, Foreign Language, Business, Art and Music, Health and Physical Education and Home Economics teachers have all found interesting and helpful ways to engage students in authentic writing to learn. These include interviews, descriptions of processes, descriptions of events from the perspectives of different participants or points in time, case studies, reactions to films, video or other media, biographies and autobiographies and script writing. Department meetings in which faculty brainstorm possibilities and share work in progress have produced some of the most innovative and content-rich ideas.

Chapter Three

CRITICAL EXPERIENCE 3

EXTENDING READING AND WRITING

The third critical experience elaborates on the view of reading and writing presented in the first two. Here we show how schools concerned about learners as lifelong readers and writers make self-selection a fundamental part of the curriculum in all content areas. By self-selection we mean opportunities for students to choose, for their own interests and needs, materials to read and write, in and out of school. By making "extending reading and writing" a separate critical experience, we want to foreground the notion that what some regard as enrichment, a supplement to the curriculum, should instead be basic: planned for, allotted time, and integrated into the regular curriculum. In other words, extending reading and writing should be a priority in schooling at all levels, for all learners.

We initially called this critical experience "independent" reading and writing, but quickly realized that developing lifetime readers and writers depends on the interactions and interdependence of learners, teachers, parents and community members, the social networks that are formed and sustained through reading and writing for common purposes. By structuring choice into the daily and weekly curriculum, by providing more and better resources, by helping children and parents connect more meaningfully around shared reading, writing, and learning, and by designing whole school literacy events, these networks can help create an environment for fostering lifelong literacy

At a time when teachers feel overwhelmed by the sheer amount of material to be covered, it seems particularly important to find ways to structure classrooms and courses so that students still exercise significant choice and control over portions of their own learning. In "Theory and Practice," we discuss connections among motivation, choice, and achievement. "Classroom Activities K-12" provides three general suggestions for extending reading and writing across the grades and curriculum, while "Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area" mentions a few of the ways that teachers and students can adapt the more generic suggestions to particular contexts.

Theory and Practice

Beyond what we know from intuition or our own experience, there is some evidence that independent or leisure reading, in or out of school, is associated with gains in reading achievement, and furthermore, that the opportunity to "practice" real reading and writing is a very significant factor in the acquisition of literacy. New Zealand, with the highest literacy rate of any of the English speaking countries, makes a good example. The New Zealand government has established a national policy that students take books home to read each night. What some call 'extensive' or wide reading clearly enhances learners' general fund of knowledge and offers a wider set of experiences beyond what can be introduced in school. Since students' interests expand through reading and writing about what they read, frequent exposure to books leads to an appetite for more books and ideas. Sometimes students elect to read deeply in one author or about a single topic, discovering how one book leads to another. Reading this way affects the quality of their writing. As Frank Smith(1983, 1988) and others have argued, in order to become writers, children must learn to "read like writers," by which he means becoming members of the "literary club." Members of the club learn about language and life through books and regard themselves as participants in communities of readers and writers.

Two major themes emerge: (I) providing choice in reading and writing experiences in school as part of the regular program and (2) assigning and encouraging self-selected reading and writing activities to be done at home or out of school. Both build on the obvious relationships between choice and motivation. Choosing and caring go together; they have a lot to do with "owning" an activity or doing it primarily in response to someone else's request or need. School tasks can enhance feelings of ownership even by providing choices within a pre-determined structure. For example, students given four possible topics begin the writing process almost before they know it: how are these topics similar and different? which one appeals to me most? what do I know the most (or least) about?

Reading books and other reading material is more appealing when there is some element of self-selection involved. As we know, adults who are confirmed readers have a repertoire of tastes and preferences which drive their choices. When they browse in a library or bookstore, selecting things to read, they learn how to evaluate materials in relation to their own criteria. Talking about choices and how they are made, whether in informal conversation or by reading reviews, is also part of the social act of reading It is difficult to develop the ability to select, if the option to do so is rarely given As Moffett and Wagner (I983)point out, we need to teach students to choose to give practice and encouragement in making decisions. Furthermore, children may need to read a lot of so-called trash in order to develop literary taste, as Chambers (1984) has argued just as they may need to struggle to discover subjects in order to understand what being a writer is all about.

Besides opportunities to choose, students need to read and write without always being encumbered with the 'trappings' of school, i.e reports, comprehension questions, and other conventional checkup procedures. Students need permission and encouragement to read and reread, even books which are "too easy" or "too hard." They need to start but not finish some materials, and particularly to experience the slow, self-paced and indulgent reading (and writing) that is so pleasurable (and sometimes necessary) in later life. Students need time to select their own materials and read uninterrupted each day, without having to be "accountable" for that reading. Through self-selected reading, students become more enthusiastic about reading and learn self-discipline as well The dialogue journal (see Critical Experiences I and 2) provides a parallel experience in writing, and may very well be linked to self-selection. Students record their own ideas about books or other experiences and teachers respond non-judgmentally, focusing on the content and not on correcting the student's writing for grammar or mechanics.

The implementation of this critical experience will vary considerably from classroom to classroom across the grades and content areas, but some consistency and coordination in a whole school program is clearly desirable Some of the suggestions that follow depend on cross-grade communication. Summer reading, for example, can be planned so the selections relate to the units to be taken up in the next grade in the early fall Cross-age reading and writing activities can be similarly coordinated, as can supplementary reading for secondary English, History and Science classes. Relating teachers' individual efforts to whole school programs can have a considerable cumulative effect over the span of a child's schooling.

Classroom Activities K-12

Three general suggestions for implementing this critical experience in classrooms are the following:

(1) Make books and a variety of other reading materials available for all students to read.

In most elementary grade classrooms and many middle and secondary as well, teachers can establish and build classroom libraries which contain a large quantity of paperback and hardcover books, periodicals, newspapers, etc. with a wide range of interest and difficulty. Having all the works of a popular author can encourage students to "read through" a writer's work and get a sense of the variety of ways individual authors express their ideas. Classroom libraries should include the "published" writing of students in the class, as well as school publications like newspapers and literary magazines. Many teachers find that secondhand bookstores are useful sources of material, while students, parents and school-sponsored book drives can be mobilized to acquire books as well.

It is particularly important to establish collections that support thematic work, so that students' independent reading can be partly an extension or elaboration of topics dealt with in the whole class curriculum. School librarians can be very helpful in gathering these collections with committees of students assisting in the process. Local grants may be available for teachers to augment their classroom holdings while developing new curricula (cf. The Philadelphia Alliance for Teaching Humanities in the Schools (PATHS) for excellent examples of such a mini-grant program)[13]. Students of all ages can 'review' the books in the classroom library, contributing to a special reviewers' bulletin board or card file.

In addition to classroom libraries, teachers can find ways to encourage students to use the school and public libraries. As we have said, arrangements can be made with librarians to borrow collections which supplement the classroom material while students are studying a particular subject or theme or author. Some librarians post lists of most frequently borrowed trade books or provide 'trading book corners' in the library itself Libraries are obviously essential for pursuit of independent research projects. Schools with space for school bookstores and parent groups interested in mounting books fairs and clubs help create a print-rich environment. Students can be involved in all of these - contributing books of their own, helping to select books, and planning book sales and fairs.

(2) Create an environment encouraging various forms of self-initiated writing

As discussed in Critical Experience 2, student initiated writing can occur in regular journals such as (a) personal diaries and (b) reading journals - descriptions of responses to self-initiated and/or assigned readings. Students can also keep (c) writer's notebooks in which they track of their observations of the world with an eye to writing about them at some future time, (d) learning logs where they record questions and observations based on the ongoing work of the class, and also (e) dialogue journals in which they write back and forth to their teachers and/or o other students. In all of these, students have control over the quantity of writing and are invited to figure out multiple uses for their journal entries Thus they are in some sense both assigned and self-initiated.

Students who do self-sponsored writing can be given opportunities to display their work and to share it in writer's assemblies, young author's conferences and other events that signify that the school is a community where students are writers. In some schools a drop-in writing center can provide a place for response in process. Some teachers involve older students in writing about or for younger students, e.g. sixth graders interviewing and writing biographies of first graders (B. Gibbons)[14]. Publishing of student work can occur within the classroom (bulletin boards, newsletter, posters, handmade bound booklets), within the grade, across the grades (newspapers, literary magazines, display cases, newsletter for parents), in the community (local newspapers, area newsletters, display in public places or public readings) or for a broader perhaps national audience through submissions to magazines for children and young adults (Dodd, 1986). Writing letters to authors or to pen pals from another school or even another country extends the audience for student work and links reading and writing. Incorporating functional uses of student writing into classroom routines is also important Students can take responsibility for recording important events, keeping card files on their independent reading (for use by other students), and writing notes to parents and others about upcoming events in the class. They can do class newsletters, write announcements for school events, and develop questionnaires for use within and outside the classroom Whenever possible, in other words, the students can do the writing (instead of the teacher) Writing has many functions and uses in school beyond the completion of assignments and these should be utilized to the fullest extent possible

(3) Integrate extended reading and writing into the K-12 curriculum.

Integrating "self-selection" into the curriculum may seem at first a contradiction. how do we structure classrooms for choice? Two factors, in addition to the suggestions above, seem essential (I) time and (2) the nature of out-of-school assignments

The most important ingredient is probably TIME· planning periods during the day when students are encouraged to select materials to read or are given opportunities to write in one of the several journal formats described above Recent national reports such as Becoming a Nation of Readers (1985) recommend at least several hours of independent reading each week , while John Manning, former International Reading Association President, calls that recommendation "too timid," arguing for at least one hour per day. Since the PCRP I in 1977, many teachers (and schools) have incorporated Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) into their programs. Whole-school SSR periods have been generally less successful than teachers' individual scheduling, fitting time for independent reading and writing into the design of each day. Providing time for students to talk about their reading is another key factor Small group sharing sessions, whole group meetings in which students "sell" their books to others, systems for recording reactions to reading-in-progress, linking self-selected reading and journal writing - all help to create the social networks which motivate and sustain individual efforts. Book talks by teachers and librarians also foster reading by opening up new possibilities. Whenever possible, teachers find that setting up their classrooms so that students do not always have to sit at their desks also contributes to an atmosphere for quiet, thoughtful reading and writing.

Planning time, then, for self-selected reading and writing involves a combination of quiet time for reading and writing and group time for teacher and student sharing, reading sections of books aloud, and other informal ways of talking about texts No matter how the time is allotted and worked into the curriculum, teachers can communicate with students about the rationale for doing it and with parents (especially in the elementary grades) about expectations and parental roles which will support this part of the curriculum. If teachers want to assign self-selected reading as "homework" for young children (as they do in New Zealand), children need time and help selecting books and ideas for reading them with their parents, siblings or other adults. In some schools, the only homework assigned is independent reading and writing Clearly families are essential partners in literacy learning, schools can provide workshops for parents to explore these ideas and share effective ways they have found to participate in their childrens' learning.

Regarding out-of-school assignments, self-selection can play a role in supplementar reading done during the school year and in a program of summer reading for students throughout the grades. For middle and secondary students, in particular, these plans are best made on a departmental or whole school basis. Reading, English and other content area teachers can develop supplementary reading lists correlated with each quarter's or each semester's work, and then require that students select one or more books to read on their own or with a small group of their classmates This reading is designed for enjoyment and to extend students' understandings of themes or topics dealt with in class. In addition to the obvious links between studying American history and simultaneously reading more broadly in American literature, seventh grade students doing a semester long English course on "biography and autobiography" or tenth graders studying "heroes and anti-heroes" can be encouraged to select outside reading from a list especially prepared to extend and diversify what is core reading for the class as a whole. Supplementary independent reading which is coordinated with core content broadens students' knowledge base and enriches the learning of all members of the classroom community. Connecting the outside reading with the in-class reading encourages students to make informational, thematic and stylistic connections among works read in these different contexts.

Responses to individual readings ought not be strictly in the form of "book reports." Among the many options available are new final chapters, book reviews similar to those in newspapers and magazines, letters to characters or to the author, abstracts of factual content (for non-fiction selections) written for a particular audience, or transformations of a part of a book to another genre (e.g. poem, short story, radio script, prospectus for a movie or play) or another medium (e.g. artistic responses such as design of a poster or book jacket). Opportunities can be provided for oral responses such as role-playing scenes, transposing characters to another setting or time period, making a speech or presentation, or for younger children, just telling a few things about the book to interest others in reading it (the notion of "book selling" alluded to above). All of these alternatives to book reports require selection of significant detail, organization of responses into a meaningful whole, and attention to at least several types of responses (see Types of Transactions With Text in Critical Experience I). In the doing of these activities, students' understanding (the 'skills' of comprehension) is both enriched and displayed.

Summer reading, although designed primarily for enjoyment, can also be related directly to the curriculum. Some schools have found that having students make selections among a limited set of options that connect directly to the first unit of study in the fall is an effective way to blend these two agendas. In September, teachers begin not with assessment but with small groups composed of students who have chosen the same texts. These groups meet together to respond and then share their responses with the whole class, either individually or collectively. The first novel or text selection read as a whole class can be compared and contrasted with the students' summer reading. In some schools, students become consultants to the summer reading program by reviewing books under consideration for summer reading selections; teachers at the same grade level or in the same department regularly collect data about students' responses to particular books on a yearly basis. One junior and senior high school arranged for students to "sell" the summer reading books to the students in the grade below them; they experimented with various informative and persuasive formats, including preparing a videotape.

Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area

K-4

Children in the earliest grades develop positive, self-motivated attitudes toward reading and writing primarily through exposure to a wide variety of books and many opportunities to write about their own life experiences in autobiographical and inventive stories. Classroom libraries should contain the widest possible range of trade books, especially good childrens' literature, as well as anthologies, textbooks, science and social studies materials, newspapers, magazines (including journals of childrens' writing) etc. Basal readers may also be used as literature books for children to self-select stories and poems to read during independent reading times.

The concept of "book selling" is particularly appropriate for this age level. Students come together, perhaps once each week, for the purpose of sharing one or two books they have recently read that they think others in the class would also enjoy. Book sellers select one or two things to say about each book and then, based on a show of hands, designate the book's next reader. Even when these same books are freely available in a well-stocked classroom library, teachers have found that the process of book selling creates a community of readers who eagerly await their turn to share and who often read and reread favorite books based on the recommendations of their peers. Teacher book selling is also very effective. Somewhat like a T.V. movie review with a clip from the actual film, the teacher introduces the book, reads aloud a particularly rich passage, and then distributes as many copies as are available and requested. The classroom library provides a source of books for children to take home each night to read with friends, parents and other family members. The library should include student published books as well.

In connection with independent reading, students can also be encouraged to write in reading journals about what they have read, or to retell the story to a friend or small group. Drawing or making something that shows a response to reading is also appropriate. With or without the explicit connection to reading, "writing workshop time" may be set aside regularly each day; some teachers like to begin the day with writing while others find another slot for routine, free writing in a daily journal or toward the generation of stories or poems. Having a writing workshop time encourages children to discover their own topics. When children can anticipate writing time, they begin jotting notes, brainstorming their ideas with classmates and family members, and beginning to think of themselves as "people who write." (See Graves 1983 and Calkins 1986 for many ideas about setting up writing workshops).

Grades 5-8

In the middle grades it is also important to have a classroom library and opportunities for students to work independently in projects involving reading and writing. Providing time in school to read is clearly "time on task." Middle grade students like to be invited to become "experts" on a topic; this process may involve generating questions, conducting real world inquiries using a variety of media, and presenting the products of their research through a mural, slideshow, newspaper or other creative format Many middle grade teachers find a combination of book logs and reading conferences particularly appropriate for this age group. In book logs or dialogue journals, students write letters to their teachers about the books they are reading and the teacher responds in the role of a partner or co-investigator, asking questions which encourage, extend and connect the reading to other texts and experiences. The point here is a rich, ongoing conversation about books. As Atwell (1987) puts it:

> I've had to put a stop to teacher talk, to spitting out questions like a computer and lecturing my kids about what they're supposed to see and appreciate in the literature they read. There is no one set of questions to ask every reader; there are, instead, individual readers with their own strategies, questions, tastes and styles. There is no one correct way to approach or interpret a text; there are, instead, individual readers with an incredible range of prior knowledge and experience. Through the dialogue journals I've discovered alternative ways a junior high English teacher can talk to students about literature. The letters I write to students are personal and contextual. . . Response grows both from what I've learned about a reader and how I hope to move the reader's thinking (p. 178).

Atwell also provides an inspiring list of possibilities for the content of these dialogues, including many suggestions for comments about how authors wrote the book; authors themselves ; concepts of genre and mode; the reader's process, affect and own writing; recommendations for other books or authors etc. (p. 276-280), and suggests that students do student-to-student dialogue journals as well

In social studies, science, mathematics, home economics and vocational subjects, classroom libraries contain newspapers, periodicals, biography and fiction (e g. historical fiction) which relate to units of study or more generally to interesting applications of the content area. Students use the library to locate collateral reading on subjects of particular interest. Reading and

Chapter I classes and resource rooms are an ideal setting for emphasizing extended reading and writing Having pairs or triads read the same book will often provide the needed social support for independent reading Small groups can present or demonstrate for the class as a whole; these presentations are an age-appropriate version of book selling (see K-4 above).

Students in grades 5-8 should be encouraged to participate in outside reading during the school year and to do summer reading as well Research on the reading habits and patterns of adolescents indicates that many who are "readers" stop reading for pleasure when assignments in school become more demanding, often around seventh grade, and when departmentalized schedules transform the school day (often in fifth or sixth grades). If the school continues to support self-initiated and self-selected independent reading by providing time and resources, across the curriculum, students will get the message that extensive reading is important, and not "enrichment" limited to certain classes or students

Grades 9-12

Although classroom libraries are certainly an asset at this level, it may be more difficult to maintain them than it is to provide a good collection of paperback books in the school library or resource center. Regular outside reading can be incorporated into all or most content areas, but clearly coordination across departments is needed Supplementary reading can help diminish some of the fragmentation inherent in a curriculum of separate subjects; reading historical fiction while studying U S history or world literature while studying world history make good examples Teachers and librarians can work together to generate supplementary reading lists of books with a wide range of difficulty to be used with thematic units in English, history and science. Integrating outside reading with the ongoing work of the class helps to avoid the isolated book report syndrome, students can write about topics which link class texts and their own individual choices but all about the same general theme or subject

Some secondary teachers continue to read aloud to their students on a daily basis In one case a teacher (P. Bobbe)[15] begins each day reading a single poem aloud at the beginning of class without any comment or discussion The focus is purely on listening This teacher has found that students begin talking about the poems outside of class and sometimes ask for 'reruns.' Other teachers routinely read short examples of powerful writing, not necessarily related to any unit of study, and encourage students to do the same. Content teachers can draw students' attention to features of writing in science or mathematics and invite students to bring in interesting or surprising examples encountered in popular magazines, newspaper or journals.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Chapter Three

CRITICAL EXPERIENCE 4
INVESTIGATING LANGUAGE

The first three critical experiences present reading, writing and talking as active language and learning processes. In the fourth critical experience, we show how these processes provide the context for students to acquire concepts about how language works, about language as content as well as process. Unlike approaches to teaching language content as a set of language rules and items called skills and subskills, here we describe teaching language in the context of learners' own use of language. Students investigate language while engaged in listening, reading, writing and speaking, i.e. when they are using language to make meaning and to accomplish their communicative purposes. Through these inquiries, students learn about the structures of language - the parts and how they are organized - and about the social rules of language use - how users adapt language to social contexts.

Reading, writing and talking activities which are purposeful provide abundant opportunities for choice. By choice, we mean that students seek information about language in order to accomplish particular immediate goals. In the process they learn about inquiry itself: they discover how to gather information about language in use, how to raise questions, make and test hypotheses, and how to analyze and synthesize their observations. Investigating language in meaningful situations, in and out of the classroom, can lead to increased competence in using the forms and conventions of language. It can also lead to higher order thinking about language in use - understanding how language functions in different spoken and written texts and in diverse socio-cultural contexts.

The first section, "Theory and Practice," shows how current research suggests that students can learn about the systems of language while engaged in meaningful tasks. Although equally structured, this is unlike a more traditional approach which presents the language systems in isolated units for students to practice and memorize. "Classroom Activities K-12" describes ways to plan for language investigations as part of the ongoing curriculum. The final section, "Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area," describes briefly some of the applications of these more general strategies to the subject areas and grade levels

Theory and Practice

Critical Experience 4 centers on what students can learn about language while speaking, listening, reading and writing in school. As we have pointed out earlier, children come to school with extensive knowledge of language They also have strong intuitions about the nature and function of language beyond what they already "know" (Harste, Woodward and Burke, 1984; Lindfors 1987). For example, native speakers of a language are "walking grammars" in that they know what "sounds right." Given a set of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, students can readily identify which ones make sense, even if they cannot immediately describe the patterns or reasons for the distinctions they are able to make. What students are demonstrating is the ability to use rather than to state the rules of language. Teachers can start from these naive or undeveloped intuitions and work toward building more sophisticated knowledge of language patterns and linguistic diversity. The teacher's task is to clarify, refine, and help learners extend what they already know, i.e. to expand and elaborate the language learning already going on.

Most textbooks and workbooks are based on the assumption that language is best learned in a 'scientifically determined' sequence. Students who successfully complete these exercises are presumed to have mastered particular isolated skills which will then transfer into competence in "real" reading, writing, and speaking. Teachers who use these approaches clearly feel that they are being responsive to student needs, that they are teaching important content, and that the structure of the program or materials will help insure that their students, over a period of time, will learn all they need to read, write and speak effectively. Depending on pre-structured materials seems designed to prevent the occurrence of what teachers often refer to as "gaps. " These surface features of written language appear both "teachable" and "testable" (Atwell, 1987, p. 144); many teachers feel that these materials will deal systematically with the types of errors found daily in students' oral and written work.

One of the appeals of commercial materials in language skills is that they "cover" structures in what seems to be a logical sequence. Closely examining any set of these materials (e.g. basal reading programs, grammar series, spelling books etc.), however, reveals a perplexing fact· with the exception, perhaps, of phonics skills, the same essential concepts are repeated over and over through the grades Furthermore, teachers who have "taught" the parts of speech in grades

5 or 6 recognize that their students are likely to have forgotten what they "learned" when they reach junior high. High school teachers often wonder what aspects of grammar or usage they can assume their students have mastered, and more often than not end up beginning with p. 1, all over again. Atwell (1987) has argued that we teach too many skills (by which she means sub-areas of the reading and writing process) and not at the right time, that we should look instead at the students' own oral and written work for opportunities to teach what students need to know.

Teaching fragmented and discrete components of language is repetitive (grade to grade), overlapping (even within grades) and incredibly time-consuming, taking valuable time away from what students need to experience in order to read, write, listen and speak effectively. What is needed is a broader, more integrative framework which teaches the skills by subsuming all of the bits and pieces into more meaningful wholes. Instead of "covering" decoding, spelling, grammar, usage and vocabulary in isolated exercises, what seems most promising is finding systematic ways to teach those aspects of language in the context of language in use.

Whole language theorists, and particularly Carole Edelsky, make this point most clearly. We know that language is used to make meaning - to accomplish peoples' purposes - that language always occurs in a situation, and that these situations are critical to the meaning that is being made (Edelsky 1986). As Edelsky points out, language is a system of systems which interact any time language is used. These systems -referred to as the graphophonic, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic - cannot be extricated from instances of language in use without changing them, i.e. decontextualizing them, and thus reducing their meaningfulness. In any instance of language in use, all of these systems are present and interacting, i.e. influencing each other. If language is pulled apart, as it is on workbook pages that purport to practice and thus teach fragments of language, and if the purpose for using the language is unrelated to a learner's intent to make meaning (other than merely fulfilling a teacher's expectations by doing the assignment), then what is occurring is not reading and writing (as Edelsky explains) but rather a simulation, an exercise in reading and writing. When some of the systems of language are not present or taken away (as with the use of flashcards for words and letters or reading sentences outside of whole texts), the task of reading is not simpler but harder. Grammar books, skillsheets, spelling books and vocabulary lists are examples of decontextualized language: they provide practice of skills outside of real reading and writing and without the inherent purpose of communication or understanding.

We know from current research in language acquisition (see, e.g., Lindfors 1987) that although growth in language is cumulative, there is no single, linear progression for all learners. As Lindfors points out, when young children learn language at home, they organize the information to be learned in a sequence that reflects their needs; they are, by nature, systematic learners. In school, information taught out of a meaningful context is abstract, difficult to learn, task-specific and often quickly forgotten. Learning language is ultimately personal, unique to each individual learner, students acquire a shared body of knowledge, but they learn the specifics of language in quite different ways. What is systematic in learning is in the individual learner's experience, and in the complex interactions of students with each other, with the teacher, and with others within and outside of the classroom learning community.

Given a rich language environment, purposeful activity and many opportunities for choice, students will seek information about language in order to get things done. When students write a play to perform for their peers, for example, they try to write in ways that are clear and comprehensible - so that it "sounds right" when spoken out loud. This involves a systematic inquiry into the differences between spoken and written language.

An integrative, contextualized approach thus starts with the actual language events of the classroom - the activities described in the first three critical experiences. In these environments, students read and are read to, they discuss, present, and enact texts, they write and share their writing, and they use a variety of other media (art, film, music etc) to make meaning. With classroom literacy events as settings, teachers in part teach opportunistically; they (and eventually their students) look for those "teachable moments" when they can bring into students' focal awareness some aspects of language. For example, in a first grade class reading "The Elves and the Shoemaker," one child observed spontaneously that in shoemaker, "two words come together." The teacher invited them to brainstorm other examples and the students came up with compound words such as snowman and teapot, drawing on their own prior knowledge and experience. Teaching opportunistically involves intelligent sensing of what students know and need to know, not luck or serendipity. Based on their systematic observations of learners, teachers can plan mini-lessons directed toward specific needs.

Even brief attention to language qua language enhances students' "metalinguistic awareness," helping them from an early age to become more self-conscious about the ways language is systematic and patterned. While learning about literature, science or history, all students can be encouraged to ask their own questions about language: Who is my audience for this editorial? How can I signal different parts of my text? How do I explain that this happened before this did? Why does this author use this word? How does this idea relate to that one? In whole class discussions the origin of interesting words can be explored or the structure and syntax of a complicated argument in a section of text unpacked and examined.

What is critical here is tailoring teaching to students' immediate needs and interests, working from whole texts, to parts, and back to wholes again. We learn the uses and functions of language before (and to a certain extent in conjunction with)learning the forms, a well-documented feature of young childrens' oral and written language acquisition (Halliday, 1977; Harste, Woodward and Burke, 1984; Cochran-Smith, 1984). Starting with the bits and pieces of language, with isolated elements (e.g. lists of words to be spelled or blanks to be filled in with the appropriate pronouns) deprives the learner of meaning and the possibility of exploiting all the cues (interacting systems) of language itself.

When language investigations are conducted as part of the ongoing work of the class, students also learn how to inquire; using inductive, problem-solving strategies, they make and test hypotheses about language in use. As we said earlier, young children learn language by discovering its systems - the structures and patterns of language and its social uses -even before they come to school. In school, the data for these investigations - the language of the classroom and community - is always available. What is essential here is an attitude, in both teachers and students, of openness, exploration and often playfulness. Goodman (1987), quoting Halliday (1977), says "we have treated language too solemnly but not seriously enough" (p. 26).

Language inquiries involve active questioning, observing (gathering data about forms or varieties of language) and categorizing or classifying to form patterns or rules. In general, students work inductively from the examples to the rules or principles, drawing conclusions from their experience and, if necessary, testing and revising their hypotheses. This attitude of tentativeness and inquiry extends to what students and teachers have labeled "mistakes." Errors represent approximations or guesses and should be regarded as "windows on the mind" - as partial successes (Lindfors, 1987) that require revision or editing, not simply rubbing out or eliminating. As guesses, they represent the learners' current understanding of what is right or possible or necessary in a given situation. Understanding where the error came from, what system of understanding produced it, may be the first step in considering other alternatives. If students are to become lifelong learners, they (and their teachers) cannot continue to regard their errors as 'noise in the system.' Although these experiments may introduce what appear to be new errors, taking risks with language by trying out new structures and ideas is essential for language growth, and creating and maintaining the climate for risk-taking extremely important.

By using students' own reading writing and oral language as the sites for investigating language, we can help students understand that language is both a "vehicle for expressing and understanding meaning and a tool for social interaction" (Pica, 1988). Terms for distinguishing among different types of language competence (Canale and Swain, 1980) as interpreted by Pica (1987) are very useful here. What students need to acquire is not only grammatical competence (knowledge of the elements of the language code such as the grapho-phonic [sound-spelling], semantic [meaning], syntactic [sentence] systems), but also "discourse" and "sociolinguistic" competence. Drawing on Pica's explanation, discourse competence depends on syntactic and semantic knowledge as well as knowledge of the world. Students need to learn about how texts work, e.g. what makes sentences cohesive, how different parts of the text relate to each other, what's thematic in text, and how arguments are structured. They need to learn how to bring their own knowledge of language and the world to the text, and how to cope with new ideas and relate what they read to what they already know. Students acquire discourse competence from investigating what is going on in oral presentations such as speeches as well as by talking about and contrasting how different written texts are constructed. Investigations that lead to discourse competence begin from the earliest story-reading encounters between parent and child and continue throughout one's life.

Using Pica's definitions again, sociolinguistic competence refers to "what language means to its users and how it is used by them." Students can learn to think about the purposes of language as well the speaker or writer's position in relation to what is said or written and to the intended audience. This can help them deal with oral and written language experiences that reflect a variety of different sociocultural contexts. Sociolinguistic competence can be seen as including what we have referred to above as the pragmatic system (context and rules of use) as well as what language books often call "usage." Unlike grammatical and discourse competence which are more familiar parts of language materials and instruction, sociolinguistic competence - and the broader construct which Hymes (1964, 1971) refers to as "communicative competence" - has not typically been a planned part of school curriculum.

One effective way to begin introducing these notions into teaching would be to initiate extended language inquiries which students can do with language events in their classroom and which also take students out of classrooms to gather data about language in use in the school, in their families, and in the community. Drawing on the work of Heath (1982), Heath and Branscombe (1985), and Groden, Kutz and Zamel (1987), teachers can develop projects which teach students to use ethnographic methods and apply them to researching language in school, family and community settings By taping or taking notes on conversations that take place in particular situations (e.g. stores, banks, libraries, meetings, TV newscasts, the dinner table etc), by examining texts used to accomplish different purposes(e.g posters, advertisements, politica speeches) and generally by becoming more aware of how language is used in the world, students can learn a great deal about how people adapt language to different social contexts. Through these investigations, they can learn about linguistic and cultural diversity as both social and political phenomena.

Language investigations such as these can lead to the study of differences between formal and informal uses of language, conversation and story-telling, regional dialects and bidialectalism, the dynamics of group discussions, and the language of science and law, to mention just a few of the possibilities. By analvzing language in use, taking into account speakers/writers, audiences, subjects and purposes, children and older students learn that there are different ways of saying "the same thing" and that these styles of communicating impact differently on readers and listeners. Knowing the forms and conventions of language becomes then not a matter of learning a single standard of "correctness" but rather of understanding and appreciating variation and diversity. As a result of these inquiries, students better understand the need to develop repertoires for using oral and written language to accomplish their own communicative purposes.

Classroom Activities K-12

In this section we begin by making some general statements about how teachers in all content areas and grade levels can find the "teachable moments" for language investigations that occur while students are: reading or being read to; discussing, presenting, or enacting texts; writing and sharing writing; and using other media such as drawing or watching films. We call this "Finding Opportunities to Teach About Language" (see following page).

FINDING OPPORTUNITIES TO TEACH ABOUT LANGUAGE

(1) Do mini-lessons on some specific aspect of language -
either a recurrent need from the students' writing (e.g. ways to vary sentences or think up titles) or something suggested in their reading (Latin roots in scientific terms) or talking (how to persuade an unfriendly audience). The ideas for these mini-lessons come from purposeful communication.

(2) Encourage students to pay attention to the way language is used -
sounds, words, phrases, sentences, figures of speech, structure of paragraphs and longer units

(3) Look for examples of language diversity -
particularly dialect variations and different styles of language appropriate for different contexts.

(4) Talk about the effect of the author's choices on the reader -
the effects on different readers - including other students as authors (and readers)

(5) Help students conduct inquiries into language -
by collecting examples of language from conversations, television, books, letters, films, conversations etc - and show them how to analyze and generalize from what they've found.

(6) Observe and analyze students' written work -
looking for patterns mastered and those that require instruction.

(7) Listen for student questions about language -
questions they may not even realize are about language - and build these interests into the work of the class, through discussion, individual or group research projects, other assignments.

In the sections which follow, we give examples of several ways that teachers can teach decoding/encoding, vocabulary and grammar without pulling language apart or taking it out of context.

TEACHING DECODING/ENCODING

In 1985, The Commission on Reading of the National Academy of Education issued Becoming a Nation of Readers, a comprehensive report about the teaching of reading that argued for overhauling current practices in phonics instruction. Approaches in programs available today "fall considerably short of the ideal," the Commission said. Among their recommendations were selecting only a few patterns to teach and completing phonics instruction before the end of second grade. In discussing these and other recommendations from this volume, former International Reading Association President John Manning said he is "unalterably opposed ...to the wordy, meaningless, convoluted, unintelligible, and generally gibberish exhortations provided pupils as phonics principles." He goes on to say that in his opinion failing readers receive too much phonics instruction rather than too little. Drawing on the report, he urges less time on skillsheets and worksheets (much of which he says are "incomprehensible" and "confusing to pupils") and more time writing. The point is that time spent on worksheets is time taken away from "worthwhile tradebook and library reading."

As Goodman and others have pointed out, children discover the alphabetic principle when they learn to write. In reading, children select the graphic information they need to get the meaning, focusing on making sense, and not on sounds or words in isolation. The goal then is to teach the sound/symbol relationships in language within the context of meaningful activities. Some suggestions for doing that are provided below:

Finding the Teachable Moment Applying the notion of "opportunistic teaching" to phonics instruction raises the issue of whether or not the sound- spelling patterns of English need to be taught in a pre-determined sequence based on high frequency patterns. If teachers want to follow a sequence, then they have the option of using materials especially designed to present these patterns (which is the case in typical basal programs). Alternately, teachers can identify patterns in the array of trade books, basal reader selections, poetry and folk rhymes that they are using for whole and small group reading instruction as well as what children are choosing to read on their own. The selection of patterns for emphasis in the first case has been pre-determined by the series' authors; in the second, teachers, basing their choices on what is readily available as well as their knowledge of their students and of the language, select the patterns to emphasize In moving to a literature-based reading program, some combination of these approaches may be useful as a transition.

Using Whole Texts: Dealing With Parts in a Meaningful Context Letters and sounds are not meaningful apart from texts. To keep the sound-spelling patterns in context, the materials for teaching the alphabetic principle would be once again the texts being read aloud and silently in class as well as the students' own writing. Teachers can read a text aloud first or students can listen to the text on tape. Texts with natural language (including poems and folk rhymes that play on repetitions of patterns of various sorts) can be used for a variety of language investigations - i.e. word and sentence making, peer dictations, etc. From these texts teachers can choose sound/spelling patterns to emphasize, e.g. can help students notice what words with similar sounds have in common. These activities integrate decoding and encoding within meaningful language experiences, thus diminishing the need for covering separately each of the so-called subjects of phonics, spelling, grammar, etc.

Teaching Inquiry: Helping Learners to be Playful and Exploratory with Language. Transacting with text and composing provide many opportunities for noticing how words are put together (encoding and decoding), how sentences are put together and combined (syntax), as well as how verses and paragraphs and other larger units of discourse function within the whole. Learning to decode and encode, for example, involves a natural process of rule-generation and hypothesis testing. This is best accomplished when students are constructing language patterns rather than filling in the blanks of someone else's constructions. By encouraging writing and helping children to look for and experiment with recurrent patterns within whatever texts are being read, teachers can help students analyze language in use, synthesize their observations, and generalize to other situations where similar patterns occur. In this way, students work from the known to the unknown.

Becoming consciously aware of letter-sound correspondences is only one aspect of acquiring competence in reading and writing; an overemphasis can have the effect of teaching young readers that reading is sounding out words, so they become more concerned with word identification than with understanding. Older students who have not mastered the alphabetic principle also need holistic reading and writing activities with language investigations based on their own questions and interests. Collaborative activities (not exercises) provide the meaningful context for learners to use and eventually internalize language concepts

Encouraging Children to Take Risks Children discover the alphabetic principle as they learn to write. In their search for rules they begin with invented spelling and move gradually to more regularized or conventional spellings through reading and frequent (but unpressured) opportunities to revise their own work. From research on the reading process, we know that skilled readers figure out words by using a variety of clues - visual configuration, grapheme-phoneme correspondences, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic. Similarly, beginning readers need to develop a repertoire of strategies for identifying words in context, of which dependence on the graphophonic system is only one. As Goodman, Smith and others have reminded us, the graphophonic system interacts with the syntactic and semantic systems in a pragmatic context, no one system can be isolated from the others without creating non-language or artificial situations, such as instruction with flash cards and word searches. Language investigations are inherently meaningful if they begin with a text that makes sense to children, and if children have the opportunity to work collaboratively to generate new meanings from the patterns and relationships of elements in the text.

A few suggestions for teaching decoding and encoding are as follows:

(1) Use **BIG BOOKS** - large versions of popular childrens' books which make it possible for groups of children to see the same text, read orally and chorally, and follow along when the teacher reads. Children can then follow up by reading their own, regular-sized copies. Some big books contain many predictable sound-spelling patterns, such as those found in poetry and folk stories, and make particularly effective texts for learning these patterns.

(2) Encourage children to **PLAY WITH SOUNDS** as they encounter poems, songs, chants, jumprope rhymes, etc They can experiment with substitutions, arrangement, and invent their own versions.

(3) Encourage children to use **INVENTED SPELLING.** Invented spelling approximates conventional spelling and serves the function of conveying meaning

for the child. When first experimenting with this approach in Kindergarten, teachers often express amazement and delight at how much their children can write and how 'readable' these invented spelling are. Children need to feel free to guess at spellings and to skip words while composing, so that concern with correct spelling does not diminish their enthusiasm for writing itself. Teachers can at the same time encourage invented spelling and lead the child to the conventional forms, recognizing that as children come to understand (perhaps by the end of grade one)that spellings are not variable, they will want to conform to the rules (Graves 1983).

(4) **RESPOND TO A CHILD'S JOURNAL** in conference by writing slowly and saying aloud the teacher's own responses while the student watches, thus modeling conventional sound-spelling patterns and visually mapping words and letters to sound.

(5) Give **MINI-LESSONS** on reading and writing environmental print, labeling parts of pictures, and noticing how language is used in stories (Calkins, 1986).

(6) Design **WORD AND SENTENCE-MAKING ACTIVITIES** which evolve from whole stories or other texts. Simply made cards with letters and words taken from the reading can be used for children to problem-solve by combining and recombining letters and words to make meaningful messages such as signs, directions or telegrams. In word sorting activities, children take words they have learned and sort them according to various features (i.e., graphic, orthographic, semantic, etc).

TEACHING VOCABULARY

The teaching of vocabulary as one aspect of the semantic system of language has many purposes. Teachers aim to expand students' knowledge of words, to increase their comprehension of oral and written language, and to encourage them to develop strategies for learning words independently. In addition we want them to be interested in words, curious about where they came from and how they might be used, and motivated to use them. These attitudes toward learning vocabulary are in some senses keys to learning, and they can best be acquired if teachers in all content areas consider developing students' word knowledge to be a part of their territory.

In many classrooms the teaching of vocabulary has become almost a separate subject, complete with its own materials and routines. Words are assigned, meanings are given or located in dictionaries, sentences are written or exercises completed, and eventually the word meanings are tested. Often this is a time-consuming weekly process with results that are mixed, at best. Students "learn" words (they get right answers on tests and quizzes) but they do not use them. Many teachers have little confidence that what is happening is more than rote learning or that students will remember from week to week or month to month the words they have supposedly "learned." There seems to be general agreement that many students do not, by this method, acquire the interest in and curiosity about words that would lead to effective independent lifetime learning strategies.

Vocabulary growth in children and adolescents comes primarily from extensive reading. Students who are avid readers acquire knowledge about language seemingly by osmosis, and those who read independent of their assigned school work are also more successful on a variety of standardized measures of verbal aptitude and achievement which depend quite heavily on word knowledge.

Once again we would like to suggest the concepts of "opportunistic teaching" and mini-lessons, looking for ways to integrate vocabulary instruction into whatever content area learning is already going on. These approaches invite the teaching of words in all the language modalities - listening, reading, writing and speaking. Some of these strategies may initially seem more applicable to grade teachers or secondary English teachers, but with adaptation, all may be used in content areas across the grades and across the curriculum.

(1) Emphasize **WIDE READING** in self-selected books and periodicals; provide encouragement and opportunity for students to share observations about words they have encountered in their reading (the curious word, the powerful word, the odd, funny, or effective word etc.).

(2) Encourage students to **COLLECT THEIR OWN WORDS** - from observation/listening, reading, talking, interviewing: develop some (not cumbersome) system for recording words for sharing and later use. Some teachers have students chart five words each week: where they found it and what it meant. Students can be encouraged to bring in words they think the class should learn too - perhaps resulting in a class word list.

(3) Let students in on the **RANGE OF STRATEGIES** for identifying and figuring out new words - e.g the power of a phonic approach (sounding out a word) if that word is already in your oral language vocabulary (and the limitations of this approach if it is not).

(4)I If you are introducing a group of words, **USE WORDS THAT ARE RELATED** - semantically and/or structurally, e.g. words that have the same Latin root. Do not give students random lists of words to learn.

(5) Show students that **"KNOWING" A WORD CAN MEAN SEVERAL THINGS** - that you've never seen it before but you have an intuitive understanding of it, that you've seen it before and can approximate its meaning, that you can readily attach a meaning to it, that it is an established part of your reading vocabulary, or that you use it in your own writing and/or talking. All of these ways of knowing are functional for different situations.

(6) Work from the **KNOWN TO THE NEW**: use brainstorming, mapping, and spontaneous writing to elicit from students their prior knowledge or associations with a "new" word encountered in reading, discussion or other media.

(7) In introducing vocabulary prior to reading informational texts, **SELECT ONE OR TWO KEY CONCEPTS/WORDS** and use brainstorming, mapping and/or writing to get students to access what they already know Just because the text assumes these words are "new" doesn't mean that they are new to your students. **WITH THREE TO FIVE CONCEPTS** they can map them in pairs and then discuss how

they might be used in the text, what they expect the text to be about and/or what questions they expect the text to answer.

(8) **ASK STUDENTS TO IDENTIFY** or produce **KEY WORDS:** in reading, this will help them separate important from unimportant concepts; in responding to each others' writing, this will help them to describe what Elbow (1973) calls the "center of gravity" of a piece of writing. They can do this by telling a peer what word in the draft summarizes or illuminates the whole piece, or by naming what they think the text is "about" - i.e. a word that's not there but represents the reader's response.

(9) Encourage **PLAY WITH WORDS:** Use puns, riddles, puzzles, rhymes, jokes, cartoons ; provide opportunities for students to choose to do word games, or better yet, encourage students to make up their own and do each others'.

(10) **USE THE COMPUTER:** Look for software that provides opportunities for word play and set up the computers so that students can use them collaboratively.

TEACHING GRAMMAR

When people use the word "grammar," they may mean a number of different things (Judy and Judy, 1979; Hartwell, 1985). Grammar may be intended to mean "correct grammar," the teaching in school of "rules." Many of these so-called rules sound more like incantations: 'do not write a sentence fragment,' or 'never end a sentence with a preposition,' or 'do not split an infinitive.' Not only are they often vague and abstract, but these rules are often "inadequate to the facts of written language" (Hartwell, 1985). Learning these language prescriptions often involves not only the "rules" but parts of speech, definitions of sentences and sentence types, and other principles for "proper" use of language.

From the perspective of linguists, however, grammar is a descriptive term which refers to the science of treating classes of words, their inflections and their syntactical relations and functions (Judy and Judy, 1979). Grammatical competence, knowing the elements and rules of the language code, is demonstrated through use of a rule rather than the ability to state it (Pica, 1988). This relates to the "grammar in our heads," the ability to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical, the more from the less grammatical (Lindfors, 1987).

A third use of the word grammar may be the actual book - the grammar book used to teach grammar, which also typically includes all kinds of nongrammatical things like how to use the library (Judy and Judy, 1979). Or it may be some combination of these meanings, such as the notion of stylistic grammar, or "grammatical terms used in the interest of teaching prose style" (Hartwell, 1985)", or grammar as "a manner of speaking, with reference to grammatical rules (Judy and Judy, 1979)."

Further complicating our communication about what "grammar" means , language or grammar books define grammar in relation to usage, while the term usage may have several different meanings. Some include in the sections on grammar the parts of speech, sentence parts and patterns, phrases, and clauses. In these texts, usage may be defined either as the language people actually use when they speak and write, or more often, the language they should use - what "educated" people use or what is "standard." In the latter case the usage section contains agreement, "problems" with pronouns and antecedents, irregular verbs and tense changes, as well as punctuation and spelling. In other words, this treatment of usage aims to help students avoid certain types of "errors" in using the "standard."

A simpler and more accurate distinction defines grammar as "a description of how English works" and usage as "the range of socially significant choices available to a speaker within the grammar of a language" (Judy and Judy, 1979, p. 230). Here grammar is not a set of rules prescribing language behavior but rather a description of the parts of the language system and how they fit together, as in the linguistic definition mentioned above. Usage is a relative concept, more of a sociological or sociolinguistic phenomenon. So-called "standard" usage is here not a matter of linguistic principles but rather of custom or convention, economic and political conditions in a country or culture. Based on these simpler distinctions, it is clear at most people use the term grammar when they mean usage, and that issues of social custom and culture cannot be disentangled from issues of language. Another confusion comes from lumping usage and mechanics together. As transcription conventions (e.g. spelling, punctuation, capitalization), the mechanics of language are standardized and do not vary the way usage does (Judy and Judy, 1979).

The variety of meanings for grammar and usage do not, however, obscure some fundamental and persistent problems. Some of these we have alluded to earlier in discussing the overemphasis on individual bits of language and the failure of children to remember much from year to year, despite frequent and regular instruction. Research does not justify teaching grammar to improve writing, nor does simply learning rules improve language performance. And we know that extensive use of language books, drills and exercises is very time consuming. For a middle grade or secondary English teacher, one day on grammar, another on vocabulary, and a third day to test leaves little time for reading and writing.

We are convinced, however, that grammar and usage - reconceptualized as grammatical discourse and sociolinguistic competence - can and should be taught. Students need to be helped to understand how their language works - to acquire "metalinguistic awareness" through activities which enhance the awareness of language as language, not by attention to categories or labels (Hartwell, 1985). Grammatical competence, in our view, should be developed primarily in relation to the students' own writing, selectively, and through activities that involve "doing" grammar rather than learning it from rules and exercises. We suggest some ideas for teaching grammar this way, but recommend that teachers extend this list by sharing other similar strategies they have found to work and by reading more extended discussions.

(1) From the beginning of the year, teachers can **KEEP AN INFORMAL BUT SYSTEMATIC RECORD** of the structures students are generally having difficulty with in their writing. These may include the typical content of grammar books such as sentence fragments, shifts in verb tense, problems with plurals and possessives, agreement, punctuation etc., but can also include aspects of style or organization or other broader concerns related to effective writing in different genre and for different purposes.

(2) When quite a few students are having a similar problem, teachers can **DO A FIVE or TEN-MINUTE MINI-LESSON** on the concept, using examples from the students' own writing (or if necessary, examples from a language book presented without the rules). Sometimes do mini-lessons for a group of students and other times for the whole class.

- a. Follow an inductive or problem-solving format, working from the whole discourse to the particular parts and then back to the whole. This will take longer but pay off in interest and retention.
- b. Some guidelines for inductive lessons (from K. Schultz)[16] include:
  - -Be open to looking for more than one right answer
  - -Encourage multiple responses
  - -Use the responses to help students build a pattern or patterns
  - -Ask students to generalize or make up rules for the patterns they've discovered

c. Use students' own work, things they really care about, not just perfunctory responses to assignments.

d. Use the technical language of grammar/usage when appropriate, in context, and encourage the students to use it as well

(3) When individual students have a pattern of repeated errors of the same type, teachers can **WRITE ONE OR TWO CORRECTED EXAMPLES,** from their own writing, on a sheet in the front of their writing folder. When a problem recurs, the students can be directed to their own personal "reference books."

(4) Teachers can set up **PEER EDITING GROUPS** in which students are responsible for noticing only the accumulated list of concepts that have been taught in mini lessons or which are listed on students' individual folders. Encourage students to take the initiative in adding to this list - identifying patterns they think are important and learnable - for the whole class. Students can learn to use the marks that real editors use to indicate changes, thereby making the whole process of refining writing for publication more authentic.

(5) Teachers can have students experiment with **SENTENCING ACTIVITIES** derived from literature, their own writing, and other sources (see Strong 1986). This focuses students explicitly on investigating the syntactic system of language - the unlimited ways that words can be combined into sentences and sentences combined, expanded or elaborated to produce new sentences. Sentencing activities are most useful as an aspect of revision and can be used to help students see how to make more effective (not just longer) sentences as well as to take apart sentences that are too complex

(6) Teachers can have an array of **RESOURCE BOOKS AVAILABLE.** Some recommend that these not be conventional grammar texts but rather more adult books about language: thesauruses, usage handbooks, dictionaries, spelling guides, secretary's manuals, style and research manuals, books of slang, etymology etc (Judy and Judy, 197?).

OTHER TOPICS OF LANGUAGE STUDY

In the earlier section on "Theory and Practice" we mentioned the possibility of expanding students' awareness of language in use, their "sociolinguistic competence," by setting up opportunities for them to gather examples of language from their school, home, and community. We would like to add to that suggestion by naming other areas of investigation into language which can be a vital part of learning across the disciplines, and not only the province of elementary grade teachers, English and Reading Specialists. These topics or areas may be introduced as mini-units or interludes into the ongoing curriculum or, preferably, integrated with thematic or topical units which may include the reading of literature and other relevant content area material. Areas of interest to students include:

- dialects - bidialecticalism, regionalism etc.
- metaphor
- language and politics
- language and gender
- wordplay
- language attitudes
- semantics
- nonverbal communication
- euphemisms
- humor
- the history of language
- computer languages
- slang and jargon
- propaganda/doublespeak
- language of sports
- etymology
- codes and ciphers
- censorship and taboos
- language of the media (T.V. , radio, newspapers, magazines, advertising)
- language acquisition
- animal communication
- language of the disciplines and professions

Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area

K-4

We know that reading plays a critical role in the development of spelling and other aspects of metalinguistic awareness. The language of literature provides access to a rich array of new vocabulary, sentence patterns and figurative uses of language, reinforcing the significance of frequent oral reading of good literature to children throughout the grades. Children acquire the alphabetic principle most easily when writing, however, because attention to specific grapheme-phoneme relationships is necessary to make meaning. Even in early reading, children should be taught that there are various routes to understanding words, not just using phonic strategies. With invented spelling, problem-solving about letters and sounds is necessary. In decoding words, pictures, "before reading" activities, sentence structures, and the context of the story itself aid, as they should, in making meaning. For the primary grades, discourse competence means learning through meaningful activity (rather than explanations and exercises) about the features and structures of many different kinds of texts for the perspectives of both reader and writer. Sociolinguistic competence results from children participating in diverse classroom language events such as conferences, role-playing, story telling, and informal drama. Through these experiences, children learn about appropriate language styles for interacting in particular contexts.

5-8 English/Reading

In English, Reading and self-contained classrooms in the middle grades, rather than teach language as a separate subject, we suggest that the investigation of language be incorporated into all aspects of the curriculum, with an emphasis on playful, exploratory work that functions as a kind of linguistic-consciousness raising (Chomsky, 1969). Middle year students, for example, may take apart forms of language in use, i.e. to consider why this riddle or pun is funny. Figures of speech are too often merely labeled rather than discussed. The concept of metaphor, rather than the use of metaphor as a 'figure of speech' can be introduced: students can begin to look across the content areas for dominant metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) and they can use synectics to generate their own metaphors and metaphoric ways of thinking.

A case can also be made, however, for a special short course or unit in language for seventh and/or eighth graders which would be designed to give students a broad introduction to language as an exciting and relevant topic for study. A course focused on linguistic inquiries could range over several topics in grammar, discourse and sociolinguistics. Students who "know" a special language (e.g. the language of sports) would be intrigued to make explicit what they know and use implicitly. Introducing linguistic terms and concepts within such a topical course would give the study of forms and functions a meaningful context.

Atwell (1987) provides many examples of 5-7 minute mini-lesson topics. Her ideas for mini-lessons on the craft of writing teach about techniques, style and genre - about discourse competence from the point of view of the writer. Some examples include brainstorming alternative leads and conclusions, using students' work as models, and showing the techniques of published authors such as Murray and Zinsser. Atwell also does what she calls skill mini-lessons in which she focuses on the conventions that help writers communicate, such as formats (e.g. paragraphing, letters), punctuation, usage and spelling.

5-12 Other Content Areas

The language patterns of each discipline provide rich territory for metalinguistic exploration. Science teachers can teach "the language of science" - incorporating information about roots and suffixes and other topics often "covered" in English books but taught out of context. Not only English but also History and science lend themselves to activities which involve "interviewing" - opportunities for students to collect data about language in use, e.g. by (l) literally interviewing people (Foxfire type inquiries), observing and noting how language is used in different contexts for different purposes; (2) corresponding with pen pals from other parts of the country or other countries of the world (3) exploring how language was used in different time periods, especially by reading and composing fictional diaries of historical figures. By seeking information from other people, events and media, and by writing that information down to share with others (either by talking or writing or both), students acquire samples of authentic language they can use to make and test hypotheses about language behavior in social contexts Through these processes they also learn about research - about how to raise and revise questions, collect oral and written language data, organize and interpret their findings. Language inquiries merge with subject areas so that students begin to learn from the inside out how scientists, historians, mathematicians, literary critics, anthropologists and others use language to generate knowledge in their respective fields. History teachers may want students to study how language was used for propaganda in a specific time period such as World War II, while science teachers can teach students how to describe lab experiments and how new technology affects scientific language.

9-12 English/Reading

In addition to the ideas suggested for grades 5-8, it may be appropriate for English and/or Reading teachers to offer 9th or 10th graders a short, intensive course on language in which they are introduced to the four interacting systems and to notions of discourse and sociolinguistic competence as well. Topics of language study such as regional dialects, language attitudes, language and gender or the language of politics or persuasion can easily be integrated into thematic and/or chronological units. These need not be peripheral to the study of the literature;

not only are novels, poems, and drama full of figurative language, but they often provide interesting sociolinguistic data which can inform discussions of theme and character.

Chapter Three

CRITICAL EXPERIENCE 5

LEARNING TO LEARN

The fifth critical experience focuses on helping students become reflective and strategic about their own knowledge, purposes, and processes as learners. The goal here is both independence and interdependence: empowering students to develop repertoires of strategies for using oral and written language to learn individually, in groups of peers, and with/from teachers, parents and other adults. Talking and writing about how they learn helps students better 'know their own knowledge.' It also enhances their acquisition of new facts and concepts and promotes higher order thinking. Through this critical experience, students of all ages become increasingly conscious of the strategies they use and need to use in order to learn successfully in different situations.

In learning how to learn, students' attitudes play a central role. Willingness to expend effort, expectations for success, inquisitiveness, tolerance for ambiguity, feelings of self-worth - all affect the quality of students' learning in and out of school. False starts and so-called mistakes need to be recognized as parts of the learning process and not viewed as failure. We know that these beliefs or attitudes are not simply in-the-learner phenomena. The classroom, school, home and community - as contexts for learning - are all socially constituted systems through which learners' beliefs about their own roles and competencies are socially constructed.

In "Theory and Practice" we describe what is meant by metacognition or "thinking about your own thinking". This theory provides an initial framework for understanding the kinds of knowledge and strategies that students need to learn. "Classroom Activities K-12" explores ways to teach learning strategies through subject matter content, rather than as a separate program or strand in the curriculum. In "Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area," ideas appropriate for particular contexts are explored.

Theory and Practice

Despite the near buzzword status of 'metacognition" (thinking about your own thinking), its importance in 'learning to learn' seems self-evident. Learners need a repertoire of flexible, albeit not always conscious, strategies for reading and writing different texts for different purposes. Recent research suggests that the more "meta- aware" readers, writers, and talkers are about the processes of using language, the more strategic or goal-directed their behavior is likely to be.

Metacognition may be defined as knowledge about and control over thinking (Flavell, 1978; Brown, 1980). When applied specifically to reading, this means knowing about or understanding the processes involved in reading and taking strategic control over them. As the diagram below suggests, readers need **knowledge of reading in general** (e.g it is constructive, dynamic, involves actively accessing and using prior knowledge, etc). They also need to know about their **own distinctive** or **stylistic reading processes**, what we are calling here the "intrapersonal context" of reading: what's difficult for them? how do they typically approach a story or newspaper? Knowledge of reading tasks (different kinds of reading), purposes (why we read) and texts (their likely content, conventions and structures) is also involved. Finally, readers need to know about strategies such as previewing a non-fiction text before starting to read it and dividing a particularly difficult text into chunks in order to deal with it part by part. Knowledge of strategies does not guarantee effective use, of course, as many teachers who have taught SQ3R and its counterparts know well. Yet talking about what's entailed in reading gives developing readers important information which demystifies the process, provides information about available strategies, and encourages them to overcome difficulties. The chart that follows provides an overview of these concepts·

METACOGNITION IN READING

KNOWLEDGE OR AWARENESS OF READING PROCESSES AND PRODUCTS	STRATEGIC CONTROL OF READING PROCESSES
READING in GENERAL OWN READING PROCESSES READING TASKS TEXTS STRATEGIES	STRATEGIES USED BEFORE, DURING, AND AFTER READING e.g. planning, analyzing text features, monitoring understanding, hypothesizing, revising prior knowledge, problem-posing and solving etc.

Another way to describe metacognition in reading is to say that it involves four kinds of knowledge: knowing THAT, knowing HOW, knowing WHEN and WHY. Knowing THAT is knowledge about one's own reading and writing processes in relation to texts and reading tasks or situations. Knowing HOW is strategic or procedural knowledge and knowing WHEN and WHY to use a strategy is called conditional knowledge (Baker and Brown, 1984).

Although strategies such as monitoring, planning and questioning are carried out by individuals, they are fundamentally social acts learned in social contexts. When not encouraged to analyze or interpret what they read, young readers just take the text as a given, reading opinions as if they were facts. And even if teachers ask for interpretations, students do not automatically know what strategies are appropriate or how to use them. Simply answering teachers' interpretative questions does not teach them to interpret, nor does the suggestion to "preview" or "survey" a text before reading it mean that students will know why or how to do that. While teaching of metacognition in reading through special lesson formats has been shown to be successful (see for example Palincsar and Brown 1986; Paris, Cross and Lipson, 1984), weaving metacognitive instruction into the overall curriculum is the comprehensive and long-range goal.

Although facts and knowledge are clearly part of making meaning from experience, learning to learn goes beyond memorizing facts or mastering a predetermined body of knowledge. In the following chart, we have taken what Resnick (l987) describes as higher order thinking (on left) and (on the right) suggested just a few ideas of what this might mean in relation to reading and writing.

HIGHER ORDER THINKING, READING AND WRITING*

Higher Order Thinking*	Explained*	Implications for Teaching Reading and Writing
nonalgorithmic	path of action is not fully specified in advance.	ask open-ended questions
complex	total path is not "visible" (mentally speaking) from any single vantage point.	get students to relate texts to other texts
multiple solutions	with costs and benefits, rather than unique solutions	explore diverse interpretations
judgment	nuanced and involving interpretation.	develop criteria and evaluate texts
multiple criteria	application of; sometimes conflicting with one another	compare criteria for evaluating texts
uncertainty	not everything that bears on the task at hand is known	encourage risk taking
self-regulation	of the thinking process	have students set purposes and select strategies
imposing meaning	finding structure in apparent disorder.	analyze challenging texts
effortful.	considerable mental work involved in the kinds of elaborations and judgments required.	use texts that reward deep and careful reading

*Two left columns quoted from Resnick, L. Education and Learning to Think National Academy Press, 1987, p. 3.

What we need to do to teach higher order thinking is clearly not just to "cover material" or get students to assimilate information. Willingness to engage in this kind of higher order thinking depends in part on students' attitudes, a connection teachers know well. We have mentioned several times the importance of students viewing errors as windows on the mind, not pathologies and the centrality of risk-taking to meaningful learning. We are also aware of the significance of inquisitiveness (Ogle, 1987) and of passivity and learned helplessness as barriers to achievement. Wertime (1979) argues that many so-called unmotivated or reluctant students are "would-be" students who feel themselves incapable of solving problems. Often they think they have a single chance to get a problem right, a function perhaps, of classrooms which overemphasize single right answers. Because schools place so much emphasis on short term instruction, students may have had little experience with their own powers of incubation or inspiration. Wertime introduces the term "courage span," which he defines as the "time which elapses between the taking on of a problem and the abandonment of that problem." Willingness to reveal partial or non-understanding and a tolerance for ambiguity seem essential to learning. Just as some stress and discouragement go hand-in-hand with solving everyday problems, students need to understand that difficulties are predictable parts of academic learning as well.

To benefit from various cooperative learning structures, many of which may differ from what students have experienced in family or community settings, learners need not only intellectual but also social strategies. Furthermore, helping students "learn to learn" in school sometimes means adapting school structures to approximate more closely familiar cultural patterns (see, e.g. Au, 1980), thus building on rather than working against cultural norms or values. In any case, teachers need to help students understand what is expected and valued in order to be a successful learner in different situations. Learning to take turns, to talk about out-of-school experiences, to listen and respond to the concerns and questions of others, to play a variety of roles in small group activities, to provide helpful feedback on the written work of others - all of these involve reflection and self-awareness about the processes and products of learning

When teachers make 'learning to learn' a priority, students often take a more active role than many may have thought possible. As Glaser (1987) has pointed out, studies show that children are "ingenious in controlling their own learning

> Faced with problems to solve when they are interested in the outcome and understand the goal, learners actively explore their environments, test beliefs and theories of their actions, and modify their approaches. The gradual refinement and tuning of these skills and learning strategies should be a major outcome of the school experience. Schools should give close attention to developing "expert novices" who, although they may not possess sufficient background knowledge in a new field, know how to go about gaining that knowledge (p 5)

While many children doubt their own ability to learn, demonstrate inadequate strategies and avoid tasks that are too difficult or demanding, others treat obstacles as challenges, constantly finding new methods of self-instruction. Glaser argues that being a good learner goes beyond acquiring routine or task specific expertise. Good learners apply and adapt processes which make them more capable of acquiring new skills and knowledge. As they become more independent, they can learn to share control of learning with teachers and other students.

Classroom Activities K-12

The classroom activities described in the first four critical experiences already include many ways teachers can help students become more reflective and strategic. Here we elaborate briefly on seven fundamental activities of learning applicable throughout the grades and across the curriculum; these strategies are best acquired, as we have said before, through engagement with meaningful content. The first three - questioning, note-making, and doubting and believing - apply equally to activities of reading, writing and talking. Each of the next three focuses primarily on one language process: developing a reader's repertoire, inventing/revising texts, and talking to learn from/with others. The seventh, "studying" - doing homework and preparing for tests and examinations - requires a synthesis of all the others.

(1) Questioning

When children come to school, they come curious, as active processors of knowledge, naturally motivated to learn and ask good questions. Research comparing children' questions in and out of school, however, suggest that curiosity questioning, e.g. Where does gravity come from? is often overtaken by procedural questioning , e.g. how many pages do I have to read? (Lindfors, 1987). The preponderance of teacher questions, particularly those requesting specific, right answers, or questions that check comprehension, may leave little time and space for learners to become expert questioners, to learn how to investigate subjects of interest, to read to answer their own questions, and to interrogate their own writing in order to improve it. Beyond providing a safe climate where students feel free to say "I don't know," teachers at all grade levels can (l) provide regular opportunities for students to self-question and to ask questions of their peers and teachers (2) teach consciousness of questions types and functions and (3) design special activities which emphasize questioning.

Opportunities for student self-questioning and question generating occur daily in the regular routines of reading, writing and talking in the classroom. Before, During and After reading students can jot questions about titles and/or subtitles, first paragraphs or key terms/ideas from texts, or statements of opinion about the topic being studied. During reading, students can gloss texts with marginal questions. They can be encouraged to interrogate themselves during reading with questions like those cited in Critical Experience 1:

> What stands out for me?
> How do I feel about this?
> Does this make sense?
> What does this text make me think of?
> How does this fit with what I already know?
> What might be added here? omitted? changed?
> Where can I apply these ideas?
> What do I agree/disagree with?
> What's not clear here?

Self-questioning during reading helps students monitor their understanding, analyze how the text works, elaborate on the text through seeing connections within the text and with prior knowledge, solve problems in understanding, and make judgements about the text's content and style (Lytle, 1982; 1985). Self-questioning may be taught through specific strategies such as think-alouds (see below), but regularly focusing students' attention on their own and others questions Before and After reading makes active processing During reading most likely. After reading, teachers collect students' questions and then invite them to categorize and prioritize the questions as the first part of a large or small group discussion of the topic. Students can become the question generators, e.g. when small groups brainstorm topics for writing or take responsibility for constructing questions for discussion of a poem or story. Any film, field trip, scientific experiment, or math problem provides the context for students to initiate questioning.

At different grade levels and in different content areas, teachers may try to raise students' **conscious awareness of the nature and functions of questions.** Although often this distinction depends on the context, pointing out and brainstorming convergent (known answer) and divergent (many possible answers) questions about a single topic (a familiar object, a character from a story, a science concept) is effective. Although convergent questions may seem to have 'right answers," they are frequently not obvious and often very thought-provoking. Using the journalistic questions of who, when, where, how and why is also appropriate. Structuring situations so that students generate, inductively, the sorts of questions contained in the well-known taxonomies (e.g. Bloom, Sanders) may also be valuable. To link question type with context and purpose, students can collect and categorize questions from the media, from written or oral interviews, or even from phone or mealtime conversations among peers or family members. Awareness of the functions of questions builds sociolinguistic competence, as noted in Critical Experience 4. We also know that the different disciplines define themselves in terms of the questions they pose about experience, so students need to learn the generic kinds of questions that literary critics, linguists, historians, scientists, mathematicians, anthropologists, psychologists and others ask about the world. All of these ways help students learn appropriate ways to ask questions in different contexts and for different purposes.

Many **specially designed activities** heighten students' awareness of and opportunities for raising questions. Close observation of any phenomena can be coupled with oral or written questions. An unusual artifact or implement from an unfamiliar culture makes the questioning process particularly self-conscious. Learning logs which require students to write an important question that was answered or left unanswered can be used at the end of an activity or period. Think-aloud tasks in which the teacher and/or students talk about while reading or doing a problem-solving task make public what ordinarily goes on in private. Making up questionnaires, interviewing and being interviewed all focus on good questions and introduce elements about clarity, number and order. Beginning a thematic or topical unit with students' questions, leading perhaps to individual projects which turn students' interests into expertise, serves a similar function. In the middle grades and beyond, making up tests, quizzes and examinations teaches questioning and test-wiseness simultaneously, and helps sensitize students to important distinctions in the language of test questions.

When students answer essay or short answer questions, they often do not fully understand what the question calls for. Having the chance to write questions and revise each others' questions gives them 'insider knowledge' about how questions are framed and about how to avoid ambiguity in formulating questions (and in answering them). Students can also review material in preparation for quizzes and tests using questioning games such as 20 Questions : I'm thinking of a (character from a novel) (historical figure or event) chemical element) etc.

(2) Note-making

Even young children can "make" their own notes - putting down on paper some words that describe what they have seen, heard or read. Note-making (instead of note-taking) puts the emphasis on the learner's active selection of what and how to write, and is significantly different from copying notes from the board or some other pr -selected source. Making notes may mean "reading with a pencil in your hand" - a process that children should be introduced to (but not with the school's textbooks!) in the early grades. Learning to annotate texts - to develop a set of symbols for marking important ideas, a habit of raising questions, and the ability to underline selectively - is fundamental to school learning. Along with the ability to mark a text comes strategies for paraphrasing and summarizing material read or heard.

Notes may take many forms, and students can be introduced to different techniques appropriate to different situations and content areas. Notes from listening need not be taken in outline form with Roman numerals and letters which often confuse the writer when the notes are first being taken. Simply indenting when ideas sound subordinate, knowing that one can always return to revise notes, is usually sufficient. The Cornell Method for taking notes (see Pauk, 1984) can be modelled by teachers of young children but used independently and with many variations by students throughout the middle and secondary grades, once students catch on to the system. Known as note-making with a divided page, the Cornell method involves using the righthand 2/3 for notes, indented to show relationships, and the left 1/3 for making notes on the material on the right - identifying key words, raising questions, elaborating important points.

Another approach to note-making is mapping, by which we mean any construction of a set of ideas or concepts in other than linear prose form. This includes graphs, pictures, charts, flowcharts, diagrams, sketches, structured outlines, webbing, story structure maps etc. Maps may be used before, during or after reading, observing or listening to something. They may also be used to explore ideas and their interrelationships in preparation for writing or as a way to get to give feedback on an already completed rough draft. They are especially useful as a strategy for preparing for tests, examinations and presentations. Maps may be made from brainstormed and categorized lists or from already structured materials such as texts. In the first instance, students make an unstructured set of ideas into a structured map. In the second case, they create a new structure from a text that is already organized. In both cases, mapping helps students learn to figure out relationships. As an aid to comprehension and retention, mapping is an excellent way to discover what one does and does not understand and to detect gaps in logic or insufficient information in one's own writing.

There are many occasions for making notes in the classroom. Students can make notes on their observations (e.g. weather, science experiments, filmstrips), on listening to another student or a teacher present material or lecture to the class, on reading of all kinds, and on interviews, fieldtrips, and other special activities. Notes can be used to prepare an enactment of a text, to participate in a discussion, debate or small group presentation.

(3) Doubting and Believing

Taken from the work of Elbow (1973, 1981), the notion that people can examine ideas from two very different stances - as believers or as doubters- has many applications across the grades and curriculum. When students play the game of "believing" they try to think of everything in their experience (facts, examples, evidence) which supports an idea or proposition, and when they act as doubters they do the opposite - think of non-examples, counter-examples, conflicting or contradicting evidence, whatever they can dream up which throws doubt on the idea under consideration. This "game" can be played by selecting a debatable point or quotation from a text before reading it, by offering students a clearly biased interpretation of some event or phenomena, or by spontaneously using a student's "theory' which is offered as part of a discussion. Even first graders can take an idea and think of reasons to doubt or believe it, while secondary students find this structure helpful in discussing, writing, and preparing for tests. Students of all ages benefit from searching for evidence to support ideas that are contrary to their beliefs (Baron, 1985).

(4) Developing a Reader's Repertoire

As explained in Critical Experience 1, students need to acquire a useful set of reading strategies for different texts, tasks and contexts. Reading a science textbook chapter ought not to be approached as one would a short story, but far too many students don't make these distinctions and read everything pretty much the same way. Skillful readers select strategies according to particular purposes. Based on their purposes, they make three rather straightforward decisions: the sequence for reading, the way to chunk (divide) the text, and the speed with which to read. The following chart explains these decisions:

READING AS DECISION-MAKING

DECISION	QUESTIONS TO ASK SELF	RELEVANT CONSTRAINTS
Purpose/Style	Why am I reading this? What will I do with what I learn?	Own needs and interests Task defined by teacher/other
Sequence	Should I preview the whole first? start at the beginning?	Type of text
Chunking	What are the parts of this text? Should I only read one part at a time?	Structure of text Density, unfamiliarity of material
Speed	How fast or slow should I read? Steady or varied rate?	Time available Relative importance of parts

When students read for pleasure or to get just the gist of a text, they obviously need a different set of strategies than when they are reading to learn or remember, over time, the central ideas, text structure, significant details etc. Rereading texts takes a special set of processes as well. Decisions about how to read a chapter or book are made, whether or not the reader is conscious of making choices.

To become more thoughtful about the options, students first need to talk about what they are. In addition, they need ways to cope with difficulties they encounter in the process of reading - strategies for connecting the text to prior knowledge, using mental imagery, making hypotheses and searching for evidence - all aspects of reflective thinking. Some students who find reading difficult just give up and wait for other students or the teacher to cover the material. Students have implicit theories about what reading (and writing) is all about, what Cazden (1982) calls their "mental furniture." These contexts in the mind can empower or limit. When the teacher is making assignments, brief but pointed discussion of possibilities can inform students of available strategies and encourage them to try them out.

(5) Developing a Writer's Repertoire: Inventing and Revising Texts

As indicated in Critical Experience 2, strategies for inventing and revising text may be more similar than different. Writing itself can get the flow of ideas started: brainstorming, freewriting, searching through one's own notebook or writer's journal, selecting and comparing quotes from stories or novels or non-fiction texts, observing or interviewing, writing multiple leads (Murray, 1985; Calkins, 1986), conducting a dialogue with an imaginary audience, or using "heuristics" - discovery procedures that vary from "try this first" to sets of questions to help the writer interrogate the subject to 'doubting and believing' to simply making comparisons.

Many of these ways of getting started/planning are also useful when re-visiting a draft Atwell (1987) suggests that writers learn to have conferences with themselves, beginning by reading the piece over several times and then asking a set of questions which help them figure out what they are trying to say. Atwell's list includes questions about information (e.g. Do I have enough/too much information?), about leads (e.g. Where does the piece really begin?), about conclusions (e.g. What do I want my reader to know at the end of the piece?), about titles and about style (e.g. Have I said something more than once? cluttered my piece with unnecessary adjectives? grouped together ideas related to each other?).

Conferencing with a peer or teacher after having had conferences with themselves prepares writers to identify problems or points of dissonance. If students bring to conferences their own ideas about what works and doesn't in their pieces, they can take more control over their own writing processes, learn to use the teacher (or other students) as resources, and build general strategies for shaping their writing over time.

(6) Talking to Learn From/With Others

Exploratory talk is extremely important for clarifying ideas and linking the new to the known. Yet much of classroom discourse is of the teacher question - pupil answer - teacher reaction cycle, a pattern which is also repeated in the routines of written work. Changing the dynamics of class discussion by increasing teacher wait-time, using more diverse and divergent questions, interrupting a whole group discussion so that pairs can confer about an idea or problem - all of these and other strategies by the teacher can stimulate discussion and promote active learning.

In order for students to get the most from participating in collaborative learning groups, however, they need "talking strategies" - ways to ask and respond to questions, to listen actively to others, to assume various roles in small groups, to collaborate in problem solving or decision making etc. Talking makes implicit thinking processes explicit (Johnson, 1984). Learning to observe and evaluate their own group behavior is also important. Assuming a combination of grouping arrangements that are sometimes heterogeneous and other times homogeneous, depending on the task, opportunities to develop these strategies affect students' abilities to learn and function well with their peers. As Cohen (1986) points out, it is a great mistake to assume that children know how to work with each other in a constructive fashion.

For different kinds of groupwork, different patterns of working together are necessary. In designing tasks for groups, Cohen suggests that the tasks have more than one answer or solution path, intrinsic interest and challenge. Tasks don't work well if they have a single right answer, can be done more efficiently by a single person than a group, are too low level, or involve simple memorization or routine learning. Simulation tasks which give everyone a part to play, study groups which meet over time to investigate a shared topic, and writers' workshop groups which meet regularly to read their writing aloud and give each other feedback are all effective.

The "talking strategies" needed by students in a particular class reflect the type of opportunities for learning provided. Contrasting it with a single-ability classroom, Cohen (1986) describes a multi-ability classroom as a place where there are "multiple means of achieving success for students and multiple methods of evaluation." The organization of student work and evaluation in such a classroom are designed explicitly to increase the active learning of low status students, those most in need of support for being good learners. Characteristics of such a classroom include: many legitimate methods of solving problems, many different kinds of tasks, and legitimation of students asking each other for help in reading and understanding written materials. In single ability classes with round robin reading groups, daily ability grouping for reading, and a heavy dependence on paper-pencil skills, Cohen's research suggests that students' perceptions of each others' ability is established early in the school year and tends to remain fixed. In multi-ability classrooms, individual styles of learning and responding are part of the content of the classes work. Multiple solutions to problems are explored. Carefully planned groups which vary in size, task and makeup occur frequently. Temporary groups meet for instruction to meet specific needs. All of these structured approaches increase the potential for low-achieving students to experience success, as do the structured group learning programs designed to teach collaboration (cf. Slavin,1983; Johnson and Johnson, 1975).

(7) Studying

Its purpose the deliberate consolidation of material, studying refers to the strategic use of reading, writing and talking to learn while doing homework and to remember what is learned in anticipation of a quiz, test or examination. All of the suggestions above apply to successful studying. In addition, students from middle grades and up need information about memory - short term, long term, and the concept of deep processing - so they can use time efficiently and master concepts which they retain over time. Many students who sit and stare at their notes or textbooks, for example, do not realize that using as many of the senses as possible greatly enhances learning and retention. What is most important is that students understand that seeing relationships is essential for learning; remembering quantities of isolated bits is virtually impossible.

More talk about how students do their homework - effective short-cuts, unusual questions or discoveries, ways to deal with obstacles - can help to demystify learning and let students in on the diversity of ways to accomplish school tasks. In addition, students need information about preparing for tests and examinations, including simple suggestions such as the following (adapted from Kahn 1982):

1. Preview all notes and materials and make a 1 page outline or map of what is to be learned.
2. Divide the whole into manageable and meaningful chunks.
3. Study topic by topic, reciting after each part (i.e take eyes off page and repeat major ideas and supporting details)
4. When necessary, chunk details into groups of 5-7 items and learn chunk by chunk.
5. When appropriate, make graphic aids or maps.
6 Avoid artificial mnemonic devices.
7. Build lists of important concepts and ideas.
8. Make up essay questions.
9. Pretend to teach the material to someone else.
10. When studying, keep your eyes off the page at least half the time.

What is important here is not the list per se, but the conversation among students about the strategies themselves - before and after studying for tests and exams. Ideally students would work together to create and revise such a list over time. The seven approaches to 'learning to learn' presented in this section are a few examples of ways students have found to improve their learning.

Suggestions Specific to Grade Level/Content Area

K-4

In the primary grades there are many "teachable moments" for helping students to get started as good learners in school. Keeping "studying" and homework assignments to a minimum (and emphasizing self-selected reading and writing), teachers can adapt all of the other suggestions in the previous section to the ongoing work of young children. Curiosity questioning will occur naturally in the classroom if there are stories, plants, animals, and other observables around every day. Keeping track of these questions on chart paper as they occur naturally to children is a good way of tracking and publicizing what children are curious about. At specific times like the beginning of thematic units time spent on questioning, doubting and believing, and jotting is most appropriate. In addition, everyday conversation about what makes learning hard and what makes it easy, about ways to learn from and with others, and about choices - shall I do it this way or that? - all heighten childrens' awareness of process and of the many decisions they need to make as learners. Young children also respond well to metaphors for reading and thinking processes (e.g. planning your reading trip) such as those developed by Paris, Cross and Lipson (1984).

Middle Grade Self-Contained Classrooms

In many ways, the middle years are an optimal time to teach "learning to learn." Schools typically introduce a variety of tasks which demand longer term planning and more complex approaches. By selecting questioning, doubting and believing and note-making approaches which fit with thematic units, for example, teachers can embed attention to strategies in purposeful learning. Ways to summarize can be taught directly but for a purpose such as reviewing materials for other classes, making announcements, writing newspaper articles etc. Brown, Campione and Day (1984) suggest four steps - which some students can probably derive inductively: (l) Delete trivial material, (2) Delete material that is important but redundant, (3) Substitute a superordinate term for a list of items or actions (e.g. pets for gerbils, dogs, cats; etc), (4) Select a topic sentence for each paragraph, and if there isn't one, invent one. As with other lists of suggestions, students should be encouraged to invent and revise them, looking for exceptions to the rules.

Special reading conferences in which teachers and students think aloud about texts may be particularly useful in the middle grades. In a format called Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar and Brown, 1986), the teacher works with a small group of four to seven students. Beginning with a discussion of why comprehending reading material is sometimes difficult, the teacher explains four metacognitive activities: self-questioning while looking for main ideas, summarizing, making predictions or hypotheses about what will happen next in the text, and clarifying and critically examining the text. The teacher then leads a discussion of the passage using these four activities and asking a question about each paragraph. Students take turns being the teacher and proceed paragraph by paragraph. Procedures which invite students to think aloud and which slow down the reading process can also be done in writing by printing stories and other texts down the middle of the page with room on either side for students to put a kind of written "think-aloud." Reading and jotting can be done independently or in pairs. Students learn from pointing to confusing or misleading statements, to places where the ideas come together for the reader, and to various other 'mental events' which occur in the process of reading. In all of these situations, developing readers are encouraged to pay close attention to when they do and do not understand. At a time when the psycho-social tasks of adolescence consume considerable energy , discussions about "how they think" interest many middle grade students and make them receptive to acquiring that "meta" component which can lead to more control over their own learning.

Middle and Secondary Content Areas

Each content area has particular learning tasks which students need to accomplish. Questioning in science, for example, involves coming to know and use a set of inquiry procedures for observing, classifying, analyzing and generalizing data. Questioning in history entails knowing what kinds of questions it is appropriate to ask about historical events and people, while responding to literary texts has its own language and methods of inquiry. Making some of this explicit for middle and secondary students helps them 'learn across the curriculum.' Note-making needs to be similarly customized. One good example comes from a Math teacher (J. Countryman)[10] who uses writing in a wide variety of ways to help students learn mathematics. On tests, Countryman's students write out their thinking about the concepts and operations required in a particular problem on one side of a paper, then turn it over and solve it. Both parts count in the evaluation.

By analyzing the demands of each classroom from the perspective of "what it takes to learn this subject," content area teachers can address students' needs in these areas through integrating learning to learn skills into their ongoing curriculum. This does not make the teacher of social studies or mathematics a teacher of reading and writing, but rather assumes that students need to be helped to write-to-learn and read-to-learn the subject matter.

One example of a structured way to teach the content of a subject and the processes of learning at the same time is the Guided Lecture Procedure (adapted from Kelly and Holmes, 1979). Appropriate for anything from a five to twenty minute lecture (or filmstrip, presentation etc), the procedure is designed to teach students how to take notes from listening at the same time that they are being taught content. It includes the following steps:

(I) Put an outline or mapping or structured overview on the board to give the students a birds' eye view of the structure of the whole lecture.

(2) Tell the students to make notes using any format they feel comfortable with or specify a format such as the Cornell method which would have been explained previously. Sometimes this step can include some non-notemakers (students who are not allowed to take notes and who later can discuss what and how much they remember just from listening).

(3) Lecture from 5-20 minutes about whatever the class is currently studying.

(4) Provide about five minutes of silent writing time for students to look over, mark up and revise their notes. If they used the Cornell method, they can use this time to write key words or questions on the left side. If they were in the non-notemaking group, they use this time to make notes on what stood out for them from the lecture.

(5) Provide at least ten minutes for students to meet in pairs, triads or groups of 4-5 to compare and discuss their notes. Students typically use this opportunity to fill in things they missed and to ask each other basic questions about the material which they didn't understand. Sometimes they engage in a lively discussion of the topic, depending on the lecture.

(6) The next step is a whole class discussion focused first on the content of the lecture and then on the process of making notes. When discussing the content, teachers find that having gotten their factual questions answered, students are more likely to raise higher order questions. When discussing the processes students should be encouraged to analyze what makes note-making harder and easier and to share strategies.

(7) Optional followups include mapping their notes into a graphic format (often interesting for them to compare their maps made from similar notes) or perhaps some assessment of what they learned from the lecture.

Using activities like the guided lecture procedure, content area teachers can provide a context for students to learn facts and concepts while they pay more than usual attention to processes. Such a procedure could be done once a month over the course of a year and would provide continued practice. Evidence is strong that social interaction in the classroom is important for teaching students metacognitive skills (Rosenshine and Stevens 1984). By combining individual and group work, reading, writing and talking, these kinds of activities enhance both independent and interdependent learning in the classroom.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Chapter Four
Constructing Curriculum

Integration of language and learning is the central theme of PCRP II. There is broad support for such integration. In 1981, twenty-seven major national professional organizations of educators made common cause on this issue -- organizations that included the International Reading Association, The National Council of Teachers of English, The National Council for Social Studies, The National Association of Elementary School Principals, The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the National Education Association.

Their position was that "back to the basics" and "minimal competency education," so characteristic of the 1970's, were simplistic solutions to our society's problems. They advised educa[illegible] "resist pressures to concentrate solely upon easy-to-teach, easy-to-test bits of know[illegible]." Instead they proposed the theme of integration or, as they called it, "interdependence," as the model for curriculum development -- interdependence across content areas and interdependence of content and skills:

> The interdependence of skills and content is the central concept of the essentials of education. Skills and abilities do not grow in isolation from content... Students master these skills and abilities through observing, listening, reading, talking, and writing about science, mathematics, history and the social sciences, the arts and other aspects of our intellectual, social, and cultural heritage.

PCRP II provides a resource for educators who want to build such integrative curricula. It was developed to be used by any teacher, of any subject, at any grade level, or by a group of teachers or a group of school leaders and teachers to reflect upon, design or redesign their curricula and instructional practices.

Structurally PCRP II itself is an integrative model. While it presents five critical experiences, in fact each of them proposes many ways that learning takes place through reading, writing, and talking about subject matter. The first two critical experiences -- "Reading: Transacting with Text" and "Writing: Composing Texts" may be thought of as the core of PCRP II.

Designed to expand and deepen the first two, the next three - "Extending Reading and Writing,""Investigating Language" and "Learning to Learn" - describe experiences to be interwoven with the reading and writing activities described earlier. Talking and listening are embedded throughout the PCRP II framework

How can PCRP II be used to construct curriculum? We propose in this chapter several ways educators might go about the process of reflecting upon, forming and reforming their curriculum. First we describe the notion of reflection on practice - a process by which teachers and administrators would use the framework to discuss their current goals and practices. Then we provide a series of exemplars of what might emerge from such reflections: plans for innovating with textbooks already in use, for moving toward a literature-based reading program in the elementary grades, for designing thematic units for self-contained classrooms (primary and middle), for restructuring the middle or junior high reading course, for revising a secondary English curriculum, and for examining how language is used to learn in science, social studies, mathematics etc. These examples suggest just a few of the ways the framework may inform curriculum development and instructional practice. Others will undoubtedly emerge from the specific interests and needs of different schools and districts.

I. Reflection on Practice

School leaders and teachers may want to use PCRP II as a way of describing or analyzing their current curriculum and instructional practices. Without setting any specific course for change, the activity of systematic critical and collaborative inquiry into what is going on in classrooms can be an extremely valuable process. Teachers and administrators compare and contrast their own theories and practices of teaching with PCRP II formulations and proposals. In a series of one hour sessions (perhaps 8-10), a small group can identify (I) which areas might be improved in their present curriculum, (2) what suggestions are relevant to them, (3) what obstacles exist to adopting recommendations and ways to overcome these obstacles, and (4) what support systems are available to help them incorporate these practices in their classrooms. While this reflective process does not commit the faculty to make changes, the staff may conclude the study of their curriculum with a set of recommendations for the administration and other faculty for their consideration

A more formal and more committal arrangement to reflect on practice can be made by connecting with a local university to offer an on-site seminar course to interested faculty and school leaders (a PCRP II Seminar as described in Chapter Six). The university instructor would serve as a collaborative consultant or facilitator to guide the participants' study of PCRP II and related readings. Participants in the seminar, through their own reading, writing, and talking about the readings and about their experiments with the critical experiences in their classrooms, would examine and try out new approaches in their own classrooms. The final project for these seminars might be to develop collaborative thematic units or a group project focusing on the redesign of aspects of their curriculum.

II. Some Exemplars for Using PCRP II to Redesign the Curriculum

INNOVATING WITH DISTRICT ADOPTED TEXTS

An obvious beginning implementation for the critical experiences would be for teachers working alone or with colleagues to prepare instructional guides for teaching any textbook. This would involve planning a wide range of Before, During and After (BDA) activities as presented in Critical Experiences 1 and 2. Such a guide pools teachers' best ideas for promoting active learning by reading, writing and talking about content. Elementary or middle school teachers using basal readers might decide to revise their use of basals by treating them as literature anthologies. As we know, the 'basal reader' is a special case of a district adopted textbook. It is typically surrounded by a guidebook, workbooks, and end of unit and end of book tests Most teachers have come to regard the basal reader as 'the' reading program believing that its function is to teach the subskills of comprehension, word attack, and study skills. Furthermore, the class is divided up into high, middle and low groups with each group given the teacher's time for about a third of the 'reading' period. When the basal reader is regarded instead as a literature anthology, the guidebook and workbook can be discarded or cut back dramatically.

Grade level teachers would then use the basal reader text at grade level for all children Whole group lessons using the Before, During and After activities would be followed by children working in heterogeneous pairs, triads or small groups to do more writing, reading and talking. Grade level teachers could meet together to develop teaching guides as described above.

Specific attention could be given to finding opportunities in particular stories and units to teach about language and about learning to learn.

When the basal reader is used as a literature anthology, the teacher frequently reads the selection aloud to the children after the "Before reading" activities. Other times children read silently or in heterogeneous pairs or small groups, or if the teacher reads the story aloud, they may reread it independently. In reading aloud the teacher provides an oral interpretation of the literature selection and children get to hear the story or poem as a whole in one session, rather than in disconnected segments. Finally, because they have heard the selection, all children including those who are usually in the low group can be fully involved in the activities.

In addition to using basal readers as a whole class literature anthology, teachers may want or need to use the basal reader in a self pacing, self monitoring process. We call this activity Individualized Progress. It enables children, beginning at a level of the basal where they are comfortable (good comprehension and oral fluency) to advance through the basal reader at their own pace alone or in compatible pairs or triads. Individualized Progress should be limited to not more than 30 minutes three to five days per week. If this procedure is instituted at an early age, and children are shown how to plan their time and work together, the management of such a scheme should not cause any more difficulty than any other small group process used regularly in the classroom.

The steps of **Individualized Progress** are:

1. The teacher determines children's placement in the basal by some sort of general impression test like a group IRI or maze test. Children should start at a level in the basal series where they are fluent, have good comprehension and are comfortable, but from that point on the procedure itself provides the data that teachers and specialists need to keep track of this aspect of student progress.
2. Children work alone or in self-selected pairs or triads or small groups to move through the basal reader anthologies of literature at their own pace. If necessary children may first listen to a story read aloud by the teacher, a tape, or an able student.

3. Children read all of the stories in each unit. They retell the stories to a partner or partners at the completion of each selection. They may also write in their journals, illustrate, or enact responses to what they are reading.
4. At the completion of each unit, the children make arrangements with the teacher to demonstrate their comprehension and fluency with the materials practiced. They do so by retelling a story in the unit, reading a chosen segment from it to the teacher who also checks their portfolios to examine journals and drawings in response to the selections, listens for fluency and interacts with the child about the selection to further assess comprehension. The teacher asks questions that encourage children to elaborate on their initial responses.
5. A limit may be set for advancement through the basals at one grade level beyond grade placement. Children who master that level may be given an 'honors' award but from that point on work on using their skills to do other academic tasks.

Teachers may want to encourage students who advance beyond the grade level basal to switch to another series for Individualized Progress, thereby making it possible for the next year's teacher to continue in the main series.

PLANNING A LITERATURE BASED PROGRAM IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Instead of or in addition to using basal readers, multiple copies of paperback books can be used as texts. Teachers, working collaboratively, can develop lesson plans for teaching these books by following such procedures as

(1) choosing books that represent the major genres of literatu ncluding folktales, realistic stories, poems, biographies, and informational books

(2) preparing before, during, and after reading activities that integrate reading/writing/talking, and vocabulary/phonics/spelling

(3) in some instances, planning to read the book aloud to the class to dramatize the author's style and to make it possible for all children to experience success and full participation in reading, writing and talking about the book

(4) designing activities that can be used successfully by pairs, triads, and small groups working collaboratively. Various groups, sometimes heterogeneous and sometimes homogeneous, can be used at different times, with frequent regroupings.

(5) collecting other books by the same author, or that belong to the same genre, or that have a common theme for self selected, independent reading periods; developing homework assignments that relate to self selected books in which children choose to read silently read aloud to another, or listen while another reads to them.

Although many basal reading programs now incorporate the short stories of excellent childrens' authors, they do not provide book length selections in which literary themes can be fully developed. In the primary grades, even good literature which appears in basals has been rewritten to satisfy readability and often shortened. A teacher using fine childrens' literature does not have to wait for the five year adoption cycle to integrate what is new into the reading program.

DESIGNING INTERDISCIPLINARY THEMATIC UNITS

Thematic units emphasize significant concepts that come from the subject matter of several disciplines. They can be used to unify the curriculum in self-contained elementary and middle grade classrooms. Instead of having a period of time devoted to each subject, one overarching concept integrates the pieces into more meaningful wholes. A unit may be as short as a week or as long as a year. Planning to teach thematic units involves the articulation of a variety of texts -- printed, oral, and visual. Often the teacher selects some core texts, connects these selections with related chapters available in district adopted texts, and also locates supplementary materials which give students opportunities to follow particular interests. Students explore the theme by reading, writing, talking, drawing, enacting, and constructing displays.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Thematic teaching in the elementary grades usually draws on at least two or three different subject areas, including literature, history, art and science, and often includes cross-cultural perspectives. Some topics which invite this type of integrated teaching include:

- Generations
- Sealife
- Famous People
- Creation
- Ancient Greece
- Chinese Art and Literature
- African Folk Tales
- Myth
- Islands
- Food
- Metamorphosis
- Houses and Weather
- Neighborhoods
- Oceans
- Castles
- Insects
- Songs and Games
- Where the Wild Things Are
- Hawks
- The Salt Marsh
- Kaleidescopes and Quilts
- Proverbs
- Native Americans
- Habitat
- Gnomes
- Community
- The Middle Ages
- The Presidents
- Immigrants
- Families
- The Pond

This list suggests a range of possibilities which can be used to stimulate many different reading, writing and talking experiences.[17]

An example of an interdisciplinary thematic unit (developed by S. Reese and S. Scott[18], two fifth grade teachers, working with another 5th grade teacher and the librarian) incorporated the five critical experiences into a unit dealing with colonial America. The central texts were two historical novels -- The Sign of the Beaver and The Light in the Forest and the district adopted textbooks in social studies, specifically the chapters on "Living Communities" in social studies and the chapter called "Animals with a Backbone" in science. Organizationally, these two teachers divided their classes into five small heterogeneous discussion groups. All students were directed to share leadership roles. Task sheets were prepared to guide student discussions. For example, in social studies they introduced the history and geography of the New England states while they were reading The Sign of the Beaver. Students in the discussion groups were encouraged to generate thought-provoking questions. These questions gave them purposes for reading the required textbooks. Students were given time to share their strategies for comprehending their texts. They made extensive use of variety of journals -- discovery journals to record personal responses to class activities, journals to reflect upon their own learning strategies, and journals for originals self selected writing. In math students were asked to write, solve, and present word problems related to the thematic unit. Evaluation was based on daily observation of their work in groups, their journals, their final project, a final essay, and a vocabulary test developed by the reading specialist using the 'cloze' procedure.

DESIGNING A MIDDLE/JUNIOR HIGH READING COURSE

Teachers of reading in the middle grades and junior high schools can use the framework to develop a course which combines a reading and writing workshop approach with attention to strategies for reading, writing and learning in the content areas. In the first case, teachers would concentrate on the first three critical experiences, focusing on large and small group Before, During and After activities using an array of fictional and non-fictional materials grouped into topical or thematic units. Meeting together, teachers can divide up newly acquired adolescent fiction to read and consider for incorporation into the program. Providing time in school to select books and write in journals would be emphasized. (See Atwell 1987 for extensive suggestions on setting up a reading and writing workshop class.)

To teach strategies for learning across the content areas, reading teachers can interview teachers from all of the disciplines represented in the school to find out what students are expected to read, write and study. Content area teachers can describe their texts, tests, and reading and writing assignments. From this information, the reading faculty can then select particular tasks to work through slowly and carefully with students in the reading class. This may mean taking a social studies chapter and spending a week - reading, writing notes, making up tests, and other special activities designed to promote learning to learn abilities. An advantage of this process for developing the curriculum is increased communication among teachers and perhaps some coordination of expectations and assignments. The content teachers can continue to be resource people to the reading program.

One junior high school reading faculty interviewed the science, social studies and math teachers to find out the range of materials they might incorporate into reading classes. They also chose four of the seven activities described in Critical Experience 5--note-making, questioning, developing a reading repertoire and studying--and adapted each to make it applicable to the different content areas. Their reading program is designed to be approximately 50% Reading/Writing Workshop (Atwell, 1987) and 50% strategies for learning in the content areas, although in practice there is considerable overlap.[19]

REVISING THE SECONDARY ENGLISH CURRICULUM

Using the five critical experiences as the overarching structure, English department members can design/redesign the English curriculum around a core of texts which all students, regardless of ability level, read and experience. In one Pennsylvania District (Marple-Newtown), core readings comprise approximately one-third of each semester's literary study and provide all students with a common basis for dialogue and acquiring higher order thinking abilities. To differentiate the curriculum for different ability levels and learning styles of individual classes, teachers select from a wealth of supplementary readings and approaches. Each semester, grades 7-12, is designed with a particular focus: a theme (e.g. seventh grade first semester "Who am I?" or 12th grade second semester "Quest"), a literary genre (grade 9), a literary penod (grade II American literature), or a mixed theme/genre focus (Challenge of the Unknown: Mythology, Fantasy, Legend etc in grade 8). Writing assignments are connected to the theme. By writing over and over again about related topics, students build on prior learnings throughout the semester. Both independent and summer reading are linked to the planned courses.

Teachers integrate language instruction with writing. At each grade level, a few grammatical concepts (selected by the teachers as most needed at that age) are emphasized. The fifth critical experience, learning to learn, evolves from the reading and writing done each semester, so that, for example, specific note-making strategies are introduced in grade 10 when oral presentations are given. After the overall plan for each semester has been decided, the major effort at curriculum revision can be devoted to collaborative planning and writing up activities in reading/writing/thinking/listening and speaking for use with core texts. The product is a working edition, contained in a looseleaf notebook to which teachers add activities for each grade level as they develop them.

The process of curriculum development thus works from whole to parts and back to the whole again. Periodic summer workshops provide teachers opportunities to revise and enrich specific aspects of the curriculum. During the school year, grade level teachers can exchange assignments and materials. In this model, curriculum revision is seen as a continuous teaching/learning process.

EXPLORING LANGUAGE TO LEARN ACROSS THE CONTENT AREAS

Teachers of Science, Mathematics, Social Studies, Vocational Education, Art and Music, Home Economics, Foreign Languages, and Health and Physical Education can meet in departments to develop active learning strategies to surround textbook materials, as we indicated above. They can also (l) select the types of writing most applicable to their area and develop assignments, (2) identify learning to learn strategies appropriate for their content area materials and assignments, (3) describe the features of the language of their field or discipline, (4) locate supplementary reading materials which could be made available in classroom libraries, and (5) collaborate in the development of tests and examinations which encourage students to write in order to demonstrate learning.

III. Conclusion

The PCRP II framework may be used for critical reflection on current practice by administrators and teachers in a grade level, department, school, or cross district series of meetings. Such a process begins with participants' intentions to explore possibilities for change in current practice, but does not commit teachers to implementing any specific procedures. Instead, the direction found most appropriate for the context would be developed by teachers and administrators talking and reading together. Some districts may want to form a regular group for meeting over a year with a university facilitator (see Chapter Six: Implementing PCRP II Through Networking). At the district or department level, the framework can be used to describe, critique and revise the current curriculum in directions which reflect local needs and priorities. In all cases, PCRP II is not intended to be a prescription or a mandated program, but rather a structure for linking theory, research and the best practices of teachers. Because of its relevance to teachers across grades and across subjects, using the PCRP II framework has considerable potential to improve the quality of all students' learning and to strengthen district-wide programs in a variety of significant ways.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Chapter Five
DESIGNING CONGRUENT EVALUATION

When considering an integrative model of language across the curriculum, educators need to be prepared to complete the circle with a plan for evaluation congruent with the model, i.e. evaluation which reflects the learning model and the curriculum. In articulating a plan for evaluation we cannot look only to the production of better tests. George H. Hanford, then president of the College Board, proposed that to emerge from the constraining effects of testing we must move to a new stance: from a narrow focus on testing to a much broader focus on evaluation (Education Week, Oct. 8, 1986, 20).As with other sections of the PCRP II, this chapter sketches a framework for evaluation, but leaves the development of a specific plan to school faculties and district support staff.

Why Educators Must Reform Evaluation

We know that in the 'real world' the testing program often has the effect of dictating the learning model and the curriculum. For example, at the elementary level, the subtests of reading and writing reappear as subskills in textbooks and schemes for managing, monitoring and reporting student growth. In 1978 the International Reading Association board of directors warned that "reporting of subskills may lead to a fractionated, mechanistic approach to the teaching of reading." These 'specific' subskills are presented as if discrete, yet there is considerable evidence that skillfulness in any activity is not the mere sum of parts. Skill in language is better defined as what Bussis and Chittenden (1987) call "coordinated action," involving the "act of orchestrating an array of knowledge to achieve a desired goal."

Frameworks that are built on subskills have several inherent validity problems. The NCTE Commission on Composition addresses this issue by saying that:

> Members of the Commission on Composition think today's heavy emphasis on standardized testing distorts and undercuts writing instruction... All important elements of the composing process, such as developing focus for writing, creating an appropriate voice and style, and developing fluency, are not really testable by present methods, since current tests heavily emphasize surface correctness. (1986)

Using the pattern of the Commission's statement one can make a similar observation about reading:

> Today's emphasis on standardized and criterion-referenced testing distorts and undercuts reading instruction... All important elements of the comprehension process, such as drawing upon prior knowledge, questioning, predicting, summarizing, interpreting, evaluating, and monitoring one's own comprehension are not testable in present multiple choice formats which heavily emphasize surface meaning.

Current reading and writing assessments based upon these tests fail to provide information about students' comprehension and composing processes. They also fail to assess the wide range of reading and writing products that are part of becoming a proficient reader and writer (Johnston 1984).

Principles for Constructing Congruent Evaluation Procedures

Given the limitations of present tests and the need for greater congruence between the PCRP II curriculum framework and methods for evaluating students' progress, we propose six principles for designing comprehensive evaluation procedures.

1. **Evaluation should interrelate skills and content.**

Here we are drawing on the Essentials of Education for a fundamental concept: that skillfulness in language is acquired in the activity of learning something. That 'something' is the subject matter of English, social studies, science, mathematics and other content areas. In turn, learning in the disciplines depends on students using the processes of language (listening, reading, writing and speaking) in order to learn.

2. **Evaluation should put major emphasis on educator and especially teacher assessment of student learning through various forms of observation.**

Student's use of language is a complex, multi-faceted phenomena. Teachers and specialists see learners in a variety of activities during the whole day (for elementary classrooms) or repeatedly in classes throughout the week (for the middle and secondary grades). What we want to know about student learning (ie what we value) cannot be derived simply from the results of so called objective tests or other instruments which reduce all this complexity to correctness of paper and pencil response. Educators can observe, document and interpret a wide range of student performance to construct a much richer, and thus more accurate picture of students' learning.

3. Evaluation should focus on those dimensions of student behavior which relate to improving performance.

Neither marks nor reading levels inform instruction as much as do, for example, descriptions of students' free reading interests, quality of writing samples, or use of strategies in reading. Emphasis in assessment should be on information which can be translated into plans for instruction.

4. Evaluation should provide insights into the students' evolving personal structure of knowledge: what they know, how they come to know it, and what significance it has for their own lives as participants in the worlds of school, home and community.

Students bring many different perspectives to the school environment, differences that evolve from their diverse experiences. The school needs to be responsive to and respectful of the unique frame of reference of each learner, and evaluation in turn needs to be designed to bring out what is special as well as what learners have in common.

5. Evaluation should involve students in assessing their own work and the efforts of their peers.

An important part of becoming an independent learner is to reflect on one's own use of language. Furthermore, in a classroom where students are collaborating and thus teaching each other a good deal of what is being learned, peer evaluation is also an important component.

6. Evaluation strategies need to be differentiated in order to address the needs and purposes of various constituencies: students, teachers, parents, administrators, school board members, and taxpayers.

Students and teachers are primarily concerned with getting day by day information to promote student learning. This information comes from continuous observation of how and what students learn in every subject. Parents need to be able to see samples of their children's work and commentary from teachers as well as scores and grades.

Administrators, school board members, and taxpayers seem to want the test results of group performance. Inert statistics, however, can limit their vision if they are not enhanced by anecdotal accounts of how, how well, and what students are learning.

What to Evaluate

The major purpose of PCRP II is to provide teachers with strategies they can teach students to use in learning their subjects. These strategies are proposed in the five critical experiences. Teachers need to know how well students are learning to understand and use these strategies. What to evaluate, and procedures for assessment should be congruent with and derived from the critical experiences as presented in the following chart:

WHAT TO EVALUATE

	IN GENERAL	MORE SPECIFICALLY
CE 1	how students read what students read/can read what they learn from reading	students' use of strategies for approaching different tasks (which strategies; how appropriate)
		knowledge of goals and strategies for reading, what different tasks demand, and how texts work (genre, structure, features)
		knowledge gained from reading (facts, concepts, relationships)
		quality of oral and written responses to reading (ability to question, discuss, analyze etc)
CE 2	how students write (processes) what students write (products) what students learn from writing	repertoire of composing processes appropriate to different content and situations
		strategies for composing different types of texts (expressive, informational and poetic) for different audiences
		quality of written products
		uses of writing to learn content
CE 3	what students choose to read and write	choices of reading material (e.g. quantity, quality, variety of genre)
		self-initiated writing (e.g. quantity, functions)
		spontaneous talk about their reading and writing
CE 4	what students know about and how they use oral and written language	grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competence
CE 5	how reflective, strategic, and effective students are as learners	knowledge of processes of learning strategic use of processes attitudes toward learning; risk taking independence; interdependence questioning and responding to questions sense of self as reader/writer

Procedures for Evaluation

Having identified what to evaluate and in a general way what to observe we propose six generic procedures for evaluation that are congruent with the PCRP II framework: Classroom Observation and Periodic Documentation, Reading Portfolios, Writing Portfolios, Reading and Writing Conferences/ Interviews, Tests and Examinations, and Standardized Tests. Teachers and specialists at various levels, elementary through secondary, can adopt and adapt whichever procedures efficiently and realistically inform them about how and what their students are learning

1. Classroom Observation and Periodic Documentation

Teachers are continually evaluating students as they observe their classroom learning behavior and know that teaching and evaluating are reciprocal processes (Johnston, 1987). But there are ways of enhancing these observations. By keeping anecdotal records of students, or a journal of classroom events, teachers can remember and reflect on particular students' behaviors in the context of their interactions with their peers and with the expectations of the curriculum. Assessment of individual learners is never simply a matter of individual action, but rather the relationship between the learner's activities and the rest of what is going on in the learning environment.

Since PCRP II emphasizes deep processing of ideas through extensive reading, writing and speculative talking, more collaborating and more choice of books, topics, and ways of responding, there is much to observe, value, and evaluate. One simple way to keep track of students' activities during the day is to make notes on 3 X 5 cards when interacting with or observing children. These cards may be kept in a file box and used for parent conferences. Anecdotal notes and journals of classroom events are two other ways to document behavior. Anecdotal notes record what students choose, what they say, and what they write. These descriptive accounts might be recorded in a notebook on the left side of a page, with the right hand side reserved for commenting or interpreting. Such records include successful efforts at making meaning, as well as mistakes, errors or miscues, and should note the context (participants, activity, time, etc) in which the events occurred. A journal of classroom events is an account of what occurred, highlighting what seemed most significant or worth reviewing. Summarizing these notes and entries on a regular schedule helps teachers find patterns of significance. Tape

ERIC

recording or listening in on small group discussions provides still another means for documenting language events in the classroom.

These and other methods of documenting observations make it possible to analyze and reflect on the learning taking place. They also inform decisions about classroom management and curriculum, provide data for consultations with students and parents, and become the basis for reporting progress and problems. Extensive documentation might be limited to one or two students about whom the teacher is concerned. Such documentation of even one or two students makes the teacher a more probing observer of all students.

In the previous section What to Evaluate we set forth the larger rubric for developing more specific assessment procedures. More fine tuned observation would come from examining each of the critical experiences for more specific learning behaviors. For example, in Critical Experience 1 we would look for the student's strategies of drawing upon prior knowledge, self questioning, predicting, keeping notes, elaborating, and reflecting.

Reading and learning disability specialists can be very helpful to teachers by observing and documenting the behavior of a student, a group, or an entire class. If the observations are made in response to a problematic situation in the classroom, the teacher and specialist can collaborate in problem solving. The process begins with a preconference at which notes are taken. The specialist then visits the classroom to observe and document the problem identified by the teacher in the context of ongoing learning events involving the entire ecology of the classroom. This documentation of behavior might be reported on the left half of a sheet, the right half being reserved for interpretation. By reviewing this document together, the specialist and teacher can decide together on a course of action which should be written up with plans to review the situation from time to time.

2. Reading Portfolios

Reading portfolios can include samples of student writing from selected transactions with required literary and expository texts or from self selected books. More specifically they might include such pieces as

- dialectical journals and learning logs
- a critical review of a story
- notes on a textbook chapter
- a list of self selected books read independently with [illegible]ng about some

aspect of selected books

- a written reflection on a key concept in the text
- a paragraph on "What stood out for you?" in response to an editorial or feature article
- a write up of a science experiment
- an advertisement to sell a book the student liked
- a retelling of a story

Scoring of some of these selections might be done using a system developed by the faculty. For example, some of these tasks might be scored individually or the entire portfolio might be scored at three levels of proficiency:

1. pass: shows some reasonable comprehension
2. good: elaborates the central ideas with details, examples and arguments
3. outstanding: develops arguments persuasively, uses considerable variety in word and sentence choices, uses considerable elaboration

3. Writing Portfolios

Keeping a writing portfolio enables a teacher (and student) to collect and make periodic and cumulative evaluations of a variety of products Conferences with students and parents are more substantive when the student's portfolio of writing is available for review.

Writing samples in response to common assignments or specially-designed prompts have been used by elementary teachers (and by school systems) to assess writing ability. But there are many problems with the single sample. (1) it does not allow for the processes of writing, (2) the topic is prescribed and often limited to a single genre, (3) students' performance is likely to be influenced by their prior knowledge and interest in that specific topic, as well as by the quality of the prompt, and (4) it does not enable students to write for different audiences and purposes. One way to overcome some of these and other limitations of the single sample is to have students date and store all of their writing in a folder and then choose the pieces to be included in a portfolio.

Writing about a subject enables the learner to process information deeply when the writing calls for analysis, synthesis, interpretation, and evaluation Therefore analysis of a collection of this written work in every subject constitutes a solid basis for identifying instructional needs, for instructional decision making, for informing parents about their children's work, and for assigning final grades.

Students in every subject can keep dated written work in a portfolio. Collected in the portfolio would be academic journals, reports, essays, and compositions including notes and drafts of some of the writing pieces. From time to time these portfolios might be pruned and the best work of the student retained Grading of these portfolios can be periodic, with students selecting pieces they want to revise for a grade.

Selected samples from the portfolio could be scored using holistic, primary trait, analytic or some combination of these. A holistic score is a general impression score based on comparison (ranking) with anchor papers or a set of quality descriptors. Students can learn to score papers holistically as well. A primary trait score is based on stated qualities described for a specific writing sample (with particular audience and purpose) An analytic score is a profile of subscores based upon a number specific features of a composition (such as organization, coherence, spelling etc).

Rather than adopt a ready-made system of holistic or analytic scoring, teachers can generate their own system. For example, in Philadelphia recently, teachers in grade level groups from across the city came together to generate writing assignments which fit with their curriculum. Meeting again in these groups, they compared their experiences using the assignment and then evaluated their students' writing, using criteria they developed collaboratively. The same process could be used to evaluate portfolios.

The portfolio itself may be evaluated holistically and analytically using adaptations of the assessment of the single sample Educational Testing Service has been working with several school systems to develop a portfolio approach to assessment

A system for holistic scoring and analyzing portfolios can be devised by teachers using a process similar to that discussed in the previous section for single writing samples. In general, the procedure is for teachers to take a group of portfolios for a given subject and negotiate their ranking in four to six piles By studying each pile for its qualities, a set of criteria are available for the ranking of other portfolios Or a group of ranked anchor portfolios might serve as the basis for judging other portfolios.

Students can also evaluate their own writing folders One teacher (M Pincus)[3] asked her students to (1) put their work in order (2) read and take notes on their own writing She suggested that they notice changes or growth, any surprises, the piece that gave them the most trouble and the piece about which they are most proud Finally, they were asked to write down how they see themselves as writers. This self-evaluation can lead to teacher-student or student-student discussions, and further analysis and interpretation of how writers and writing develops.

4. Reading and Writing Conferences/Interviews

As often as possible teachers might have brief discussions about some of the books students have chosen for independent reading. These one-on-one conversations, held during periods when students are doing independent reading and writing, need take only a few minutes for each student. The dialogue should focus on the students' frames of reference and thus be respectful of their own interpretations. Reading conferences (see Atwell, 1987) can focus on how authors write (beginnings and endings, characters' development, dialogue, narrative voice, etc.). They can also be about authors themselves - their lives, other books, other similar writers etc.; about concepts of genre - what makes a novel a novel, how prose differs from poetry; or about the reader's own processes - when we skip, skim, reread or thoughts about how the book or story should have been written. Questions like the following encourage dialogue and provide insights into students' thinking processes: (1) What stood out for you (from this story or book)? (2) Who do you think would like this book? (and why?) (3) Did you find yourself questioning or disagreeing with anything that you read? (4) Is there any part you'd like to share with a friend/the class? Reading conferences may be held not only between teachers and students but also between students. Students might also present their ideas to the entire class.

Similarly, teachers can confer with a student (and student with each other) on a piece of writing. One possible scenario for the interaction would (1) The student reads the piece aloud (2) the teacher plays back what the student is trying to say (3) the teacher asks for more information (4) the teacher poses question about the piece (5) the teacher asks the student to speculate on what to do next. For further ideas on conducting writing conferences see Responding to Writing in Critical Experience 2.

Reading and writing conferences, when they focus explicitly on the student's knowledge of the processes of reading and writing, are called metacognitive interviews (Lytle and Schultz[20]). The goal of these interviews is to get students to construct, explain and display their own theories of reading and writing. The teacher tries to understand what and how the students mean, and thus needs to pay attention to how the student comprehends or "reads" the questions asked as well as to their answers. Interviews may be open-ended or scripted (with the questions pre-planned) and include questions about perceptions of good or successful readers or writers, about their own histories as readers and writers, and about strategies for reading or writing specific kinds of texts, for different subjects and audiences.

5. Tests and Exams

Teachers properly give students many different kinds of quizzes, tests and exams that measure student knowledge of the subjects they teach. Here are some of the ways such evaluations can link language and learning and therefore be more congruent with PCRP II:

1. Most tests should include questions which require students to develop ideas in writing.
2. Objective tests can sometimes call for a short paragraph allowing for explanation and elaboration.
3. More take-home and open book tests can be given, thus allowing for more thoughtful reflection.
4. Students can work in teams to prepare tests and sometimes to do collaborative answers.
5. Students can be given a choice of which questions to answer on a test.
6. Spelling, phonics and vocabulary tests should be contextualized rather than being presented in lists, for example, in 'maze' test formats (Botel, 1982).
7. If end of book and end of unit tests in basal readers are used, only the total score should be considered.
8. If basal readers are used, the Individualized Progress process for monitoring individual children's progress and 'level' might be considered (Seaver and Botel, 1987). (see Constructing Curriculum)
9. Informal Reading Inventories should call for a student's retelling of the story or involve a book conference procedure, rather than call for answers to questions in test categories like main ideas, details, inference, etc. Such tests do not correspond to present views of comprehension and furthermore do not provide reliable information.
10. Tests calling for oral reading should allow for rehearsal, repeated reading and reexamination of miscues.
11. Time limits should be removed to allow for review and revision.
12. Multiple choice formats may be redesigned to allow for a broader range of response.

6. Standardized Tests

From a scientific point of view, standardized tests have their most valid use in obtaining group measures of achievement. If PCRP II were to be implemented in a school or school system, then, standardized tests would provide one kind of base line and comparative longitudinal data. For example, standardized tests can show how a cohort of fourth graders make progress over a several year period. Research in reading, writing and language development suggests strongly that students who are provided a PCRP II curriculum will do as well or better than students who are taught a curriculum which is designed to mirror more closely standardized tests and thus to improve standardized test performance.

There are two unscientific ways to misuse standardized tests in reading and writing. The first is to use their categories to generate the curriculum The second is to use them to 'diagnose' and monitor the individual student's profile on the test. These two common and related practices have led to the fragmentation of reading and writing and to an overemphasis on teaching lower level skills. In this regard, in their February 1988 meeting, the Board of Directors of the International Reading Association issued the following statement:

> Reading assessment must reflect recent advances in understanding the reading process. IRA is concerned that instructional decisions are too often made from assessments which define reading as a sequence of discrete skills that students must master to become readers. Such assessment fosters inappropriate instruction.

The standardized test in its current format provides invalid and unreliable information for diagnosing and assessing growth in individual reading ability (Farr and Carey, 1986). As we have indicated throughout this document, the reading process as it is currently understood cannot be evaluated by the types of items most tests include . As developers of the new state-wide reading assessments in Michigan (see Wixson, 1987) have observed, if "reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader, the text, and the context of the reading situation," then a good reader can no longer be defined as "one who demonstrates mastery of a series of isolated skills." They define a good reader as one who can apply these skills "independently and flexibly in a variety of situations " Until standardized assessments capture more of the essence of reading, other more valid modes of evaluation as recommended in this chapter should be used for individual assessment

Grading and Parent Conferences

Whenever possible, especially in the primary grades, parent conferences are the preferred mode of reporting to parents. Parents want to know about their child's individual progress, how s/he is doing in relation to other children in the class, and helpful ways to support learning at home. It may be necessary to begin such conferences by describing the goals of the class. At these conferences, a main focus is the perusal and discussion of the child's work as displayed in the reading and writing portfolios, include samples of student tests. Referring back to the earlier description of "what we need to know," teachers can describe how the student is reading and learning from reading, the student's processes and written products, the students' choices of independent reading selections and self-initiated writing, students' knowledge and use of specific aspects of language, and of course progress in becoming more strategic and self-confident. Teachers can use student work to point out, for example, students' increasing abilities to write longer and more complex sentences, increases in spelling ability, and differences between drafts of a child's paper. . When only a summary grade is given for a subject all the procedures of evaluation should inform such judgment. For some students this may call for an anecdotal paragraph.

School Boards and Community

Once a system of evaluation has been designed, the school board and community should be informed about its rationale and procedures. We believe that lay persons have put much stock in standardized tests because they have an incomplete understanding of the relationship of the curriculum to the evaluation plan. They need to know that standardized tests will improve if students read, write and talk in ways proposed in PCRP II, across the curriculum. By reporting not only reading test scores, but also patterns of report cards marks, writing assessment results, trends in students' reading preferences, shifts in curriculum and teaching methods based on recent assessment and other current performance information, administrators and teachers can keep the board and community informed on student progress.

Chapter Six

IMPLEMENTING PCRP II THROUGH NETWORKING

If a school or school system wants to implement PCRP II, it will develop a comprehensive and collegial approach to professional development, since it is well-known that people do not ordinarily change their behavior just because they have good information. The staff will need to become a community of reflective practitioners and learners, supported by one another in various networking arrangements. These include networking with colleagues within the school, across the school system, and across other educational organizations, including institutions of higher learning. The purpose of networking is to enable the staff to explore collegially the theoretical foundations and proposals for practice included in PCRP II, and to work out their own realization of the curriculum

Principles for Developing Professional Networks

The Ford Foundation study, Teacher Development in the Schools (1985), critically reviewed thirty years of experience in funding hundreds of projects to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The report findings suggest a set of principles to consider in developing networks to implement PCRP II:

1. The individual school and its professional staff should be the focus of planned change when the school system develops its networking strategies.

2. Teachers should exercise significant control of instructional decisions because they are knowledgeable and ultimately responsible for what happens.

3. Professional development should relate theory to practice and practice to theory through long term teacher research. In such a process teachers consider new and provocative ideas, incorporate them into their programs, and discuss problematic situations with their colleagues.

4. School leadership -- principals, department heads, supervisors, and specialists -- should bring new and needed resources to support teacher efforts and otherwise build the morale of the staff.

Clearly, these principles have as a common focus the professionalization of teaching. PCRP II cannot be implemented by fiat but only by teachers, administrators, and specialists working collaboratively over time. While there are many ways teachers, schools, and school systems can use PCRP II as a resource to guide the development of reading, writing, and talking across the curriculum, the following sections explain five interrelated approaches: (1) Activating School System and School Level Leadership Teams; (2) Designing PCRP II Seminars; (3) Networking within Schools and Across Districts; (4) Linking With Other Networks, and (5) Publishing PCRP II papers.

I. Activating School System and School Level Leadership Teams

If PCRP II is to serve the schools as a useful framework, the Superintendent of Schools, curriculum and administrative leaders, and teachers from all levels would need to become knowledgeable and enthusiastic about its potential for curriculum planning and development and for teaching and learning. One way to make this happen would be to organize a two or three day retreat for this group to study the document, using the Reflection on Practice four-stage process suggested in Chapter Four: Constructing Curriculum. This systematic critical and collaborative inquiry would enable the staff to compare PCRP II with their own efforts and develop long-range plans for implementing its salient ideas. Planning at this level would focus on the critical needs of the school system, the identification of particular aspects of PCRP II which mesh with these needs, ways to get teachers involved, possibilities for linking with resource groups like universities and Intermediate Units, and logistical matters such as the deployment of personnel and other resources.

Principals would then be expected to organize and lead PCRP II teams of specialists and teachers in their own schools. These teams could develop in-house seminars, opportunities for networking of staff through cross visitation, and other types of in-house staff collaboration.

It would be well to keep in mind that PCRP II can help school systems integrate many of the Department of Education initiatives already underway, including teacher induction, new curricula, long-range planning, mainstreaming, certification, Chapter 1 and TELS

More specific delineation of some worthwhile within school and across district networks and links with other networks will be found in the following sections

II. Designing PCRP II Seminars

A PCRP II Seminar can be an on-school site university course or an in-service course offered or approved by the intermediate unit. The seminar would be planned by the district leadership, often including the superintendent, assistant superintendent, supervisors, building administrators and teachers, and university or intermediate unit consultants. Participants in the course may include teachers as well as supervisors and administrators with direct responsibility for instructional leadership and curriculum.

The specific content of the seminar can be defined by the collaborative partners to meet district needs, but the overall design includes discussion of the document, collateral reading of articles and books which provide further detail, and frequent writing (often journal keeping) by participants. The purpose of the writing is to link the inquiry process of the seminar with classroom practice. In between meetings (which are held approximately every two weeks throughout the year or weekly for a semester) teachers and other participants find ways to try out the ideas in their own settings and to document what occurs. For teachers this may mean innovating with lesson formats, developing methods for conferences or interviews, or any other application of the framework to their own context. For supervisors and administrators, the framework provides a set of lenses for observing in classrooms and for developing resource materials and strategies for curriculum revision. Part of each session is used for sharing results of these practices and refining them for further use. In addition, participants may have opportunities to share ideas from the seminar in informal meetings or classroom visitations, as described below.

At the culmination of the seminar, participants may want to publish thematic units or other materials which would be of interest and value to their colleagues in the schools. They may also make oral presentations of their work to other faculty members, school board members, parents, or others in the school community

Districts can offer PCRP II Seminars in successive years, thus enabling all the faculty as they are ready to become involved Variations on the seminar can include intensive study of particular topics such as writing to learn across the curriculum or literature-based reading programs. As an alternative to or in addition to year-long PCRP II Seminars, universities can collaborate with districts to offer intensive summer institutes

III. Networking Within School and Across District

Increasing the amount of talk about professional issues related to teaching and learning requires making use of current structures and creating new ones in schools and districts. In addition to using regularly scheduled faculty meetings, the following structures have been shown to change the collegial atmosphere of schools so that they become supportive communities.

STAFF CROSS-VISITATION

When teachers collaborate on implementing the language experiences of PCRP II, they can benefit immeasurably from observing each other in their classrooms. To benefit most from the cross visitations they might keep a descriptive account of the observations and discuss them with each other. Together the teachers can share their expertise and help each other solve problems. Cross visitation may occur across schools or school districts as well as in the same building. As an example of planned staff cross visitation, the School District of Philadelphia has provided special substitute teachers (known as Writing Support Teachers) who enable Teacher-Consultants (teachers in the Philadelphia Writing Project) to make cross visitations and to use these classroom visits and consultations to improve the teaching of writing. Critical features of successful cross-visitations include continuity over time; integration into the ongoing life of classrooms during the school day; involvement of teachers as co-laborers, not as experts to novices; and working intensively with a few colleagues rather than a large number. Cross-visitation assumes that teachers can be partners in professional growth, the topics and processes for which they themselves determine. Keeping an ongoing log of observations and insights gained from cross-visiting can be used to work with supervisors and consultants on curriculum revision.

REFLECTIVE-DESCRIPTIVE PROCESSES

Developed by Patricia Carini and her colleagues at the Prospect School in Bennington, Vermont, "reflective-descriptive processes" refer to a mode of inquiry in which educators describe and explore childrens' work and learning processes, as well as consider issues in the life of the classroom and school which affect teaching and learning. Carini has developed and refined particular formats for teachers and others to use when they meet in groups to discuss educational concerns. These processes enable faculty members to draw upon each other's knowledge, experience, and strengths. Teachers in Pennsylvania (e.g. the Philadelphia Teachers Learning Cooperative) have been using these processes for more than a decade to enhance their work with students.

A recent description (The Prospect Center Documentary Processes: In Progress, 1986) includes three types: The Reflection Conversation, The Description of Children's Work, and The Staff Review of a Child. The purpose of **The Reflective Conversation** is to explore participants' "range of meanings, images and experiences embodied in a word." For the PCRP, a reflection could be done on the word "critical" or "composing" or any of the other key concepts in or related to the document. Participants write about the contexts in which the word may appear, their own experiences, as well as thoughts and feelings the word evokes. After sharing, an integrative summary is given by the chair who links the individual perspectives of each person with common themes. The outcome broadens and deepens participants' understandings and provides a fresh perspective.

Often a reflection on a word precedes **The Description of Children's Work** in which a drawing, story or construction becomes the focus. The fundamental assumption here is that works "bear the imprint of the maker" and thus that imprint is not accidental but rather characteristic of the child's work in general. The description begins with one or more reflections such as the medium used (e.g. writing, drawing) and/or the motif or content of the child's work Then participants make "impressionistic responses" including feelings, sounds, images or other first impressions. The Chair makes note of and restates patterns of "connections, complementarities, and divergences in the responses." Several rounds of descriptions of particular elements follow. It is worth noticing that when considering writing, the participants do not use conventional evaluation categories but rather attempt to see the work from the writer's point of view. Often several pieces by the same writer or a collection of a child's work over time is the focus.

The purpose of **The Staff Review of a Child** is to bring together different perspectives in order to describe a child's experience in school Based on a detailed description and analysis of its implications, recommendations are made for supporting the child's growth and the teacher in implementing the suggestions. To portray the child but not to analyze or explain him or her, the presenting teacher describes in detail physical and emotional characteristics as well as the child's "mode of relationships to other children and adults," activities and interests, involvement in formal learning strengths and vulnerabilities Sometimes this information is elaborated upon with narratives from previous teachers, observations, other data provided by parents and examples of the child's work

After the presentation, participants ask questions and make recommendations to the presenting teacher who is free to listen but does not need to respond to the suggestions When Staff Reviews are regular parts of a school's networking, teachers can provide for more continuity for students and can benefit from regular discussions of classroom realities.

The Reflective-Descriptive Processes can contribute to the continued professional growth of teachers and other educators within schools and in cross-district groups. Used and sometimes adapted to different contexts, these processes share with the PCRP II an emphasis on improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Through these structured and collaborative conversations, educators draw on their own expertise to work through important problems and issues.

IN-HOUSE STAFF COLLABORATION

Teachers experienced in one or more aspects of PCRP II can offer workshops for the staff in such areas of interest as developing thematic units, writing across the curriculum, and book or writing conferences, to mention just a few. Identification of faculty strengths in this way honors the professionalism of teachers and further strengthens the collaborative learning of all participants. In addition to workshops, teachers can work together on a number of projects which strengthen the whole-school language program. These include cross-age and cross-grade grouping and tutoring, writers' workshops and assemblies, multi-disciplinary writing centers, reading groups and clubs, as well as publications such as newsletters and classroom anthologies, yearbooks and newspapers. Book fairs, parent workshops and other community-school endeavors create important networks as well.

DISTRICT-WIDE NETWORKS

There are many district wide meetings that could contribute to the implementation of PCRP II. Examples of such meetings might include. grade level meetings on writing development and assessment, content level meetings on developing new report cards, and periodic reading specialist meetings. Representatives from each school need to report relevant developments at these meetings to their colleagues and get faculty response to them Mini-conferences can be held in which district teachers make presentations about their work in classrooms and their collaborations with other colleagues. Teachers can be invited to make presentation to faculty of other schools. Groups of teachers can visit particular schools where

PCRP programs such as literature-based reading efforts are underway Thematic units and book collections can be shared across the district

IV. Linking with other Networks

Members of a faculty and their administrators may be associated with a number of educational organizations which are interested in PCRP II initiatives and related topics. Most professional organizations of teachers and administrators are interested in and committed to the improvement of instruction. Their meetings and functions provide forums for discussion of PCRP issues. Many districts have teachers who have become fellows in a regional writing project The Consortium of Pennsylvania Writing Projects, a state-wide network of National Writing Project sites, offer intensive summer workshops and a variety of other programs which emphasize teacher-to-teacher collaboration and school-university partnerships. Teachers may get involved in Intermediate Unit committees concerned with issues such as using children's books to teach reading and writing. Members of the faculty may represent their district in developing new curriculum regulations for the State Department of Education. These colleagues can serve an important liaison function between organizations. In developing units, teachers might link up community librarians, parent groups, museums and other cultural organizations.

V. The PCRP Papers

The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania will support the publication of The PCRP Papers featuring contributions by teachers, supervisors and administrators of participating districts and universities. The PCRP Papers will provide for documentation of the PCRP implementation in diverse schools and school districts will promote the dissemination of good ideas developed by participants, and will promote networking across the state. Teachers and administrators who contribute to the PCRP Papers will find real audiences to write about their real world

The PCRP Papers will include:

1. Teacher articles, sharing experiences and reporting classroom research
2. Thematic and literature units which integrate the Critical Experiences of PCRP II
3. Profiles of classrooms
4. District curriculum plans
5 Articles on research and theory

In all the kinds of networking we have described, the attitude of the professional staff should be one of mutual support and consultation. Accountability from this perspective is seen as mutual and reciprocal. Administration is accountable to the teaching staff for fostering a collegial climate and for providing resources and time for continuous professional development. Teachers are accountable to the administration for implementing agreed upon innovations and for informing administration about their findings and results. Together administrators and teachers continue to evaluate progress toward the goals of reading, writing, and talking across the curriculum.

APPENDIX

Report of PDE Conference on PCRP II

In April 1988, the Pennsylvania Department of Education convened a working conference at which fifty educators from across the state, discussed their responses to PCRP II and how its concepts and practices could be introduced in Pennsylvania to generate enthusiasm and promote effective implementation. The Department, supportive of PCRP I and now PCRP II, recognized the complexities of communicating and implementing good ideas, and sought the advice of practitioners who hold implementation responsibilities in schools, districts, intermediate units and universities.

The purpose of the April conference was to (1) provide a format for discussion of implementation ideas by a diverse group of educators recognized for their successful implementation of PCRP I and other effective practices; (2) utilize this group's collective perspectives and specific suggestions in planning statewide PCRP II orientations; (3) develop a network of professionals who understand and support PCRP II and could serve as implementation resources; (4) encourage conference participants to think specifically about implementing PCRP II in their work settings; and (5) document the ideas of this group and the process that prompted these ideas for use throughout Pennsylvania and beyond.

Conference Design

The conference was designed to elicit first from job-alike groups--teachers, department chairpersons, principals, curriculum supervisors, assistant superintendents, superintendents, intermediate unit staff, and college and university staff--an analysis of what beliefs, behaviors and practices underlie successful implementation. That is, what do we know about past implementation practices (successes and failures) and how can that information be used in implementing PCRP II?

Working later in mixed groups, conferees synthesized information from the job-alike sessions to develop systemic implementation ideas. As important as the ideas generated by the conference was the process itself. Professionals were invited to collaborate in raising and solving problems, sharing experiences and exploring how the teaching and learning concepts described in PCRP II might be enhanced

The design of this conference, then, is one example of how educational leaders might themselves plan pre-implementation activities that pave the way and strengthen participants' ownership and commitment.

Overall Sense of Conference Participants

Participants wrestled throughout the conference with PCRP II as a comprehensive, holistic, evolving and collaborative approach to educational change They expressed the following overall implications for implementation

PCRP II is a long-term process, not a quick fix. It is a process that requires "mutual adaptation" efforts and a strong commitment from all segments of the educational community. Implementing PCRP II will require reallocation of present resources and generation of some additional resources It must be built on present strengths and successes, colleagial learning and collaborations in and between agencies. Experimentation and risk-taking must be encouraged and facilitated, not mandated.

Educators at all levels will need well-planned, ongoing and meaningful learning experiences as well as opportunities for sharing and problem-solving. Support and endorsement from all education-related groups is needed. Separate departments within schools, districts, intermediate units, and colleges and universities need to integrate their efforts to help educators at all levels find ways to weave PCRP II philosophy and practices into their work.

Conference participants suggested that recent state initiatives need to be integrated and that PCRP II might serve as that framework, strengthening each of the individual efforts

Criteria for Effective Implementation

The following attitudes, behaviors and practices were suggested as critical to successful implementation.

- implementation rationales should be strong, clear, understood and endorsed
- staff development should focus on both theory and practice
- teachers should have a major role in identifying needs and planning and implementing staff development
- implementation models should be characterized by support, commitment and participation from the top and the bottom--a top down, bottom up model
- instruction should begin with those who are willing, enthusiastic and able, not the resistant, care should be taken not to alienate those not involved
- practices should accommodate diverse views and strategies
- implementation models should build on present strengths and achievements, this

should be an ongoing, evolving process

- orientations to PCRP II should be integrative, not fragmented; temptations to simplify should be resisted
- schools and districts may need initial assessments to identify appropriate starting places
- participants should utilize past practices, particularly those found effective when PCRP I was implemented
- appropriate planning time, release time, materials, and the like must be provided
- peer coaching models should be utilized
- observations and visitations in and among schools and districts should be encouraged
- model implementation sites need to be identified
- resource information that documents strategies, resources, successes and failures should be developed

PCRP II Support Networks

All educational organizations need to understand PCRP II and participate in training and networking opportunities so that a broad base of support and collaboration can be felt in schools and districts. Colleges and universities, intermediate units, legislators, school boards and parents all should be included in early orientation efforts. It is especially important for all intermediate units to develop expertise in PCRP II so that districts have access to inservice programs. Conference participants noted the special role and responsibilities of colleges and universities in providing preservice and inservice training Moreover, conference participants from intermediate units and higher education stressed the importance of forging agreements among themselves to present the total PCRP II framework, and not merely a set of techniques Linkages to statewide educational organizations that support teachers, administrators, and curricula need to be established

Support for Teachers

Teachers who implement PCRP II will need the kind of support that only the most professional of settings can provide. Teachers need to feel that their efforts are important to peers, parents and administrators, and that these groups encourage, trust and value their work Such encouragement is expressed through access to materials, workshops, observation sites, colloquia and other resources Provisions should be made for weekend retreats and other staff development opportunities where teachers can learn from "experts' and each other. Teachers need time to dialogue with other teachers. Time is an extremely important ingredient in encouraging teachers. time to digest PCRP II and its related research and literature, time to plan alone and with other professionals, and time to think.

Participants in the PCRP II Working Conference, April 20-21, 1988

Sharon Althouse, Carol Avery, Audrey Badger, Rita Bean, Irene Bender, Judy Buchanan, Edward Bureau, David Campbell, Kimberly Clemens Marilyn Cochran-Smith, Catherine Connor, Shelley Crawford, Eileen Dillon, Joanne Eresh. Deidre Farmby, Barbara Georgio, Heidi Gross, Catherine Hatala, Bette Hemingway, Richard Houseknecht, Patricia Johnston, Christine Kane, Callie Kingsbury, Robert Kratz, Salvatore Luzio, Jesse Moore, Paul Moraski, David Morgan, Greg Morris, Allie Mulvihill Nat Plafker, Dina Portnoy, Jean Roach, Marion Rosecky, Gary Ruch, Suzanne Scott, JoAnn Seaver, Neil Smith, David Snyder, Jan Somerville, Karen Steinbrink, Stinson Stroup, Tony Trosan and Barrie Wirth.

FOOTNOTES

1. We are indebted to Shelley Baum, English teacher at Akiba Hebrew Academy in Merion, Pennsylvania for her work on different dimensions of writing as a process.
2. These approaches come from Cochran-Smith's (1982) study of reading aloud in a preschool classroom. Through mediation, Cochran-Smith points out, children extend the ways they use and understand print, participate in a wider range of literacy events, and learn to make sense of and use books by themselves.
3. Marsha Pincus is an English teacher at Gratz High School in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
4. From notes taken by Carole Edelsky on a lecture by Jim Higgins at Arizona University, 1984.
5. Elaine Avidon is Associate Director of the New York City Writing Project and an Associate of the Bard Institute for Writing and Thinking.
6. Judy Holcomb teaches kindergarten at Westfield Friends School in New Jersey. This idea came from a project for ED 629, University of Pennsylvania, Fall 1987.
7. Mallie Cox Chapman is a former Philadelphia teacher who currently lives and writes in Connecticut.
8. Diane Masar is a high school English teacher in West Chester, Pennsyvlania.
9. Shelley Baum is a high school English teacher at Akiba Hebrew Academy in Merion, Pennsylvania.
10. Joan Countryman is Chair of the Math Department at Germantown Friends School in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
11. Vicky Nees is currently a fourth grade teacher at Germantown Friends School
12. Dr. Patricia Johnston is Chair of the Reading Department at a junior high school in the Centennial School District in Warminster, Pennsylvania.
13. The Philadelphia Alliance for Teaching Humanities in the Schools (PATHS) is located at 1930 Chestnut Street, Suite 1900, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103.
14. Barbara Gibbons teaches first grade in Downingtown, Pennsylvania. This idea developed from a project for ED 629, University of Pennsylvania, Fall 1987.
15. Peter Bobbe teaches English at Jenkintown High School
16. Kathy Schultz has been an elementary grade teacher and science teacher and is currently a doctoral candidate in education at the University of Pennsylvania
17. A brainstormed list by teachers in the Philadelphia Writing Project and Carol Corson, first and second grade teacher at Germantown Friends School in Philadelphia.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

18. Susan Reese and Suzanne Scott are elementary teachers in West Chester, Pennsylvania.

19. Paxon Hollow Junior High School, Marple-Newtown School District.

20. Unpublished manuscript, Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 1987.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academy for Educational Development (1985) *Teacher development in schools*. New York: Ford Foundation.

Altwerger, B , Edelsky, C , & Flores, B. (1987) Whole language: What's new? *The Reading Teacher*

Anderson, R.C., & Pearson, P.D. (1984) A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research*. New York: Longman.

Anderson, R.C., et al. (1985) *Becoming a nation of readers*. The Report of the Commission on Reading. National Academy of Education, National Institute of Education, The Center for the Study of Reading.

Applebee, A. (1984, Winter) Writing and reasoning *Review of Educational Research*, *54*(4): 577-596.

Applebee, A. (1984) *Contexts for learning to write: Studies of secondary school instruction*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Atwell, N. (1987) *In the middle: Writing, reading and learning with adolescents*. Upper Montclair, NY: Boynton/Cook.

Au, K. (1980) Participation structures in a reading lesson with Hawaiian children. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, *11*, 91-115.

Baker, L., & Brown, A L. (1984) Metacognitive skills and reading In P D Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* New York: Longman.

Baron, J (1985) *Rationality and intelligence*. New York Combridge University Press.

Beach, R. (1987) Strategic teaching in literature. In *Strategic teaching and learning: Cognitive instruction in the content areas*. Alexandria, VA· ASCD.

Berthoff, A. (1981) *The making of meaning*. Upper Montclair, NJ· Boynton/Cook.

Bizzell, P. (1986) Composing processes. An overview. In A. Petrosky & D Bartholoman (Eds.), *The teaching of writing*, 85th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press

Bloome, D. (1985) Reading as a social process. *Language Arts*, *62*(2)

Boomer, G. (1985) English teaching· Art and science. *Language Arts*, *62*(7)

Botel, M (1982) New informal approaches to evaluating word recognition and comprehension. In J.J. Pikulski & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Approaches to the informal evaluation of reading*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Boykin, A.W. (1986) The triple quandry and the schooling of Afro American children In U. Neisser (Ed.), *The school achievement of minority children. New perspectives*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Brannon, L., & Knoblanch, C. (1982) On students' rights to their own texts: A model of teacher response. College Composition and Communication, 33(2)

Britton, J. (1970) Language and learning New York: Penguin

Britton, J. et al. (1975) The development of writing abilities (11-18) London. Macmillan

Brossell, G. (1977) Developing power and expressiveness in the language learning process. In J. Squire (Ed.), The Teaching of English, 76th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Brown, A., Campione, J., & Day, J. (1984) Learning to learn. On training students to learn from texts. [Technical Report No. 189] Urbana, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Brown, A.L. (1980) Metacognitive development and reading. In R J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce, & W.F. Brewer (Eds.), Theoretical issues in reading comprehension. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

Brown, A. (1982) Learning how to learn from reading. In J Langer & M.T. Smith-Burke (Eds.), Reader meets author/bridging the gap. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Brown, C. & Lytle, S. (1988) Merging assessment and instruction: Protocols in the classroom. In S. Glazer et al. (Eds), Reexaming reading diagnosis. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Bruner, J. (1961) The process of education. Cambridge, MA Harvard University Press.

Bussis, A.M., & Chittenden, E.A. (1987, March) Research currents: What the reading tests neglect. Language Arts, National Council of Teachers of English.

Bussis, A.M , Chittenden, E.A., Amarel, M., & Klausner, E. (1985) Inquiring into meaning. An investigation of learning to read Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bussis, A., & Chittenden, E. (1987) Research currents: What the reading tests neglect. Language Arts, 64(3).

Cadenhead, K. (1987) Reading level: A metaphor that shapes practice. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(6), 436-441

Calkins, L. (1986) The art of teaching writing Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Camp, R. (1985) Models of portfolio assessment. In K L. Greenberg & V.B Slaughter (Eds), Notes from the National Testing Network in Writing. New York: City University of New York.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980) Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1, 1-47.

Cazden, C. (1982) Contexts for literacy. In the mind and in the classroom Journal of Reading Behavior (Special Issue). 14 & 4(4): 413-427.

Cazden, C. (1988) Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

Chafe, W., & Danielwicz, J (1987) Properties of spoken and written language. In R. Horowitz & J. Samuels (Eds.), Comprehending oral and written language New York: Academic Press.

Chambers, A. (1984) Introducing books to children (second edition) London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Chomsky, C. (1969) The acquisition of syntax in children from 5 to 10 [Research Monograph No 57] Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Cochran-Smith, M (1984) The making of a reader. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishers.

Cochran-Smith, M. (1988) Mediating: An important role for the reading teacher. In C. Hedley & J. Hicks (Eds.), Reading and the special learner. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Cochran-Smith, M., Kahn, J., & Paris, C. (in press) When word processing comes into classrooms. In J. Hoot & S Silver (Eds.), Computers in the early grades. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cohen, E. (1986) Designing groupwork strategies for the heterogeneous classroom. New York: Teachers College Press

Cook-Gumperz, J. (1986) Introduction The social construction of literacy. In J. Cook-Gumperz (Ed.), The social construction of literacy. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Cooper, M. (1985) The ecology of writing. Paper delivered at the Conference on College Composition and Communication. Minneapolis, MN.

Corcoran, B., & Evans, E. (1987) Readers, texts, teachers Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook Publishers.

Daiute, C. (1984) Performance limits on writers. In R. Beach & L. Bridenell (Eds.), New directions in composition research. New York: Guilford Press.

Daiute, C. (1985) Writing and computers Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Delpit, L.D. (1988, February) When the talking stops: Paradoxes of power in educating other people's children. Speech presented at Ninth Annual Ethography in Education Research Forum. Philadelphia, PA: Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.

Dewey, J., & Bentley, A F (1949) Knowing and the known. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.

DiPardo, A., & Freedman, S. (1987) Historical overview: Groups in the writing classroom. [Technical Report No. 4] Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Writing.

Dodd, A. (1986) Publishing opportunities for student (and teacher) writers. English Journal, 75(3).

Dodd, A., & Rosenbaum, E. (1986) Learning communities for curriculum and staff development. Phi Delta Kappan, 67, 380-384.

Dweck, C. (1983) Children's theories of intelligence: Consequences for learning. In S. Paris et al. (Eds.), Learning and motivation in the classroom. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dyson, A.H. (1985) Individual differences in emerging writing. In M. Farr (Ed.), Advances in writing research: Vol. I. Children's early writing development. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Dyson, A.H. (1986) Staying free to dance with the children: The dangers of sanctifying activities in the language arts curriculum. English Education, 18(3).

Dyson, A.H. (1987) The value of "time off task": Young children's spontaneous talk and deliberate text. Harvard Educational Review, 57(4): 396-420

Edelsky, C., & Smith, K. (1984, January) Is that writing--or are those marks just a figment of your curriculum? Language Arts, 61(1).

Edelsky, C. (1986) Writing in a bilingual program Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Edelsky, C. (1987) Living in the author's world: Analyzing the author's craft Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English, Los Angeles.

Elbow, P. (1973) Writing without teachers. New York: Oxford University Press

Elbow, P. (1981) Writing with power. New York Oxford University Press

Elbow, P. (1987) Embracing contraries: Explorations in teaching and learning. New York: Oxford University Press.

Emig, J. (1971) The composing process of twelfth graders [Research Report No. 13] Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Emig, J. (1983) The web of meaning. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook Publishers.

Erickson, F. (1982) Taught cognitive learning in its immediate environments: A neglected topic in the anthropology of education. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 13(2). 149-180.

Erickson, F. (1982) Classroom discourse as improvisation: Relationships between academic task structure and social participation structure in lessons. In L C Wilkinson (Ed.), Communicating in the classroom. New York: Academic Press.

Farr, M., & Daniels, H. (1986) Language diversity and writing construction New York: Eric Clearinghouse in Urban Education Institute for Urban and Minority Education

Farr, R., & Carey, R F. (1986) Reading: What can be measured? Newark, DE. International Reading Association.

Fecho, R. (1988) Conferencing: Making it fit Unpublished manuscript Philadelphia, PA: Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania

Feuerstein, R. (1980) Instrumental enrichment Baltimore, MD. University Park Press

Fish, S. (1980) Is there a text in this class? The authority of interpretive communities. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Flavell, J.H. (1978) Metacognitive development. In J M. Scandura & C.J. Brainerd (Eds), Structural/process theories of complex human behavior Alphen a a Rijn, The Netherlands: Sijthoff & Noordhoff.

Florio-Ruane, S. (1986) Taking a closer look at writing conferences Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, San Francisco, CA.

Flower, L. (1981) Problem-solving strategies for writing. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Foster, M (1988, April) How knowledge about language helps the classroom teacher Revisited Language Arts, National Council of Teacher of English

Freedman, S. (Ed.) (1985) The acquisition of written language. Response and revision. Norwood, NJ: Ablex

Freedman, S., et al. (1987) Research in writing: Past, present and future [Technical Report No 1] Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Writing.

Freire, P. (1970) Pedagogy of the oppressed New York Continuum

Freire, P. (1978) Pedagogy-in-process New York Continuum

Freire, P. (1985) Reading the world and reading the word Language Arts, (62), 15-22

Fulwiler, T (1987) Teaching with writing Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook

Fulwiler, T. (Ed.) (1987) The journal book Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook.

Gage, J.T. (1986) Why write? In A Petrosky & D Bartholomae (Eds), The teaching of writing. 85th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part. II Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Gere, A R. (Ed.) (1985) Roots in the sawdust: Writing to learn across the disciplines Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English

Gere, A (1987) Writing groups: History, theory and implications Carbondale, IL: S Illinois University Press

Ginsburg, H P (1986) The myth of the deprived child New thoughts on poor children. In U Neisser (Ed), The school achievement of minority children New perspectives Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers

Giroux, H. (1984, January) Rethinking the language of schooling Language Arts, 61(1)

Glaser, R (1987) Teaching expert novices Editorial, Educational Researcher, 16(9)

Goodlad, J. (1984) A place called school New York: McGraw-Hill

Goodman, K. (1982) Language and literacy, Vols. 1 & 2 Boston, MA Routledge & Kegan Paul

Goodman, K. (1984) Unity in reading In A Purves & O Niles (Eds), Becoming readers in a complex society 83rd yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press

Goodman, K (1986) Basal readers A call for action Language Arts, 63(4) 358-363

Goodman, K (1986) What's whole in whole language? Portsmouth, NH Heinemann

Goodman, K., & Goodman, Y. (1981) A whole-language comprehension-centered view of reading development. [Occasional Paper No. 1] Program in Languge and Literacy, University of Arizona.

Goswami, D., & Stillman, P. (1987) Reclaiming the classroom. Teacher research as an agency for change. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook

Graves, D (1983) Writing: Teachers and children at work Portsmouth, NH Heinemann

Graves, D. (1984) The enemy is orthodoxy In A researcher learns to write Portsmouth, NH Heinemann.

Groden, S., Kutz, E., & Zamel, V (1987) Students as ethnographers Investigating language use as a way to learn to use the language The Writer Instructor

Grossman, F. (1982) Getting from here to there: Writing and reading poetry Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook

Halliday, M.A K. (1977) Learning how to mean New York Elserier North-Holland

Hanford, G H (1986, October) Education Week, p 20

Harris, M. (1986) Teaching one-to-one. The writing conference Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Harste, J., Woodward, V, & Burke, C (1984) Language stories and literacy lessons Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

Hartwell, P. (1985) Grammar, grammars and the teaching of grammar College English, 47(2)

Heath, S B. (1983) Way with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms Cambridge, MA. Cambridge University Press.

Heath, S B. (1986) The functions and uses of literacy In S de Castell, A Luke, & K Egar (Eds), Literacy, society and schooling. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press

Heath, S.B , & Branscombe, A (1985) "Intelligent writing" in an audience community Teacher, students and researchers In S W Freedman (Ed), The acquisition of written language. Response and revision Norwood, NJ Ablex

Heath, S B., et al. (in press) Inside learners New York Teachers College Press

Herber, H., & Nelson-Herber, J (1984) Planning the reading program In A Purves & O Niles (Eds), Becoming readers in a complex society 83rd yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Chicago, IL University of Chicago Press

Hymes, D (1964) Toward ethnographies of communication In J Gumperz & D Hymes (Eds), The American Anthropologist, 66(6): 1-34

Hymes, D. (1971) On communicative competence Philadelphia, PA University of Pennsylvania Press

Hymes, D (1974) Foundations of sociolinguistics. An ethnographic approach Philadelphia, PA University of Pennsylvania Press

Iser, W. (1974) The implied reader Baltimore, MD Johns Hopkins University Press

Iser, W. (1978) The act of reading Baltimore, MD Johns Hopkins University Press

Jenkins, J J. (1979, Four points to remember: A tetrahedral model and memory experiment In L S Cermak & F I M Craik (Eds) Levels and processing in human memory Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Johnson, D.W , & Johnson, R T. (1975) Learning together and alone Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Johnson, E. (1981) You are the editor. Belmont, CA. Pitman Learning.

Johnston, P. (1984) Assessment in reading. In P.D Pearson et al (Eds.), Handbook of research reading New York: Longman

Johnston, P. (1985) Understanding reading disability. Harvard Educational Review, 55(2).

Johnston, P. (1987) Teachers as evaluation experts. Reading Teacher, 40(8).

Jones, B.F., Palincsar, A.S., Ogle, P.S., & Carr, E G. (1987) Strategic teaching and learning: Cognitive instruction in the context areas. Alexandria, VA· Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Judy, S., & Judy, S (1979) The English teacher's handbook Cambridge, MA· Winthrop.

Kahn, N. (1982) More learning in less time Upper Montclair, NJ. Boynton/Cook.

Kelly, B., & Holmes, J (1979) The guided lecture procedure. Journal of Reading, 22(7): 602-604.

Kroll, B M , & Vann, R J (1981) Exploring speaking-writing relationships: Connections and contrasts. Urbana, IL· National Council of Teachers of English

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M (1980) Metaphors we live by Chicago, IL University of Chicago Press.

Le Fevre, K (1987) Invention as a social act Carbondale, IL· Southern Illinois University Press.

Lindfors, J. (1987) Children's language and learning (second edition) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Lytle, S (1982) Exploring comprehension style: A study of twelfth-grade readers, transactions with text Ann Arbor, MI University Microfilms International

Lytle, S. (1985) Comprehension styles of twelfth grade readers. What verbal protocols can (and can't) tell us. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Macrorie, K (1980) Searching writing. Rochelle Park, NJ Hayden

Madaus, G F. (1985) What do test scores "really" mean in educational policy? In J Beard & S McNabb (Eds), Testing in the English language arts: Uses and abuses Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English [Originally published by the Michigan Council of Teachers of English]

Martin, N. (Ed.) (1975) Writing across the curriculum. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc

Martin, N. (1986) Research Currents: What writers! what readers! what thinkers! Language Arts, 36(2).

Mayner, J.S.., & Lester, N., & Pradl, G.M. (1983) Learning to write/writing to learn. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc

McLeod, A. (1986) Critical literacy: Taking control of our own lives. Language Arts, 63(1).

Mehan, H. (1979) Learning lessons. Social organization in the classroom. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Mellon, J. (1981) Language competence. In C. Cooper (Ed.), The nature and measurement of competency in English. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English

Mercier, L.Y. (Ed.) (1981) The essentials approach: Rethinking the curriculum for the 80's. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Basic Skills Improvement Program

Meyers, J., & Lytle, S. (1986) Assessment of the larning process Exceptional Children, 53(2), 138-144.

Michaels, S. (1981) "Sharing time": Children's narrative styles and differential access to literacy. Language in Society, 10.

Michaels, S., Ulickney, P., & Watson-Geger, K (undated manuscript) Writing conferences: Innovation or familiar routine? Cambridge, MA: Harvard University

Moffett, J. (1981) Coming on center: English education in evolution Upper Montclair, NJ Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc.

Moffett, J., & Wagner, B.J. (1983) Student-centered languge arts and reading, K-13. A handbook for teachers. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin.

Murray, D. (1982, May) Teaching the other self: The writer's first reader College Composition and Communication, 33(2).

Murray, D. (1985) A writer teaches writing (second edition). Boston, MA Houghton-Mufflin

Newman, J. (1985) Whole language: Theory in use Portsmouth, NH Heinemann

Newman, J (1987, January) Online: Improving with a word processor Language Arts, 64(1).

Newman, (1987, March) Online: Learning about language Language Arts, 64(3).

Ogbu, J.U. (1986) The consequences of the American caste system In U Neisser (Ed), The school achievement of minority children: New perspectives Hillsdale, NJ Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Ogle, D.S. (1986) K-W-L group instruction strategy In A. Palinesor, D Ogle, Cart (Eds)., Teaching reading as thinking. Alexandria, VA: American Association for Curriculum and Development.

Ogle, D.S. (1987) Study techniques which insure content area reading success In D Lapp & J. Flood (Eds.), Context area reading and leanring. Instructional strategies. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Palincsar, A.S., & Brown, A.L. (1984) Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, *1*(2) 117-175.

Paris, S., Cross, D., & Lipson, M. (1984) Informed strategies for learning: A program to improve children's reading awareness and comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*, 1239-1252.

Pauk, W. (1984) *How to study in college* (third edition) Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin.

Pearson, P.D. (Ed.) (1984) *Handbook of reading research* New York: Longman.

Pearson, D. (1985) Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, *36*.

Perl, S., & Wilson, N (1986) *Through teachers' eyes: Portraits of writing teachers at work*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

Peterson, B T. (Ed.) (1986) *Convergences: Transactions in reading and writing*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Pica, T. (1988) Communicative competence and literacy. *Reading Research and Instruction*, *27*.

Piestrup, A.M. (1973) *Black dialect interference and accommodation of reading instruction in first grade*. Berkeley, CA: Monograph of the Language Behavior Research Laboratory, University of California.

Probst, R. (1986) Mom, Wolfgang, and me: Adolescent literature, critical theory, and the English classroom. *English Journal*, *75*(6).

Prospect Center Documentary Processes (In Progress) (1986) Bennington, VT: Prospect School.

Purves, A., & Rippere, V (1968) *Elements of writing about a literary work. A study of response to literature*. Urbana, IL. National Council of Teachers of English

Purves, A. (Ed.) (1972) *How porcupines make love*. New York: John Wiley

Reder, S M. (1987) Comparative aspects of functional literacy development: Three ethnic American communities In D. Wagner (Ed), *The future of literacy in a changing world*. New York: Reyamon.

Resnick, L. (1987) *Education and learning to think* National Academy Press

Rorschach, E, & Whitney, R (1986) Relearning to teach Peer observation as a means for professional development for teachers *English Education*, *18*(3)

Rosecky, M. (1981, November) *Implementing PCRP: Fact or fiction* Bethlehem, PA: Pennsylvania Council of Teachers of English, Lehigh University

Rosenblatt, L. (1978) *The reader, the text, the poem* Carbondale, IL Southern Illinois University Press.

Rosenblatt, L. (1985) The transactional theory of the literary work: Implications for research. In C. Cooper (Ed.), *Researching response to literature and the teaching of literature* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Rosenshine, B., & Stevens, R. (1984) Classroom instruction in reading In P.D Pearson (Ed), *Handbook of reading research* New York: Longman.

Rumelhart, D. (1980) Schemata: The building blocks of cognition In Spiro, Bruce, & Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Schon, D. (1983) *The reflective practitioner. How professionals think in action*. New York Basic Books.

Schuster, C. (1986) *NCTE news: The teacher of composition* Urbana, IL. National Council of Teachers of English.

Scribner, S., & Cole, M. (1981) *The psychology of literacy*. Cambridge, MA Harvard University Press.

Seaver, J. & Botel, M. (1987) *Literacy network handbook*. Philadelphia, PA Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.

Shaughnessy, M. (1977) *Errors and expectations*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Shor, I. (1987) *Freire for the classroom*. Upper Montclair, NJ. Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc

Slavin, R.E. (1983) *Cooperative learning*. New York: Longman

Smith, F. (1973) Twelve easy ways to make learning to read difficult In F Smith (Ed.), *Psycholinguistics and reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston

Smith, F. (1975) *Comprehension and learning: A conceptual framework for teachers* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston

Smith, F. (1982) *Understanding reading* (third edition). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston

Smith, F. (1983, May) Reading like a writer. *Language Arts*, *60*(5).

Smith, F. (1985) A metaphor for literacy. Creating worlds or shunting information? In D Olson, N Torrance, & A Hildyard (Eds), *Literacy, language and learning*. New York Cambridge University Press.

Smith, F. (1985) *Reading without nonsense* (second edition) New York Teachers College Press.

Smith, F. (1988) *Insult to intelligence. The bureaucratic invasion of our classrooms* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Spear, K. (1988) *Sharing writing: Peer response groups in English courses* Portsmouth, NH Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc

Sperling, M., & Freedman, S. (1987) *A good girl writes like a good girl* [Technical Report No 3] Berkeley, CA: Center for the Study of Writing.

Staton, J. (1987) The dialogue journal A new kind of reading text. *Reading Issues and Practices*, 1987 Yearbook, State of Maryland

Staton, J. et al. (1988) Dialogue journal communication: Classroom, linguisitc, social and cognitive views. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Stock, P., & Robinson, J. (1987) Taking on testing: Teachers as tester-researchers. English Education.

Strong, W. (1986) Creative approaches to sentence combining Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Thomkins, J (Ed.) (1980) Reader-response criticism. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Tierney, R J , & Pearson, P.D. (1983) Toward a composing model of reading. Language Arts, 60(5): 568-580.

Tomlinson, B. (1985) Metaphorical models of the composing process. Paper presented at Conference on College Composition and Communication, Minneapolis, MI.

U.S. Department of Education (1986) What works: Resarch about teaching and learning. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office.

Vandergrift, K. (1986) Child and story. The literary connection. New York: Neal-Shuman.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962) Thought and language. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978) Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA Harvard University Press.

Wertime, R. (1979) Students, problems and "courage spans." In J. Lochhead & J. Clement (Eds.), Cognitive process instruction. Philadelphia, PA: Franklin Institute Press.

Willis, M.S. (1984) Personal fiction writing A guide to writing from real life for teachers, students, and writers. New York Teachers and Writers Collaborative.

Winograd, P., & Johnston, P (1987) Some considerations for advancing the teaching of reading comprehension. Educational Psychologist, 22(3&4): 213-230.

Wittrock, M. (Ed) (1986) Handbook of research on teaching (third edition). New York. Macmillan.

Wixson, K et al (1987) New directions in statewide reading assessment. Reading Teacher, 40(8).

Woolsey, D , & Burton, F (1986) Blending literary and informational ways of knowing. Language Arts, 63(3).

Zinsser, W. (1986) Writing to learn New York: Harper & Row Publishers