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ABSTRACT

This ERIC/RCS Special Collection contains five ERIC Digests (brief syntheses of the research on a specific topic in contemporary education and nine FAST Bibs (Focused Access to Selected Topics--annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database), providing up-to-date information in an accessible format. This collection focuses on writing, including such aspects as reading-writing relationships, the process of teaching writing, evaluating student writing, writing across the curriculum, writing as a response to literature, computer-assisted writing instruction, and other issues. The material in the special collection is designed for use by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. A profile of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS), information on requesting a computer search, searching ERIC in print, submitting material to ERIC/RCS, books available from ERIC/RCS, and an order form are attached. (SR)

Writing

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ERIC (an acronym for Educational Resources Information Center) is a national network of 16 clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for building the ERIC database by identifying and abstracting various educational resources, including research reports, curriculum guides, conference papers, journal articles, and government reports. The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) collects educational information specifically related to reading, English, journalism, speech, and theater at all levels. ERIC/RCS also covers interdisciplinary areas, such as media studies, reading and writing technology, mass communication, language arts, critical thinking, literature, and many aspects of literacy.

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What Are ERIC/RCS SPECIAL COLLECTIONS?

Each *ERIC/RCS Special Collection* contains ten or more Digests and *FAST Bibs* offering a variety of viewpoints on selected topics of interest and importance in contemporary education. ERIC *Digests* are brief syntheses of the research that has been done on a specific topic. *FAST Bibs* (Focused Access to Selected Topics) are annotated bibliographies with selected entries from the ERIC database. Both *Digests* and *FAST Bibs* provide up-to-date information in an accessible format. Our *Special Collections* are intended as a resource that can be used quickly and effectively by teachers, students, administrators, researchers, policy makers, and parents. The *Digests* may be consulted for a summary of, or a particular viewpoint on, the research in an area, while the *FAST Bibs* may be used as the start of a more extensive look at what is available in the ERIC database on a subject of interest.

WRITING

The material in this collection focuses on writing, often referred to in English classes as written composition—communicating in English through the written word. More and more, people are realizing that writing is a means of learning, of organizing one's thoughts and assessing one's current level of understanding.

Reading-Writing Relationships

Literacy research and instruction over the past few years have focused on the connections between writing and reading. Writing is seen as an integral part of learning to read and to think and to express one's thoughts, from childhood on. Teaching writing and reading in an integrated fashion is the topic of many documents in the ERIC database. One of the *FAST Bibs* in this *Special Collection* is entitled *Reading-Writing Relationships*. Jerry Johns and Roberta L. Berglund have selected a number of documents and articles on this topic. Most of the research views reading and writing as interlinked developmental processes.

Teaching Writing—Looking at the Process

Over the past several years a good deal has been written about the writing process, in particular the need to focus on the *process* as well as on the products of the effort. Dividing writing into "prewriting, drafting, revising, and publishing" gave teachers and students a way to conceptualize the writing process and to focus constructively on one aspect at a time.

A number of studies have been done on the best ways to teach writing. One of the Digests in this collection is entitled: *Encouraging Revision: Teaching Writing with Peer Response Groups*. The author, Andrea W. Herrmann, concludes that peer review and cooperative writing workshops are of assistance in certain circumstances and not in others. Computer-assisted writing instruction seems to be one of the areas where peer response is particularly helpful.

Evaluating Student Writing

Many teachers are convinced of the need to teach students to write clearly and carefully, for a variety of purposes, but have difficulties with respect to appropriate evaluation of student writing. One of the Digests in this collection, *Evaluating Student Writing: Methods and Measurement*, by Nancy B. Hyslop, addresses this dilemma and offers practical suggestions.

Writing across the Curriculum

Effective written communication, researchers increasingly recognize, is important in *all* disciplines, not just in English or Language Arts. As people have also realized that writing is a powerful learning tool, there has been a growing emphasis on writing in all subject areas. Sharon Sorenson has written a *Digest* entitled *Encouraging Writing Achievement: Writing across the Curriculum*, in which she suggests that one of the merits of across-the-curriculum writing is its promotion of active learning and active thinking. One of the annotated

bibliographies in this *Special Collection* gives a sample of some of the material available on this topic in the ERIC database (*Writing across the Curriculum: 1983-1987, FAST Bib No. 2*). More recent material may be found by accessing the database directly.

Four recent volumes published by ERIC/RCS contain writing activities for high school and middle school students that foster both critical thinking and subject-matter understanding:

Writing across the Social Studies Curriculum, by Roger Sensenbaugh

Writing Exercises for High School Students, by Barbara Vultaggio

A High School Student's Bill of Rights, by Stephen Gottlieb

and *Critical Thinking, Reading, and Writing*, by Mary Morgan and Michael Shermis.

These volumes include numerous lesson plans drawn from the ERIC database—tried and tested material for classroom use, adapted for the convenience of busy teachers.

Writing as a Response to Literature

One way in which writing is often taught is in response to literature—at a minimum, answering questions; but often writing an essay about some aspect of the work being studied or a description of one's personal response to some part of the text. Suggestions for writing assignments connected to some of the novels frequently taught in middle school and high school may be found in *Teaching the Novel*, by Becky Alano (available from ERIC/RCS).

Computer-Assisted Writing Instruction

What impact is computer use having on the teaching of writing? Many of the reports in the ERIC database indicate that computer-assisted writing instruction is having some positive effect on both the quantity and quality of student writing, particularly when the use of computers is part of a cooperative learning situation with feedback from peers and/or teachers prior to revision. One thing is clear: the use of computers often takes some of the drudgery out of multiple revisions of a text and makes writing-as-a-process easier to implement. Two of the annotated bibliographies in this *Special Collection* deal with this topic: *Word Processing and Writing Instruction* and *Word Processing and Writing Instruction for Students with Special Needs*. One of the *Digests* in this Collection is entitled *Computer-Assisted Writing Instruction: Too Early to Judge the Impact*. Also available from ERIC/RCS is *Computers in English/ Language Arts*, by Sharon Sorenson, another volume of classroom-tested lesson plans designed with teachers in mind.

Other Issues

This collection also covers such issues as note-taking, study skills, writing apprehension, and poetry-writing instruction. There is a bibliography on the topic of publishing student writing. Our intention is to help you become more familiar with some of the issues and research in the area of writing and related topics. We hope you will find this *Special Collection* useful.

More Information from the ERIC Database

In addition to the citations in the *Digests* and *FAST Bibs* included in this collection, other resources may be found by searching the ERIC database. A few of the terms that would be useful in a search are: Writing-Composition, Writing-Exercises, Writing-Improvement, Writing-Instruction, Writing-Skills, Reading-Writing-Relationship, and Writing-Processes.

Materials on Writing (and Reading-Writing Connections) Available from ERIC/RCS:

For Teachers:

Writing across the Social Studies Curriculum, by Roger Sensenbaugh

Writing Exercises for High School Students, by Barbara Vultaggio

Teaching the Novel, by Becky Alano

Critical Thinking, Reading, and Writing, by Mary Morgan and Michael Shermis

Computers in English/Language Arts, by Sharon Sorenson

A High School Student's Bill of Rights, by Stephen Gottlieb

Language Arts for Gifted Middle School Students, by Susan J. Davis and Jerry L. Johns

Working with Special Students in English/Language Arts, by Sharon Sorenson

Reading Strategies for the Primary Grades, by Kim and Claudia Kätz

Remedial Reading for Elementary School Students, by Carolyn Smith McGowen

Peer Teaching and Collaborative Learning in the Language Arts, by Elizabeth McAllister

For Parents:

101 Ideas to Help Your Child Learn to Read and Write, by Mary and Richard Behm

Beginning Literacy and Your Child, by Steven B. and Linda R. Silvern

Creating Readers and Writers, by Susan Mandel Glazer

You Can Help Your Young Child with Writing, by Marcia Baghban

To order any of these books, please use the form at the end of this collection.

Ellie Macfarlane
Series Editor, ERIC/RCS Special Collections

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Encouraging Writing Achievement: Writing across the Curriculum

by Sharon Sorenson

Proponents of writing across the curriculum are quick to clarify that writing to learn is not the same as learning to write; but as flip sides of a single coin, the two support one another. Anne Walker (1988) calls the two parts the "virtuous circle." When content area teachers incorporate writing in all areas of the curriculum—social studies, math, science, vocational education, business, foreign language, music, art, physical education, and language arts—students benefit in three ways: they have a resource for better understanding content; they practice a technique which aids retention; and they begin to write better. (Walker, 1988; Kurfiss, 1985)

How Does Writing across the Curriculum Help Students?

Across-the-curriculum writing finds its merit in removing students from their passivity. Active learners are active thinkers, and one cannot write without thinking. (Steffens, 1988; Walker, 1988) Thus, incorporating writing-across-the-curriculum techniques tends to change the complexion of the classroom. Teacher-centered classrooms become student centered. Rather than the teacher being the Great Dispenser of Knowledge, filling students' empty heads, the teacher becomes a facilitator, aiding students' understanding. (Self, 1989; Hamilton-Wieler, 1989) Assuming that students gain new knowledge by making associations with prior knowledge, the writing activities commonly used across the curriculum give students the opportunity to make those connections. (Walker, 1988; Self, 1989; Barr and Healy, 1988; Kurtiss, 1985; Steffens, 1988) With the hectic pace of back-to-back 50-minute classes all day, students need the chance to assimilate information, make connections, and face whatever may still confuse them. Hamilton-Wieler (1988) calls this kind of writing "a way into or means of learning, a way into understanding through articulating."

What Kinds of Writing Make Sense across the Curriculum?

Many writing-across-the-curriculum assignments tend to differ from typical English-class writing assignments (unless the English teacher also incorporates writing-to-learn techniques). Generally, cross-curricular writing activities fall into two groups:

- Expressive writing appears in learning logs, journals, exit summaries, problem analyses, or peer dialogues, and allows the student to write in his/her own vocabulary without fear of being "corrected."
- Product writing appears in more formal products—essays, test question responses, library papers, and lab reports—most like what students have been taught to create in English class.

Given the difficulty of product writing and given the usual initial discomfort of content area teachers in giving and evaluating product writing assignments, models prove useful. Models that illustrate how to tailor a topic to a specific curricular area help students learn how to address purpose in terms of audience. Models that illustrate discipline-specific language help students learn how to prepare a more focused, deeper response. (Sorenson, 1989; Winchester, 1987; Hamilton-Wieler, 1988)

Sharon Sorenson, a freelance writer and consultant on writing, formerly taught writing in high school for twenty-two years.

How Can Teachers Find Time for Writing?

The biggest stumbling block for teachers is their concern for precious class time and how they can cover the book or meet curriculum requirements if they add yet another component to classroom instruction. Generally, proponents agree that when teachers incorporate writing in their content areas, the need for review and the need for reteaching after testing is sufficiently reduced to more than make up the difference. And since expressive writing should never be graded—especially not for grammar or mechanics—teachers do not suffer from increased paper load. (Worsley and Mayer, 1989; Hightshue, 1988; Self, 1989)

Does Writing across the Curriculum Improve Student Performance?

While hard statistical evidence is scarce, a few studies show positive results. In one study. low-achieving math students using writing-to-learn techniques improved their state competency test results to a greater percentage than did average math students in a traditional classroom. (Gladstone, 1987) A physics teacher saw a steady 3-year improvement in overall grades when writing-to-learn techniques were incorporated. (Self, 1989) Other studies, admitting a lack of hard evidence, nevertheless found attitudinal shifts among students. (Winchester, 1987) Most students experienced less apprehension about writing and felt they were better writers—writing more varied, more complex, and more mature pieces—after only a year in a school-wide writing-across-the-curriculum project.

Most importantly, however, research supports that writing to learn improves higher-order reasoning skills. (Gere, 1985) As Barr and Healy (1988) summarize the research, a "study of writing achievement across the curriculum attests to the fact that writing improves higher-order reasoning abilities. WAC programs are ideally suited [to achieve these ends,] for they provide the theoretical base for teachers and the instructional strategies that enable students to reformulate ideas from text."

What Kind of Staff Development Has Been Successful?

Some school administrators say they have a writing-across-the-curriculum program "housed in the writing lab." Others say the program is evident in their school newspaper or literary magazine. Still others suggest that writing across the curriculum happens when the English teacher asks students to write a paper about art or the art teachers refer to literature. These examples lack the ingredients of writing across the curriculum. (Walker, 1988; Self, 1989)

When teachers from all content areas incorporate writing activities on a nearly daily basis in all classes, then writing-across-the-curriculum techniques are in place. In order for that to happen, however, teachers need a great deal of preparation. Most teachers outside the university feel uncomfortable as writers, even writing about their own curricular areas. They feel even less comfortable 'evaluating' writing. And some resentment almost always arises over "doing the English teacher's job." (Walker, 1988)

To overcome these problems and address the issues—in short, to make teachers comfortable—most school districts have found a year-long plan for inservice and group dialogue necessary for a successful program. In many cases, participation has been voluntary (Winchester, 1987; Self, 1989), but the rewards have come when participants, observing the enthusiasm and classroom success, have asked for information. In other cases, participation has been mandatory (Self, 1989), but there is some question about a teacher's success if he/she is an unwilling participant.

Barr and Healy (1988) argue that "Schools succeed when the emphasis, by both teachers and students, is on writing and thinking about relevant and significant ideas within the subject areas." Writing across the curriculum accepts writing, the need to develop it, and its role in learning as a human function essential to thinking and communicating.

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ERIC Digest

Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills CS-90-03

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Evaluating Student Writing: Methods and Measurement

by Nancy B. Hyslop

Persons involved in the field of composition have sought continuously over the past two decades to shape and refine discourse theory and develop more effective classroom methods of evaluation. A careful look at these efforts suggests that the material dealing with evaluating writing is not unlike the body of a hydra: we have one theoretical body supporting two heads. Using one of the heads, we develop various methods to critique or respond to students' written products (even as these products represent a stage in the writing process); with the other head we devise ways to measure or assess the quality of the written product according to some value system. This digest will consider (1) the methods of response and (2) the measurement of quality as represented by effective classroom teaching methods.

Methods of Response

Responding to student writing is probably the most challenging part of teaching writing. It not only takes a tremendous amount of time and demands a great deal of intellectual activity, it also affects to a large extent how students feel about their ability to write. It becomes increasingly obvious that teachers may become less pressured and more effective in dealing with response only as they are able to redefine their role from that of an examiner who must spend enormous amounts of time grading every paper to that of a facilitator who helps students recognize and work on their own strengths and weaknesses (Grant-Davie, 1987).

Effective time-saving techniques which reflect this philosophy were gathered from research articles by Fuery and Standford and classified by Krest (1987). Peer revision, peer editing, peer grading, computer programs, conferences, and a system of error analysis are presented as effective measures which enhance individual development as well as encourage more student writing.

Noting that research has shown teacher comment has little effect on the quality of student writing, Grant-Davie and Shapiro (1987) suggest teachers should view comments as rhetorical acts, think about their purpose for writing them, and teach students to become their own best readers. To achieve this goal, teachers should respond to student drafts with fewer judgments and directives and more questions and suggestions. Grant-Davie and Shapiro also outline the use of a workshop which utilizes peer editing and revision.

Similarly, Whitlock (1987) explains how Peter Elbow's concepts of "pointing," "summarizing," "telling," and "showing" can form the basis of an effective method for training students to work in writing groups and give reader-based feedback to peer writing.

Measuring Writing Quality

According to the "Standards for Basic Skills Writing Programs" developed by the National Council of Teachers of English and reprinted in "National Standards: Oral and Written Communications" (1984), when we measure the quality of students' writing we should focus on before and after samplings of complete pieces of writing.

To measure growth in the use of these conventions, an analytic scale analysis of skills (Cooper and Odell, 1977) can be developed and used effectively with samples of students' writing. This instrument describes briefly, in non-technical language, what is considered to be high, mid, and low quality levels in

Nancy B. Hyslop has taught writing both at the secondary and the university level, most recently at the University of Evansville.

the following areas: (1) the student's ability to use words accurately and effectively; (2) the ability to use standard English; (3) the ability to use appropriate punctuation; and (4) the ability to spell correctly. Each of these skills is ranked for each paper on a continuum from 1 (low) to 6 (high) (Hyslop, 1983).

In addition to these instruments, various teacher/writers in the field share the following strategies they have developed for measuring writing quality.

Teale (1988) insists that informal observations and structured performance sample assessments are more appropriate than standardized tests for measuring quality in early childhood literacy learning. For example, when young children are asked to write and then read what they write, the teacher can learn a great deal about their composing strategies and about their strategies for encoding speech in written language. Krest (1987) provides helpful techniques of a general nature to show teachers how to give students credit for all their work and how to spend less time doing it. These techniques involve using holistic scoring, using a somewhat similar technique of general comments, and using the portfolio. Harmon (1988) suggests that teachers should withhold measuring students' progress until a suitable period of time has elapsed which allows for measurable growth, and then measure the quality of selected pieces of writing at periodic intervals.

Cooper and Odell (1977) suggest that teachers can eliminate much of the uncertainty and frustration of measuring the quality of these samples if they will identify limited types of discourse and create exercises which stimulate writing in the appropriate range but not beyond it. In their model, they present explanatory, persuasive, and expressive extremes as represented by the angles of the triangle. Each point is associated with a characteristic of language related to a goal of writing, with assignments and the resulting measure of quality focused on that particular goal.

Current Directions

Writing teachers are moving increasingly toward this type of assessment of writing quality. Hittleman (1988) offers the following four-part rating scale to be used after the characteristic to be evaluated is established: (1) little or no presence of the characteristic; (2) some presence of the characteristic; (3) fairly successful communication...through detailed and consistent presence of characteristic; and (4) highly inventive and mature presence of the characteristic.

Krest (1987) presents an interesting modification of this process by measuring the quality of students' papers with the following levels of concerns in mind: (HOCs) high order concerns: focus, details, and organization; (MOCs) middle order concerns: style and sentence order; and (LOCs) lower order concerns: mechanics and spelling.

Skills Analysis

One of the 29 standards for assessment and evaluation in the NCTE report states that control of the conventions of edited American English...spelling, handwriting, punctuation, and grammatical usage...(should be) developed primarily during the writing process and secondarily through related exercises.

All in all, it appears that true growth in writing is a slow, seldom linear process. Writing teachers have a wide variety of responses they can offer students before making formal evaluations of the text (Harmon 1988).

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ERIC Digest

Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills CS-89-02

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Encouraging Revision: The Use of Peer Response Groups

by Andrea W. Herrmann

Teachers have turned their classrooms into communities of learners, as the focus of writing pedagogy shifts from written products to writing as a process, and as ways of making knowledge—including writing—are viewed from a collaborative or social perspective (Bruffee, 1983; Faigley, 1985). Writing instruction in our classrooms reflects a growing appreciation for the value of talk. By implementing peer writing groups, teachers encourage students to give, seek, and react to oral feedback among themselves as they write, in addition to reacting to the teacher's traditional comments on finished papers. This trend raises the interesting question of what effect peer feedback has on students' revision practices.

Respected teachers and writing theorists have fostered peer groups in high school and college classrooms as a way to encourage students to write and revise. Elbow (1973) promoted the use of "teacherless writing groups"; Murray (1982) recommended that teachers train students to respond constructively to writing in process; Macrorie (1984) discussed the value of creating a "Helping Circle"; Moffett (1983) suggested that teachers teach students to teach each other; and Bruffee (1983) maintained that getting students "to talk through" the task of writing is a form of collaborative learning that is essential. Using peer response groups, with even young writers, brings positive benefits, according to the descriptive classroom studies conducted by Graves (1983; 1984) and Calkins (1982; 1983).

Peer Reactions Often Help Young Writers

Hence, writing groups, whose activity is sometimes referred to as "peer conferencing" or "peer collaboration," have become a pedagogical tool in a wide-range of teaching/learning contexts. It should be noted that teachers sometimes have peer groups respond in writing to written drafts from their fellow students. (See, for example, Wauters, 1988). But more commonly, collaboration provides writers with an opportunity to read their drafts aloud and to discuss them face-to-face with a peer audience while the written product is taking shape. Classroom talk can be a positive aspect in supporting all phases of the writing process (Reid, 1983). Small groups can help apprehensive or blocked writers become more fluent and can provide an audience that assists the writer in revising (Legge, 1980).

Cooperative writing workshops help students discover audience, according to one study of college freshmen (Glassner, 1983).

An ethnographic study concerned with talk in a high school classroom community examined whether writers' intuitions and revision strategies, among other things, could be "strengthened within a supportive classroom environment." (Kantor, 1984, p. 75). The study concluded that the development of a peer community fostered growth from egocentrism to audience awareness and that knowing the audience helped students become more aware of possible strategies for revising the written message.

Ziv (1983) found a pattern in the way the interaction in peer writing groups develops. Early in the semester, students' comments were primarily positive, but included some criticisms of content and form. The writers, however, did not always revise accordingly to the reactions of their peers, and sometimes resented the criticisms. Later in the semester, however, advice from peers was more likely to be heeded because rather than more general

criticisms, the students offered each other concrete suggestions for revision.

Some Studies Indicate Mixed Effects

Not all the studies of peer reaction show unqualified positive effects on revision, however. Some studies suggest negative consequences as well. Gere and Stevens (1985) looked at a fifth-grade writing class to determine if the oral responses provided by groups to individual writers shaped their subsequent revisions. The study found both positive and negative results. Student writers were challenged by their peers "to clarify, to provide more detail" (p. 95) as the peer reacters asked questions when they were confused, and suggested ways to improve the writing. Some student writers integrated their peers' suggestions into subsequent revisions. Yet there were incidents of unproductive even hostile verbal exchange, and in some groups students hurried through the group work in a "robotlike monotone."

A case study of four children with low, average, and high abilities in writing (Russell, 1985) examined the relationship between peer conferencing and revision. The results indicated that in revising, poor writers were dependent on the questions of other students, whereas average and good writers tended to become their own audience and revise on their own.

Another case study conducted with freshmen (Berkenkotter, 1983, 1984) sought to find out how students interact in their writing groups and whether writers improve their texts as a result of the interactions. The research revealed that the students' attitudes toward assistance from their peers varied considerably, as did the writers' approaches toward revision. One student, Stan, was too immature to heed his audience. Because of her sensitivity to audience, another student, Joann, became vulnerable to unwarranted criticism. Although a third student, Pat, felt responsible to his audience, he felt a greater obligation to his emerging text and revised independently of peer suggestions. The study concluded that students writing for an audience of peers as well as their teacher do not necessarily benefit from their peers' suggestions.

Peer Reaction Seems to Work in Computer-assisted Instruction

Preliminary evidence suggests that the nature of peer collaboration and feedback in classrooms where computers are used to teach writing differs from that in regular writing classrooms. Under certain conditions, computers as writing tools appear to promote a collaborative environment, both in learning to write and in learning to use the technology (Daiute, 1986; Dickinson, 1986; Herrmann, 1985a, 1985b, 1986; Hocking and Vismiesky, 1983; Selfe and Wahlstrom, 1985; Sudol, 1985).

In a classroom of first and second grade children, the computer created a whole new social organization that affected the way the children interacted (Dickinson, 1986). An ethnographic study that described a high school classroom (Herrmann 1985b, 1986) found a similar result. A variety of types of peer collaborations developed, having various kinds of influence on writing and revision; but not all students learned to collaborate successfully. The success the students had in revising their work appeared to depend, in part, on their ability to form effective collaborative relationships.

The literature suggests that the effects of peer comments on revision is not a simple cause and effect matter, but rather a complex one, dependent upon the interrelationship of multiple factors within the evolving social environment. While some of the students studied appeared to benefit from the comments of their peers, not all students in all classrooms did. Some students were unable, unwilling, or even ill-advised to follow peer reactions in revising what they had written. While there may be no one-to-one relationship between peer comments and revision, these studies, particularly the qualitative ones, suggest a range of real and potential benefits for students participating in an effective community of responsive peers.

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Note-taking: What Do We Know about the Benefits?

by Jeff Beecher

Research on note-taking has generated debates since C. C. Crawford began his studies in the 1920s. Initially the debates centered on whether note-taking resulted in improved student performance on tests. Over the years, researchers have tried to verify that note-taking helps students "encode" the information involved and that notes are valuable as materials for review (Ladas, 1980).

The research findings on whether note-taking promotes encoding have been mixed. Hult *et al.* (1984), for example, found that note-taking does involve semantic encoding; but Henk and Stahl (1985) found that the process of taking notes in itself does little to enhance recall. They found, however, that reviewing notes clearly results in superior recall. Their conclusions were dramatically different from those of Barnett *et al.* (1981), who found "strong support" for the encoding function of note-taking but not for the value of using notes to review material.

Does Note-taking Promote Encoding?

In 1925, Crawford published a study which sought to verify his observation that there is a positive correlation between analyses of college students' lecture notes and their grades on subsequent quizzes. He concluded that taking notes was better than not taking notes, that reviewing notes was a key to their impact, and that organizing notes effectively contributes to improved performance on tests.

After a lull in note-taking research, Ash and Carlton (1953) worked with instructional films and concluded that films lacking necessary pauses and repetitions led to note-taking attempts which actually interfered with listening comprehension and learning. McClendon (1958) used taped lectures and concluded that note-taking doesn't interfere with listening, that no particular note-taking method is best, and that students might as well record as much as possible during note-taking.

In 1970, Howe concluded that students were seven times more likely to recall information one week after it was presented if the information had been recorded in their notes. Howe argued that "the activity of note writing *per se* makes a contribution to later retention...." (p. 63)

Di Vesta and Gray (1972) observed that "note taking* and rehearsal function as learning aids which facilitate learning" (p. 134), while Fisher and Harris (1974) found that students perform better when they are allowed "to encode in the way that they prefer" (p. 386)—using notes or other strategies.

There is growing evidence that note-taking combined with critical thinking facilitates retention and applications of the information. Bretzing and Kulhary (1979) compared note-taking that indicated in-process semantic processing (encoding) with verbatim note-taking and found that subjects who took verbatim notes scored lower on comprehension tests than those who processed information at a higher level while they took notes. Einstein *et al.* (1985) found that successful college students engaged in greater integrative processing during note-taking, and that note-taking itself "enhances organizational processing of lecture information." (p. 522)

Anderson and Armbruster (1986) concluded that there is a benefit to students when the lecture environment permits deep processing while taking

*Over the years the term **note-taking** has been spelled several ways. **Webster's Third New International** (1986) lists it only with the hyphen, but **notetaker** as one word.*

notes. Denner (1986) describes a method of using "episodic organizers"—a kind of semantic web or map—to produce a positive encoding effect when seventh-grade subjects were reading complex narrative passages.

Is Reviewing Notes an Effective Learning Strategy?

The importance of reviewing notes was mentioned briefly by Crawford in 1925. In 1973, Fisher and Harris concluded that "note taking serves both an encoding function and an external memory function [reviewing], with the latter being the more important." (p. 324) Kiewra (1983) found that reorganizing notes *while reviewing* led to higher test achievement. The Cornell system of note-taking encourages this practice (King *et al.*, 1984).

In a report on their study which allowed students to review their notes immediately before a test, Carter and Van Matre (1975) argued that the benefit of note-taking appeared to be derived from the review rather than from the act of note-taking itself. They even went so far as to suggest that reviewing notes may actually cue the student to reconstruct parts of the lecture not initially recorded in the notes. An interesting study by Kiewra (1985) also endorsed the value of review—but not of student notes. He suggested that "Teachers should be aware of students' relatively incomplete note-taking behaviours, and therefore, encouraged to *provide* learners with adequate notes for review." (p. 77; emphasis added)

What Does the Research Suggest to the Teacher?

An increasing number of sources try to synthesize the implications of research on note-taking to benefit and advise educators (e.g., Kiewra, 1987). Much of the synthesis relates directly to teacher/instructor presentation of material. Earlier researchers had offered such suggestions: Ash and Carlton (1953) recommended that students be supplied with prepared notes for pre-film and post-film study. Based on his study of college students' notes, Locke (1977) suggested stressing the importance of material that is not written on the board, announcing explicitly the precise role that lectures play in the course, and combating student fatigue by providing a rest break. (p. 98)

In his underlining and note-taking research synthesis for students and teachers, McAndrew (1983) suggested that instructors use a spaced lecture format, insert verbal and nonverbal cues into lectures to highlight structure, write important material on the blackboard, avoid information overload when using transparencies or slides, tell students what type of test to expect, and use handouts that give students room to add notes. Carrier and Titus (1981) asked teachers to devote some class time exclusively to a review period before an exam—an emphasis like that placed on reviewing by Carter and Van Matre (1975), who had also stressed highly organized lectures.

What Are the Current Research Interests?

Note-taking research, along with educational research in general, has begun to concentrate on the cognitive processes of individual learners (Kiewra and Frank, 1985). The relevance of schema theory (Shaughnessy and Evans, 1986) and of metacognition (Tomlinson, 1985) has been studied in recent years.

Kiewra and Benton (1988) have been studying "the relationship between lecture note-taking behaviors and academic ability by using more global measures of ability, such as GPA and predictive achievement test scores. In addition, they have considered a) scores on an information-processing ability test, b) analyses of notes taken during a designated lecture, c) scores on a test based on a lecture, and d) scores on a course exam covering several lectures. They concluded that the "amount of notetaking is related to academic achievement" and the "ability to hold and manipulate propositional knowledge in working memory is related to the number of words, complex propositions, and main ideas recorded in notes." (p. 33)

Thus while most note-taking research continues to measure the impact of note-taking on recall as measured by tests, there is increasing emphasis on cognitive analyses that may have more explicit instructional implications in the near future.

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Computer-Assisted Writing Instruction: Too Early to Judge the Impact

by Bruce Tone and Dorothy Winchester

Anyone who has learned a word-processing program and uses it regularly on a computer at work or home might be disappointed with reports to date on the impact of the computer on student writing. Features of word processing which allow a writer to revise quickly produced hard-copy drafts should, it seems, effectively serve writing instruction; but until the time students have enough access to computer work-stations to practice and become comfortable with word processing *while they are learning to process written language*, it is probably too early to judge how effective the computer will become in improving student writing.

Computers are becoming more common in schools. In 1983, Withey predicted that the computer "may have a firmer hold on the future than do English teachers." That same year,a survey (Ingersoll, Elliott, and Smith, 1983) estimated that there were over 200,000 microcomputers in U.S. elementary and secondary schools; and it predicted a 60-percent annual growth rate for the following years. That would suggest that well over two million computers are now accessible to elementary and secondary students and teachers; and in the light of initiatives launched by Federal agencies and some states to develop computer-assisted instruction, that figure may be conservative.

A search of documents entered in the ERIC database between 1983 and 1987 identified over 50 reports on computer-assisted writing instruction; but a review of these documents suggests that the influx of computers into schools does not assure students regular and sufficient time to learn to write on them. It appears that in most schools, computers reside in a computer laboratory shared by all the teachers and students in the school. Students participating in special writing programs usually must leave their more familiar classroom environments and go to the computer laboratory.

How Much Time-on-Task?

The presence of computers in regular classrooms may not guarantee that students will have ample opportunity to use them. A Canadian study of 90 teachers and 180 elementary students in three grades (Larter et al.,1987) placed computers in regular classrooms. Each teacher worked with one student learning to write on the computer and with one writing in longhand. This report, which is replete with data on various time-on-task analyses, does not clarify how the teachers scheduled the experiment while teaching their classes. Each experimental subject, nonetheless, had access to the computer in his or her regular classroom; and the average time spent writing on it over a six-month period was an hour a week. Students who logged the most hours on a computer averaged about 60 hours over six months.

Several of the reports in the database indicate that many students learning to write with computers are lucky to get 30 minutes experience a week. Whether the atypically larger amount of time and experience the students in the Canadian study had with the computers was sufficient to allow them to become very proficient word processors is not clear.

Why Don't Computers Encourage Revision?

Limited time-on-task may explain why so many of the reports in the database fail to mention the benefits of computer-assisted instruction in encouraging revisions and why several reports specify that the students did not get opportunities to print and see their efforts in hard copy. Such applications

provide no opportunity to evaluate the feature of computer writing that recommends itself to many practiced writers: the almost immediate opportunity to see and react to what one has written and then to make changes which can be quickly reprinted.

Yet the studies which have focused particularly on revision do not support the notion that writing on computers should encourage a student to revise. Daiute (1985) found no difference either in quality or quantity of revision for junior high students writing with and without computers. In another study, Daiute (1986) found that students writing on computers revised less than those using pens and pencils. The computer writers, however, got higher scores on their finished products after getting lower scores on their first drafts, suggesting that computers may have led to more effective revision.

Nor did the college students in Hawisher's study (1987) revise more than those not using computers; but, interestingly, this study found no positive relationship between revisions and quality of writing.

For younger children, there are several simplified word-processing programs available, but even with these, it appears that students who are being taught to write on computers do not get enough time-on-task to become comfortable with simple word-processing features like "insert" and "delete" or to use them freely in making revisions—let alone enough time to learn to "block" text, move it for reorganization, and then print and analyze the results for subsequent revision. A recent guide from Phi Delta Kappa (Schaeffer, 1987) outlines the teaching of writing with the microcomputer as a seven-year procedure. Although students in classes following this process are learning simple revision commands in the second grade, the program sensibly reflects the fact that it takes a reasonable amount of time for students to learn word processing.

Are There Benefits?

Most of the reports in the database have, nonetheless, found that computer-assisted writing instruction has some effect—if not dramatic impact—on both the quantity and quality of writing(e.g., Stine, 1987). Most of these evaluations rely on informal teacher observation and product review; but the frequency of cautious endorsement of computer-assisted instruction across many of these reports suggests that differences reported are reliable. Some of the relatively rare experimental studies in the database have reported similar results.

However, a report by Dean (1986) questions the potential for computer-assisted writing instruction. Dean found that on a college entrance exam, college freshmen who were not trained to write using word processing outperformed those who were trained to write on computers. Dean expressed concern about the cost of the computer-assisted writing program and the extra instructional time it required. Hass (1987), on the other hand, found that experienced writers who wrote letters with pen and pencil took longer to complete the task than subjects who followed the guidance given by a computer program and that the letters of the latter group were better.

There are other exceptions to Hawisher's indication that computers did not encourage critical reaction to what was being composed, and they are reported in studies which involved some form of team or peer editing and reaction. Dickinson (1986) found that when collaborating on a writing project at a computer, first-grade children developed language skills while planning and evaluating their project. Heap (1986) reported on a program that teamed a writer with a peer as "writing helper"—a kind of in-process editor—and another classmate as a "technical helper" to advise and discuss solutions to word-processing problems. Piper (1987), Smutek (1986), and Heap each found the computer effective in assisting teamed writing instruction for students learning English as a second language.

Is Word Processing the Only Approach?

Also in the database are reports on the use of computer software which assumes a strong instructional and interactive tutorial role. Most of these programs guide the student writer through the identification of topic, the brainstorming and then organizing of jot notes on the topic, and the application of the resulting outline to produce a written document (e.g., Huntley, 1986). Strickland (1987) conducted a case study using such a program and found it effective. Styne (1986) reported on how a computer program that guides students as they compose poetry generated enthusiasm among college freshmen.

Some teachers of writing at higher levels involve students in the development of their own software programs to guide their writing. Walton and Balestri (1987) discuss studies that link instruction in computer programming and college freshmen composition which they feel help students understand writing as a design discipline. Bruce (1987) cites such approaches as the precursors of the computer's potential in facilitating thinking, creativity, and language development.

In addition to computer software which guides a writer through the formation of his or her own ideas, there are, of course, programs of preformatted exer-

cises that many teachers consider important to writing instruction. Smith (1986) discussed "a plethora of skills and drills software" that often lacks quality because it is not theoretically based. Such programs present, in effect, a kind of electronic workbook, which may have the potential to hold student interest through programmed practice but which may not relate to the process of writing.

When Can We Know?

The computer's great promise to writers who know how to compose on one is its facilitation of revision. As Withey described it, the computer can be "a blank page on which the student can write, revise, and edit...." What the writer who uses a particular word-processing program needs to keep in mind, however, is how long it took him or her to become comfortable with the new tool. What kind of familiarity with both the keyboard and the written word did the writer have before sitting down to learn word processing? How many hours of writing in front of a computer monitor did it take before the writer learned how to use the features of the the program comfortably? When did focus on the computer software stop competing with getting the best words in the most effective order? After how many hours did word processing first begin to serve effective composition?

The ratio of computer stations to students may have to provide more time-on-task before we can adequately evaluate the computer as a tool for writing instruction. That kind of access, it seems reasonable to point out, is going to involve considerable investment in expensive hardware that has an annoying way of becoming obsolete; it also means that teachers interested in using the technology need to be trained to use it productively. With those factors in place, writing instruction will—as has always been the case—rely on the enthusiasm, abilities, and effective methodologies of good teachers.

The teachers and other researchers who are now experimenting with computer-assisted instruction are building an important database that will be analyzed for guidance in developing effective methodologies. The computer is a technology that will almost certainly become more and more accessible in the lives of students, including the young writers involved in the studies reported to date. Many of these students will be writing regularly using computers. Whatever the limits of the experience they got using computers, it can become a valuable one.

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Reading–Writing Relationships

by Jerry Johns and Roberta L. Berglund

Literacy research and instruction is becoming more focused on connections between reading and writing. This *FAST Bib*, based on entries to the ERIC database, contains selected references from 1985 to 1989. The bibliography is organized into four sections: (1) Overview, (2) Research, (3) Integrating Language Arts, and (4) Classroom Applications. The entries in these sections should help teachers understand the relationships between reading and writing and identifying ideas for implementation into classrooms.

Overview

Braun, Carl. "Facilitating Connecting Links between Reading and Writing." 1986. 27p. [ED 278 941]

Emphasizes the learning process and involves demonstrations of learning by the teacher. Suggests that the following classroom strategies can be employed to help students make reading/writing connections: (1) teacher-student conferences, which allow teachers to gain insight into their students' interests and needs while sharing insights about the learning process and stimulating further engagement; (2) group talk, such as a listening response or a discussion of a text; (3) group cloze procedures that emphasize semantic mapping, which represents visually the link between spoken and written texts.

Brooks, Cerry H. "Exploring the World through Reading and Writing," *Language Arts*, v65 n3 p245–53 Mar 1988.

Supports the argument that reading and writing ought to be taught together, and seeks to persuade the reluctant teacher by giving reasons for interweaving composition and literature seamlessly.

Corcoran, Bill; Evans, Emrys, eds. *Readers, Texts, Teachers*. 1987. 264p. [ED 279 012]

Focuses on the need to offer and encourage the experience of reading literature in elementary schools. Explicates the range of theory known as reader-response criticism. Argues its distinctive relevance to the needs of young, developing readers. Indicates how classroom practices might be changed to accommodate the insights offered by reader-response theories.

Funderburk, Carol. "A Review of Research in Children's Writing." 1986. 13p. [ED 280 063]

Sresses Piaget's postulate that cognitive development is linear—that children progress through stages of development whereby tasks are mastered at certain levels of cognitive understanding. Examines the stages of children's writing processes (prewriting, composing, revising), as well as language development, drawing, and reading.

Graves, Donald; Stuart, Virginia. *Write from the Start: Tapping Your Child's Natural Writing Ability*. 1985. 237p. [ED 265 569]

Shows what can happen when teachers and parents realize that every child can write. Tells the story of children who have discovered the joys of writing and of the parents and teachers who have helped them make that discovery.

Hansen, Jane. *When Writers Read*. 1987. 242p. [ED 282 226]

Focuses on encouraging students to take responsibility for their own learning and giving them a sense of control over their efforts. Explores how the response approach to writing instruction can be put to good use in teaching children to read.

Harp, Bill. "Why Are Your Kids Writing during Reading Time?" *Reading Teacher*, v41 n1 p88–89 Oct 1987.

Presents a hypothetical situation on an elementary school principal's concern for student's writing during reading time, and offers a possible teacher's response with information about the direct tie between writing and reading improvement.

Johnson, Terry D.; Louis, Daphne R. *Literacy through Literature*. Revised Edition. 1987. 160p. [ED 285 204]

Stresses the notion that children become literate by trying to read and write in a supportive

atmosphere with interesting books, rather than being instructed in isolated language skills. Offers ideas for using children's literature and related activities as an alternative to basal readers to make learning language skills enjoyable for children.

Shanahan, Timothy. "The Reading-Writing Relationship: Seven Instructional Principles," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n7 p636-47 Mar 1988.

Proposes seven instructional principles based upon research on the reading-writing relationship, and suggests specific techniques for each principle.

Smith, DeWayne. "Reading. English Language Concept Paper Number 5," 1987. 13p. [ED 287 156]

Notes that both comprehension and decoding are used by effective readers and that both processes should be taught. Focuses on effective strategies for reading instruction. Includes a list of recommended comprehension instruction activities, such as correlating reading and writing, discussing key concepts and vocabulary, using semantic mapping, and providing students with objectives. Emphasizes the use of strategies for teaching word identification and comprehension to foster increased reading ability and a love of reading.

Sternglass, Marilyn S. "Instructional Implications of Three Conceptual Models of Reading/Writing Relationships," *English Quarterly*, v20 n3 p184-93 Fall 1987.

Notes that varying the conceptual models of the relationship between reading and writing processes as parallel, interactive, or transactional has influenced instructional practices.

Research

Jagger, Angela M.; and others. "Research Currents: The Influence of Reading on Children's Narrative Writing (and Vice Versa)," *Language Arts*, v63 n3 p292-300 Mar 1986.

Illustrates how all of the language arts are used by teachers and students to uncover the imaginative potential of language and their creative potential. Models ways of thinking about and investigating how instructional experiences affect learning.

Lewis, Janice. "Support for Reading and Writing as Shared Developmental Processes." Paper presented at the 18th Annual Meeting of the Western College Reading and Learning Association, 1985. 15p. [ED 254 826]

Studies the knowledge required and the thinking involved in both reading and writing. Presents theories that both reading and writing are meaningful composing processes, and that experience in one process has an impact on the other. Suggests that there are some benefits from teaching reading and writing together, provided instruction is given in both with the intent of building on their similarities.

Marino, Jacqueline L.; and others." The Effects of Writing as a Prereading Activity on Delayed Recall of Narrative Text," *Elementary School Journal*, v86 n2 p199-205 Nov 1985.

Suggests a theoretical framework and a task-specific procedure for integrating reading and writing. Supports the notion of using writing as an orienting task prior to reading.

Pickens, Alex L. "Literacy Instruction," Educational Perspectives, v24 n1 p26 1986. [ED 285 156]

Presents five articles focusing on the creation of a literate society where people appreciate literature and can use reading to enrich their lives.

Whyte, Sarah S. "The Connection of Writing to Reading and Its Effect on Reading Comprehension." 1985. 28p. [ED 278 940]

Cites specific writing activities that enhance reading comprehension. States that reading and writing mutually affect learning; educators should teach reading and writing together within a contextual framework.

Integrating the Language Arts

Kane, Katharine A. "Integrating the Language Arts: Alternatives and Strategies." Paper presented at the 33rd Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, 1988. 4p. [ED 294 161]

Proposes integrated language arts as tools for learning in all content areas. Notes that the core of this new curriculum is to help students make sense out of a piece of literature by moving into, through, and beyond a text.

Routman, Regie. *Transitions: From Literature to Literacy*. 1988. 352p. [ED 300 779]

Describes a successful literature-based program, and offers suggestions on how any elementary classroom can benefit from a transition from skill-oriented basal texts to literature-based whole language programs.

Scott, Diana; Piazza, Carolyn L. "Integrating Reading and Writing Lessons," *Reading Horizons*, v28 n1 p57-64 Fall 1987.

Describes a cooperative endeavor between university and public school professionals in integrating reading and writing lessons. Describes the Developmental Reading and Writing Lesson program's prereading/prewriting, guided silent reading and revising, skill development and editing, and independent follow-up activities.

Tway, Eileen. *Writing Is Reading: 26 Ways to Connect.* 1985. 56p. [ED 253 877]

Suggests integration of the skills of writing and reading at an early age. Discusses research concerning the cognitive processes and acquisition of reading and writing skills, and presents teaching methods and resources to help young children make the connection.

Wagner, Betty Jane. "ERIC/RCS Report: Integrating the Language Arts," *Language Arts*, v62 n5 p557-60 Sep 1985.

Reviews materials from the ERIC system and other sources on providing natural learning situations in which reading, writing, speaking, and listening can be developed together for real purposes and real audiences in the self-contained elementary classroom.

Classroom Applications

Balajthy, Ernest. "Process Writing in the Intermediate Grades: Magical Panacea or Oversold Cliche?" Paper presented at the Conference on Language and Literacy. 1986. 19p. [ED 275 004]

Describes the concepts underlying the "whole language approach," and then examines some of the problems facing intermediate-grade teachers as they teach the writing process in their classes. Outlines the developmental writing needs of intermediate-grade students, and how writing can aid in identity building.

"The Classroom Reading Teacher," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n4 p483-95 Jan 1988.

Describes various activities designed for use in the reading classroom, including (1) cooperative learning activities, (2) reading and writing activities, (3) ways to improve comprehension, and (4) ways to encourage independent reading.

Heller, Mary F. "Comprehending and Composing through Language Experience," *Reading Teacher*, v42 n2 p130-35 Nov 1988.

Describes a Language Experience Approach (LEA) dictation given by sixth-grade remedial readers, and discusses some weaknesses in using LEA to teach remedial reading. Explains how LEA can be modified to produce a more effective model for reading comprehension and writing instruction.

Holbrook, Hilary Taylor. "ERIC/RCS Report: Writing to Learn in the Social Studies," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n2 p216-19 Nov 1987.

Provides a rationale for content area writing, and suggests ways it can be used for social studies instruction.

Janiuk, Delores M.; Shanahan, Timothy. "Applying Adult Literacy Practices in Primary Grade Instruction," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n9 p880-86 May 1988.

Suggests that learning the reasons for and uses of literacy is important for beginning readers. Describes a series of activities, based on practices uses in adult literacy programs, that were designed to make first graders aware of the reasons for reading and writing.

McVitty, Walter, ed.; and others. "Getting It Together: Organizing the Reading-Writing Classroom," 1986. 130p. [ED 278 043]

Emphasizes the importance of developing a social classroom climate. Addresses the organization of the reading/writing classroom.

Newkirk, Thomas; Atwell, Nancie, eds. *Understanding Writing: Ways of Observing, Learning, and Teaching.* 1988, 312p. [ED 288 205]

Contains 30 articles written by teachers of elementary school students designed to provide insights into the way students learn to write and to encourage teachers to examine their own theories and perceptions of writing and writing instruction.

Norris, Janet A. "Using Communication Strategies to Enhance Reading Acquisition," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n7 p668-73 Mar 1988.

Presents a transcript exemplifying principles used with beginning readers who may be unable to learn to read from traditional reading instruction. Claims strategies which allow children to communicate through written language enable them to make important discoveries about reading without knowledge of phonics or other metalinguistic skills.

Oberlin, Kelly J.; Shugarman, Sherrie L. "Purposeful Writing Activities for Students in Middle School," *Journal of Reading*, v31 n8 p720-23 May 1988.

Suggests that writing helps reading comprehension only if the writer is aware of the relationship between reading and writing and if the writing is purposeful. Presents three purposeful writing activities.

Wong-Kam, Jo Ann; Au, Kathryn H. "Improving a 4th Grader's Reading and Writing: Three Principles," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n8 p768-72 Apr 1988.

Presents three principles for working with poor readers in the upper elementary grades: (1) bring the class together as a literate community, (2) integrate reading and writing instruction, and (3) provide instruction on specific skills.

Focused Access to Selected Topics No. 35
a FAST Bib by the
Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills

Study Skills

by Michael Shermis

Research shows that effective studying techniques can help students raise their grades. A search of the ERIC database reveals the following citations on study strategies, including note-taking, test-taking, and other organizational skills, from the period 1983 to 1989. The first section of this FAST Bib provides resources for developing good study habits, how to change study behavior, allocating study time, and study strategies such as SQ3R, RESPONSE, LETME, and PORPE. The second section contains three references specifically on note-taking. Articles and papers in the last section present the latest research and theory on improving study skills.

Study Strategies

Allen, Sheilah. "Conversing about Study Skills," *Highway One*, v9 n3 p34-41 Fall 1986.

Suggests ways of diagnosing problems in students' study habits and offers strategies for improving study skills and test taking.

Allen, Sheilah. "Study Skills: A Joint Teacher-Student Responsibility," *Australian Journal of Reading*, v9 n2 p78-83 Jun 1986.

Offers a method for teachers in the content areas to teach study skills, specifically, strategies for allocating study time, reading, note taking, and studying for tests.

Beers, Penny G. "Accelerated Reading for High School Students," *Journal of Reading*, v29 n4 p311-15 Jan 1986.

Describes a one-semester ninth grade developmental reading class that includes speed reading and study and test-taking strategies. Provides a rate building and study skills bibliography.

Bragstad, Bernice Jensen; Stumpf, Sharyn Mueller. *Study Skills and Motivation. A Guidebook for Teaching*. Second Edition. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 7 Wells Avenue, Newton, MA 02159, 1987. ($35.95) 364p. [ED 288 816; document not available from EDRS]

This guidebook attempts to move theory into application by sharing ways that teachers fuse the teaching of learning processes with the teaching of course content. Chapters focus on: (1) motivating students to learn; (2) concentration and learning to focus; (3) time management; (4) remembering; (5) technical vocabulary; (6) streamlining study; (7) mapping ideas; (8) note taking; (9) test taking; (10) research papers; (11) strategic reading; (12) application to content areas; and (13) total school programs and results.

Davey, Beth. "Teams for Success: Guiding Practice in Study Skills through Cooperative Research Reports," *Journal of Reading*, v30 n8 p701-05 May 1987.

Describes an approach to writing research reports in which students work in teams, with systematic guided practice. Uses the following steps: topic selection; planning; researching the topic; organizing; and writing. Includes pointers for implementation.

Dansereau, Donald F. "Transfer from Cooperative to Individual Studying," *Journal of Reading*, v30 n7 p614-19 Apr 1987.

Considers cooperative reading and study groups and suggests activities designed to enhance individual learning and study skills for such groups.

Fitzpatrick, James E. "Success Group: Motivation for Minimum Achievers," *NASSP Bulletin*, v70 n489 p104-05 Apr 1986.

Describes an afterschool study session called Success Group to which failing or barely passing students are referred to improve their study skills. Reports that students attend these supervised sessions until their classwork or grades have improved.

Grabe, Mark. "Technological Enhancement of Study Behavior: On-Line Activities to Produce More Effective Learning," *Collegiate Microcomputer*, v6 n3 p253-59 Aug 1988.

Discusses advances in technology and in cognitive models of learning that focus on computer activities which are intended to improve the ef-

fectiveness of study behavior. Outlines specific cognitive processes contributing to successful study.

Harries, Rhonda J. "Teaching Regular Classroom Success," *Academic Therapy*, v21 n4 p447-51 Mar 1986.

Seven strategies are described to encourage resource room students' development of independent organizational skills. Suggestions include use of specific duty sheets, time management instruction, and teaching of proofreading and checking techniques.

Heimlich, Joan E.; Pittelman, Susan D. *Semantic Mapping: Classroom Applications*. Reading Aids Series, IRA Service Bulletin. International Reading Association, Newark, DE, 1986. 56p. [ED 274 959]

Presents ways in which semantic mapping can be used for general vocabulary development, as a prewriting and prereading activity, as a postreading activity, and as a study skills strategy.

Jacobson, Jeanne M. "Response: An Interactive Study Technique," *Reading Horizons*, v29 n2 p85-92 Win 1989.

Describes a study strategy called RESPONSE. Includes a reading assignment response form which focuses students' attention on important points, questions, points of confusion, and new terms and concepts.

Johnson, Linda Lee. "Learning across the Curriculum with Creative Graphing," *Journal of Reading*, v32 n6 p509-19 Mar 1989.

Describes an instructional technique called "creative graphing" in which students learn to reorder information visually, to interpret the graphic aids of their textbooks more easily, to highlight relationships that are not immediately apparent in the text, and to illuminate ideas for further exploration using charts, trees, stars, chains, and sketches.

Jones, Janet Craven. "ERIC/RCS: Reading and Study Skills: Problems in the Content Areas," *Journal of Reading*, v31 n8 p756-59 May 1988.

Discusses possible causes of the lack of good reading and study skills among United States secondary school students. Describes several techniques for improving these skills.

Maloney, Raymond. *Helping Your Child Learn at School: How Parents Support Good Study Habits in the Home*. Minerva Press, Inc., Waterford, MI, 1987. 15p. [ED 294 651]

Provides suggestions for parents who want to know how best to help their children develop study habits that will insure a good chance for school success. Discusses concentration; motivation; setting of goals that are realistic, specific, have a definite deadline, and are associated with rewards; use of self-talk for achievement; and test anxiety.

Mangrum, Charles T., II. *Learning to Study: Study Skills/Study Strategies*. Book H (Grade 8). Jamestown Publishers, P.O. Box 9168, Providence, RI 02940, 1983. ($5.80). 96p. [CS 009 415; paper copy not available from EDRS]

Provides students with examples of study strategies and location, organizational, interpretation, retention, test-taking, and rate skills.

Memory, David M.; Yoder, Carl Y. "Improving Concentration in Content Classrooms," *Journal of Reading*, v31 n5 p426-35 Feb 1988.

Presents a concentration improvement guide for students. Offers a procedure for effective presentation of the guide—reading and discussing the guide in small groups, followed by whole class discussion of reactions.

Moskowitz, Fern C. "Help Parents Boost Kids' Study Skills," *Executive Educator*, v10 n9 p26 Sep 1988.

Provides tips to help boost children's study skills, including organizing parent education sessions, establishing an after-school homework assistance program, providing homework organizers for students, and creating a homework hotline. States that once the school program is in order, parents can be invited to participate as partners.

Mullen, Joann. "The Incomplete Assignment," *Academic Therapy*, v22 n5 p469-75 May 1987.

Provides a checklist designed to help elementary school teachers assess why a student is unable to complete a classroom assignment. Lists criteria grouped under physical, academic, perceptual, behavioral, and motor factors. Suggests compensatory actions such as adapting the classroom environment or referring the student for further evaluation.

"Open to Suggestion," *Journal of Reading*, v30 n3 p262-65 Dec 1986.

Offers suggestions on how to teach students the importance of regular study habits for learning to spell, story ideas to help students get started with creative writing, and a model of a daily record assignment book to help students

organize and remember their homework assignments.

Ormrod, Jeanne Ellis; Jenkens, Lynn. "Study Strategies for Learning Spelling: What Works and What Does Not." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1988. 17p. [ED 293 871]

Examines strategies actually used by good and poor spellers at different grade levels.

Pankey, Jerome S. "The Effects of TAG and SQ3R Study Skills Methods on the Academic Achievement of Junior High Students." 1986. 9p. [ED 285 681]

Focuses on ways to enhance the study skills of students in the middle grades, and describes the use of study guides, textbook activity guides (TAGs), and the Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review (SQ3R) technique of textbook study.

Petercsak, Stephen J., Jr. *Study Skills: A Resource Book.* Ohio State Dept. of Education, Div. of In-service Education, Columbus, OH, 1986. 77p. [ED 293 090]

Reinforcing the concept that study skills instruction needs to be part of the curriculum at every grade level and should be taught through a developmental approach, this resource book provides suggested student competencies, teaching approaches, and sample activities.

Shaughnessy, Michael F.; Baker, Belinda. "Learning Strategies: Teaching Students How to Learn." 1988. 14p. [ED 300 357]

Identifies various techniques that have been used successfully in facilitating learning, including memorization, repetition, and review. Discusses the differences between active and passive learning and points out that tactics used by good students include organizational strategies, summarizing, and creating analogies. Suggests that to improve learning skills, students from their earliest years of schooling should be taught memory aids, highlighting, underlining, and summarizing.

Shenkman, Harriet. "A Theoretical Model for a Total Approach to Independent Learning," *Reading Psychology*, v7 n2 p111-19 1986.

Describes a metacognitive study method, LETME, designed to help students manage the entire study process by facilitating the understanding, selection, organization, retention, and analysis of information from expository text.

Simpson, Michele L.; and others. "An Initial Validation of a Study Strategy System," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, v20 n2 p149-80 1988.

Reports on a study to determine the effectiveness of an integrated study strategy system that uses self-assigned writing as a means of learning psychology content. Concludes that the PORPE (Predict, Organize, Rehearse, Practice, and Evaluate) system can be a potent, durable, and efficient independent study strategy.

Study Skills: A Ready Reference for Teachers. Hawaii State Dept. of Education, Office of Instructional Services, Honolulu, HI, 1988. 315p. [ED 292 276]

This reference manual provides practical strategies for teaching a wide range of study skills at the elementary and secondary grade levels.

Note-Taking

Beecher, Jeff. *Note-Taking: What Do We Know about the Benefits?* ERIC Digest No. 12. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Bloomington, IN, 1988. 2p. [CS 009 420]

Discusses whether note taking results in improved student performance on tests.

Campbell, Joan Daniels. "Note Taking: Telegram Style," *Learning*, v17 n8 p89-90 Apr 1988.

Describes how to improve students' note-taking skills by having them pretend they are journalists wiring in a story. Students must pare down information to the essentials and calculate telegram costs.

Smith, Patricia L.; Tompkins, Gail E. "Structured Notetaking: A New Strategy for Content Area Readers," *Journal of Reading*, v32 n1 p46-53 Oct 1988.

Describes a technique using expository text structures and graphic organizers as the basis for taking notes from content area texts. This technique can be transferred to note taking during lectures.

Recent Research and Theory

Allen, Jennifer M; Freitag, Kimberly Koehler. "Parents and Students as Cooperative Learners: A Workshop for Parents," *Reading Teacher*, v41 n9 p922-25 May 1988.

Stresses the importance of parental involvement in children's education. Describes a successful parent-student study-skills workshop, and discusses several common barriers to parents' participation in workshops, along with suggested solutions.

Haynes, Norris M. "Review of the Perspectives Underlying Study Skills Research with Special Emphasis on Three Motivational Dimensions: Self-Esteem, Performance Attribution and Anxiety. A Rationale for the Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ)." Paper presented at the 95th Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, 1986. 26p. [ED 283 909]

States that study skills research has progressed within the past ten years from primary concern with overt and observable study behaviors to an examination of cognitive and motivational processes underlying student learning and achievement outcomes. Argues that there is still need for a more comprehensive approach which integrates the behavioral, cognitive and motivational perspectives. Notes that a group of educational psychologists is developing the Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ), which is designed to be a complete study instrument, including motivational as well as behavioral and cognitive dimensions.

Jacobowitz, Tina. "Using Theory to Modify Practice: An Illustration with SQ3R," *Journal of Reading*, v32 n2 p126-31 Nov 1988.

Uses the example of SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review) to demonstrate how knowledge of the relationship between theory and practice makes reading and study skills instruction more meaningful. Notes that this awareness also enables teachers to modify various skills to meet student needs.

Rinehart, Steven D.; and others. "Some Effects of Summarization Training on Reading and Studying," *Reading Research Quarterly*, v21 n4 p422-38 Fall 1986.

Reports a study indicating that summarization training improved recall of major but not minor information on a studying task and that such training is an effective tool for improving reading and studying skills.

Schmidt, Cynthia Maher; and others. "But I Read the Chapter Twice," *Journal of Reading*, v32 n5 p428-33 Feb 1989.

Describes specific problems that students encounter when they begin the transition into content area studies. Examines a recent research summary on study skills for suggestions about how to address these problems.

Thomas, John W.; and others. "Grade-Level and Course-Specific Differences in Academic Studying: Summary," *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, v12 n4 p381-85 Oct 1987.

Contends that academic achievement cannot be improved by increasing the amount of time students spend on homework. Instead, achievement depends on the nature of the study activities students do.

Zimpfer, David G. "Group Work in the Treatment of Text Anxiety," *Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, v11 n4 p233-39 Nov 1986.

Presents a review of the professional literature which strongly supports the inclusion of group counseling or study skills training along with group-based cognitive or behavioral interventions as a combined approach to the treatment of test anxiety.

Focused Access to Selected Topics No. 33
a FAST Bib by the
Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills

Writing Apprehension

by Michael Shermis

Instructors of students experiencing writing apprehension can always use new strategies to put their students at ease. A search of the ERIC database produced the following citations on writing apprehension, all from the period 1985 to 1989. The first section lists sources of teaching ideas. Citations in the second section deal with the use of computers in alleviating writing apprehension. Articles and papers in the third section discuss writing apprehension in students with special needs. The last section presents references to the latest research on writing anxiety.

Instructional Strategies

Hulce, Jim. "Dewriting: Breaking into Writing," *Exercise Exchange*, v32 n2 p7-9 Spr 1987.

Suggests motivating writing apprehensive students by asking them to "remodel" passages from novels, magazines, or newspapers that have been stripped of details, descriptions, and compound sentences.

Keller, Rodney D. "The Rhetorical Cycle: Reading, Thinking, Speaking, Listening, Discussing, Writing." Paper presented at the 36th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1985. 13p. [ED 257 099]

The rhetorical cycle is a step-by-step approach that provides classroom experience before students actually write, thereby making the writing process less frustrating for them. This approach consists of six sequential steps: reading, thinking, speaking, listening, discussing, and finally writing.

McGee, Patrick. "Truth and Resistance: Teaching as a Form of Analysis," *College English*, v49 n6 p667-78 Oct 1987.

Draws a parallel between the resistance experienced by a patient in psychoanalysis and the resistance expressed by students in composition or literature courses.

Perdue, Virginia. "Confidence vs. Authority: Visions of the Writer in Rhetorical Theory." Paper presented at the 38th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1987. 15p. [ED 280 058]

By building up the confidence of student writers, writing teachers hope to reduce the hostility and anxiety so often found in authoritarian introductory college composition classes. Process oriented writing theory implicitly defines confidence as a wholly personal quality resulting from students' discovery that they do have "something to say" to readers. However, the social dimension of the writing act is lost in such a formulation. Peer group revision, journal writing, portfolios of student writing samples, and revision after turning in the paper are all methods that build personal confidence and social authority"all help dilute the concentration of authority in the teacher and give students a stake in what goes on both in the classroom and in their own writing.

Ruszkiewicz, John J. "Assuming Success: The Student Writer as Apprentice," *Freshman English News*, v15 n3 p13-15 Win 1987.

Advocates teachers' belief in students' ability to achieve writing success, rather than assuming failure that results in a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Silver, Kathi O. "The Extended Conference: A Technique to Encourage Writing," *English Journal*, v78 n1 p24-27 Jan 1989.

Describes a combined process-writing approach and extended-conference method of writing instruction applied to eighth grade students. Presents the experiences of several students who refused to write at first but soon became proud of their writing after several extended conferences.

Tighe, Mary Ann. "Reducing Writing Apprehension in English Classes." Paper presented at the 6th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English Spring Conference, 1987. 18p. [ED 281 196]

In an effort to reduce student writing apprehension, an informal, in-class study was conducted in a lower-level college writing course at

an Alabama university. Throughout the course, all writing was based on student experiences and came from student journals, all assignments were completed in class and reviewed in small group discussions, and specific criteria from a rating scale used to evaluate student essays were discussed. Findings from these observations and Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) posttest scores indicated that 13 students were less apprehensive about their writing after the course than before it. In addition, results showed that students wrote more in their later essays, suggesting a greater willingness to commit themselves on paper.

Unger, Brian. "Operation Extermination: How to Deal with Writer's Apprehension," *Highway One*, v9 n3 p29-33 Fall 1986.

Offers a test for identifying students with writing apprehension and offers strategies for dealing with these students.

Computers and Writing Instruction

Herrmann, Andrea W. "Teaching Teachers to Use Computers as Writing Tools," *English Education*, v20 n4 p215-29 Dec 1988.

Describes an ethnographic study of an in-service graduate course designed to help teachers use computers to teach writing and other skills to the academically able. Claims the course significantly reduced teachers' computer anxiety and their writing apprehension.

Le, Thao. "Computers as Partners in Writing: A Linguistic Perspective," *Journal of Reading* v32 n7 p606-10 Apr 1989.

Argues that computers can be useful partners in the writing process even for reluctant or poor writers. Describes from a linguistic perspective factors that help explain why writing is a difficult task and briefly describes several computer programs which are based on such factors.

Teichman, Milton; Poris, Marilyn. *Wordprocessing in the Classroom: Its Effects on Freshman Writers.* 1985. 59p. [ED 276 062]

To learn more about the impact of word processing on the writing of college freshmen, a study investigated several aspects of how using word processing affects the writing process, including whether word processing affects writing anxiety. Findings showed that using computers significantly reduced writing apprehension while also increasing a student's ability to recognize standard written English.

Teichman, Milton; Poris, Marilyn. "Initial Effects of Word Processing on Writing Quality and Writing Anxiety of Freshman Writers." Paper presented at the 39th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1988. 33p. [ED 294 217]

Examines the initial effects of word processing on essay-writing performance and on writing apprehension. Eighty students wrote essays using terminals linked to a mainframe computer (experimental group), while another 80 students wrote essays in the traditional mode using pens, pencils, or typewriters (control group). Finds that the experimental group made greater progress than the control group from the pre- to post-essay test, but the same group did not demonstrate superior performance on the six required essays of the course. For writing apprehension, there was no significant difference between the two groups.

Varner, Iris I.; Grogg, Patricia Marcum. "Microcomputers and the Writing Process," *Journal of Business Communication*, v25 n3 p69-78 Sum 1988.

Assesses the microcomputer's effects on the process and quality of business writing, focusing on writing anxiety, computer anxiety, time spent in writing, writing quality, and the relationship of gender to these variables. Concludes that the most significant predictor of quality is initial writing ability.

Special Needs Students

Baxter, Barbara. "Basic Writing: Breaking through the Barriers of Apathy and Fear." Paper presented at the 22nd Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Conference on English in the Two-Year College, 1987. 13p. [ED 286 202]

When students have difficulty writing, it is often because they are apathetic or afraid of failing, rather than because of a serious lack of skill. Basic writing teachers must break through student apathy and fear before the students can make progress. There are several methods to help students to regard writing as a conquerable skill, providing them with the impetus for further self-directed learning.

Betancourt, Francisco; Phinney, Marianne. "Sources of Writing Block in Bilingual Writers," *Written Communication*, v5 n9 p461-78 Oct 1988.

Presents findings of a descriptive study designed to compare instances of writer's block in English and Spanish, among and within three groups of bilingual writers. Tries to determine if the same writing factors stymie both the novice

bilingual writer and the practiced bilingual writer. Suggests ways to lessen writing apprehension.

Brown, Stuart; and others. "Reading-Writing Connections: College Freshman Basic Writers' Apprehension and Achievement." Paper presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1986. 18p. [ED 274 965]

Focusing on the relationships between performance, skills, and attitudes, a study conducted at the University of Arizona measured the effects of reading and writing apprehension on basic writers. Results suggested that the course, designed to equip students with strategies for composing, helped students gain the confidence necessary to increase writing skill.

Wolcott, Willa; Buhr, Dianne. "Attitude as It Affects Developmental Writers' Essays," *Journal of Basic Writing*, v6 n2 p3-15 Fall 1987.

Explores developmental students' attitudes toward writing as a reflection of their writing performance. Finds that the skills of students with positive attitudes toward writing improved significantly more than did those of students with neutral or negative attitudes. Includes a student writing-attitude questionnaire and a questionnaire analysis sheet.

Recent Research

Aikman, Carol C. "Writing Anxiety-Barrier to Success." Paper presented at the National Adult Education Conference, 1985. 12p. [ED 262 191]

Research into writing anxiety is an offshoot of research into oral communication anxiety. At first, researchers thought that people with high oral communication anxiety tended to compensate by writing. However, when the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test was used, it was found that the link between oral and written anxiety did not exist. Recent research is leading to the conclusion that anxiety is not the real culprit behind poor writing but is only a component of a negative attitude about writing. Writing may be improved by a change in the perceptions of the teacher/evaluator about writing attitudes. One of the ways to counteract writing anxiety is to improve the skills of the writer. Writing skills improvement courses in schools and work settings should be taught in nontraditional ways, and evaluation by teachers should be reduced, substituting peer or self-evaluation when possible.

Allen, Jeanne Vasterling. "Student Writing Apprehension: A Psychotherapeutic Approach." Paper presented at the Meeting of the Basic Writing Conference, 1985. 31p. [ED 270 793]

Writing apprehension needs to be understood, and solutions found for it, so that students' fears can be lessened and their success with writing increased. Carl Roger's client-centered, nondirective psychotherapy applies well to teaching composition. This approach was utilized in a class of freshman composition students in order to determine the degree of attitude improvement during one semester. Results indicated that it does not necessarily reduce writing apprehension, and that writing apprehension tests need to be given at the beginning of a course to identify fearful students so they can be helped.

Bennett, Kaye; Rhodes, Steven C. "Writing Apprehension and Writing Intensity in Business and Industry," *Journal of Business Communication*, v25 n1 p25-39 1988.

Tests the hypothesis that high writing-apprehensive subjects would differ significantly from low writing-apprehensive subjects regarding the writing intensity of their jobs. Suggests that where a lack of writing productivity exists in writing-intensive jobs, managers might explore writing-apprehension problems, or at least examine the match between levels of apprehension and writing requirements.

Bizarro, Patrick; Toler, Hope. "The Effects of Writing Apprehension on the Teaching Behaviors of Writing Center Tutors," *Writing Center Journal*, v7 n1 p37-43 Fall/Win 1986.

Reports on a study of writing apprehension in writing center tutors, results of which indicated a strong correspondence between various dimensions of writing apprehension and specific teaching behaviors that do not aid the student in problem detection or writing improvement.

Donlan, Dan. "When Teacher-Researchers Compare Notes on Writing Apprehension," *English Journal*, v75 n5 p87-89 Sep 1986.

Outlines research done by teachers on writing apprehension and concludes that teachers are natural researchers because they continually pose questions about the nature of their students and the effectiveness of their teaching.

Donlan, Dan; Andreatta, Sylvia. "Determining the Independence of Dispositional and Situational Writing Apprehension." Paper presented at the 6th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teach-

ers of English Spring Conference, 1987. 15p. [ED 279 023]

To determine whether teacher intervention in the form of experimentally manipulated variables would significantly change the level of students' dispositional writing apprehension, a study evaluated the effects of two classroom interventions—one apprehension-producing (AP) and one apprehension-reducing (AR). Findings showed that (1) the growth scores in the AP group were significantly different from those in the AR group; (2) the number of students experiencing decreased dispositional apprehension was significantly higher in the AR group than in the AP group; and (3) the number of students experiencing an increase in dispositional apprehension was significantly higher in the AP group than in the AR group.

Hollandsworth, Lindap. "How Personality and Background Affect Writing Attitudes." 1988. 32p. [ED 296 336]

Examines the effects of background and personality on the attitudes of developing writers. Finds a significant correlation between writers' attitudes and their personality traits, writing apprehension, and writing background.

McLeod, Susan. "Some Thoughts about Feelings: The Affective Domain and the Writing Process," *College Composition and Communication*, v38 n4 p426-34 Dec 1987.

Presents three broad areas—writing anxiety, motivation, and beliefs—that seem to be ripe for study in terms of affect, and suggests that the constructivist views refined by George Mandler could be helpful to drive such research.

Rose, Mike, ed. *When a Writer Can't Write: Studies in Writer's Block and Other Composing-Process Problems.* Perspectives in Writing Research Series. The Guilford Press, 200 Park Ave. South, New York, NY 10003, 1985. ($30.00) 272p. [ED 264 590; document not available from EDRS]

The essays in this book address various cognitive and emotional dimensions of disrupted composing and describe some of the situational variables that can contribute to it. Includes the following essays: "Blocking and the Young Writer"; "Emotional Scenarios in the Writing Process: An Examination of Young Writers' Affective Experiences"; "Writing Apprehension"; "An Apprehensive Writer Composes"; "Problems with Monitor Use in Second Language Composing"; "Anxious Writers in Context: Graduate School and Beyond"; "Inventing the University"; "Diagnosing Writing-Process Problems: A Pedagogical Application of Speaking-Aloud Protocol Analysis"; "Psychotherapies for Writing Blocks"; "The Essential Delay: When Writer's Block Isn't"; and "Complexity, Rigor, Evolving Method, and the Puzzle of Writer's Block: Thoughts on Composing-Process Research."

Focused Access to Selected topics No. 29
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Writing and Literature

By Michael Shermis

Writing can be used in many ways in the study of literature; equally, literature may be utilized to foster invention in students' writing. A search of the ERIC database produced the following citations on writing and literature, from the period 1982 to 1989. The first section includes strategies, techniques, exercises, activities, and ideas for integrating literature into the writing process. The second section cites two sources for combining the use of computers with writing and literature. The last section examines two studies on extending literature into the writing curriculum.

Teaching Strategies

Ascher, Hope; and others. *American Literature: Performance Objectives and Classroom Activities.* Brevard County School Board, Cocoa, FL, 1983. 97p. [ED 255 913]

This guide is a sampler of ideas and activities based on 22 minimum objectives in speech, reading, writing, and research that have been identified for American literature study.

Askew, Lida. "The Gothic Route to Reading and Writing," *English Journal*, v72 n3 p102-03 Mar 1983.

Describes a unit in which gothic novels are first read and then used by students as models for the writing of an entire "gothic" novel of their own.

Bay, Lois Marie Zinke. "Astute Activities: Increasing Cognitive and Creative Development in the Language Arts Classroom." Paper presented at the Regional Spring Conference of the Colorado Language Arts Society, Colorado Springs, CO, 1987. 138p. [ED 295 156]

Using Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn*, John Knowles' *A Separate Peace*, and Maya Angelou's *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings*, a study examined the effects of Astute Activities—teaching techniques which increase students' cognitive ability and creativity—on student performance in two senior English classes in a small rural high school. Activities included mind mapping, brainstorming, creative writing exercises using characters from the novels, and discussions of various issues from the characters' perspectives. Finds that Astute Activities stimulated most students' thinking, increased their awareness of issues, increased the creativity of their work, both written and spoken, and matured their writing.

Carter, Dennis. "Gulliver in Demon," *Use of English*, v38 n1 p1-6 Fall 1986.

Describes how "Gulliver's Travels" was used with 11- and 12-year'olds to stimulate writing activities.

Collington, Mark. "Generating Sentences from Prescribed Conjunctions: An Exercise in Composition for the Classroom," *English Quarterly*, v16 n2 p55-58 Sum 1983.

Presents exercises combining sentence generation from prescribed conjunctions with analysis of literary characters.

Crosher, Judith. "From a Teacher's Notebook—19: Using 13 Types of Narrative," *Use of English*, v37 n1 p47-55 Fall 1985.

Explains how to involve students in a composition unit that requires them to complete writing assignments from various points of view.

Daily, Sandra. "A Novel Approach to Composition," *English Journal*, v71 n8 p26-28 Dec 1982.

Recommends using young adult literature to teach basic composition skills.

Edelman, Michael. *Teaching Literature, Grade 9: Integrating the Communication Arts. Poetry. Experimental.* Division of Curriculum and Instruction, 131 Livingston St., Room 613, New York City Board of Education, Brooklyn, NY, 1985. ($4.00) 89p. [ED 290 151; paper copy not available from EDRS]

Designed to demonstrate a variety of ways in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities can be built around the study of poetry, this collection of materials, lessons, and activities covers some of the most frequently taught poems in New York City ninth-grade classrooms.

Groth, Nancy; and others. "Enhancing Literature with Writing Assignments." Paper presented at the 5th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teach-

ers of English Spring Conference, 1986. 26p. [ED 276 034]

On the basis of a National Humanities project proposed by the English department of a St. Louis, Missouri high school, many different approaches to drawing students into writing about and understanding literature were developed. One of three such techniques is a sequence of writing-reading-writing that offers the possibility of both enhancing the success of writing with greater understanding and reading with a clearer focus. A second technique is the use of creative journal writing. Journal assignments before, during, and after reading can stimulate student interest in unit themes, anticipation of characters and plots in certain pieces of literature, and responses to literature in ways other than the traditional critical/analytical essay. A third technique is the use of writing for accountability in lieu of book reports or quizzes. Journal assignments can be structured to help teachers determine whether students have read their literature assignments and how well they comprehend the readings.

Hipple, Ted. "Writing and Literature," *English Journal*, v73 n2 p50-53 Feb 1984.

Proposes ways of blending the study of literature and the teaching of writing. Suggests assignments that involve writing or rewriting literature, writing about literature, and writing in response to literature.

Idea Exchange for English Teachers. National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1983. 198p. [ED 228 642]

Contains fresh, useful ideas for teaching English gathered at several annual conventions of the National Council of Teachers of English. Includes activities for talking and writing about literature.

Ideas Plus: A Collection of Practical Teaching Ideas. Book Two. National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1985. 64p. [ED 251 860]

Contributed by high school English teachers across the United States, the activities contained in this booklet are intended to promote the effective teaching of English and the language arts. Activities are designed to stimulate an appreciation of classic and contemporary literature, and to suggest techniques for introducing literary works to students. Specific activities deal with sentence combining, comparing themes and characters in prose and poetry, transforming literature to a newspaper format, creating playscripts, and comparing ancient myths to modern versions.

Ideas Plus: A Collection of Practical Teaching Ideas. Book Six. National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1988. 66p. [ED 297 345]

Contributed by English teachers across the United States, the activities contained in this booklet are intended to promote the effective teaching of English and the language arts. Teaching strategies offered in the first section of the booklet are designed to stimulate language exploration, with such activities as designing and carrying out independent research, using reading logs as motivators, passing along good news to parents, preparing oral book reports on "how to" books, and using comic strips and cartoons to teach many elements of language and literature. Activities in the second section are designed to stimulate an appreciation and understanding of literature. Specific activities in this section can be used to help students understand the distinction between plot and theme, focus their responses to a reading, link their own experiences to those of a protagonist, write poems in the voice of a particular character, understand and write character sketches, learn about Greek myths and monsters, and plan and carry out classroom protests. Activities in the third section, intended to help students improve the conception and clarity of their prose through prewriting and writing, include student self-evaluation and goal-setting, describing favorite assignments in a letter to parents, writing about world events that have touched their lives, and keeping track of multiple plot lines as they write their own interactive books.

Kaufmann, Felice A., ed. *Ideas Plus: A Collection of Practical Teaching Ideas. Book Five.* National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1987. 64p. [ED 284 292]

Contributed by high school English teachers across the United States, the activities contained in this booklet are intended to promote the effective teaching of English and the language arts. Includes activities that are designed to stimulate an appreciation and understanding of classical and contemporary literature, and to suggest techniques for introducing literary works to students. Specific activities can be used to help students understand the importance of the oral history of Beowulf, predict what might happen next in a novel, analyze an author's style, compose letters based on Alexander Pope's "The Rape of the Lock," write an additional episode

for H. G. Wells' time traveler, and develop conversations about a novel read out of class.

Olson, Gary A. "Invention and Writing about Literature," *Teaching English in the Two Year College*, v9 n1 p35-38 Fall 1982.

Describes a heuristic for writing about literature, especially drama and fiction. Questions from the heuristic cover character, plot, setting, and literary devices.

Otten, Nicholas; Stelmach, Marjorie. "Changing the Story That We All Know (Creative Reading/Creative Writing)," *English Journal*, v77 n6 p67-68 Oct 1988.

Describes a writing assignment in which students rewrite literary classics or fairy tales from a new perspective (i.e. making an originally minor character the protagonist, or putting the original story into a different century).

Queenan, Margaret. "To Understand a Magazine, Produce a Magazine," *Exercise Exchange*, v30 n2 p18-21 Spr 1985.

Presents steps for a writing class project in producing thematic magazines that parallel the writing and literature themes of the course.

Rivalland, Judith; Johnson, Terry. "Literary Lifeboat: An Environmental Approach to Writing Instruction," *Australian Journal of Reading*, v11 n1 p42-53 Mar 1988.

Presents an instructional unit, "Literary Lifeboat," a purposeful writing exercise in which students write character justifications for familiar stories.

Sears, Peter. "Write to the Heart of Literature," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, v17 n1 p4-10 Sep'Oct 1985.

Suggests methods for improving the quality of essay exams when teaching literature.

Smagorinsky, Peter; and others. "Explorations: Introductory Activities for Literature and Composition, 7-12." ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, IL; National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1987. 55p. [ED 279 008]

Noting that teachers sometimes fail to draw on students' prior knowledge, this guide focuses on helping teachers both to think about the cognitive processes involved in learning and to design activities that provide students with a solid introduction to various learning tasks. The first section briefly discusses current theory and research in secondary literature and composition as they relate to learning processes. The second section includes a description of reading comprehension activities intended to spark students' interest while enhancing their understanding of various types of frequently taught literature. These activities include opinionnaires, scenario-based activities, studying cases, and role-playing simulations.

Spicer, Andrew. "Beyond the Critical Essay: 'A' Level English as a Course in Writing," *Use of English*, v38 n3 p20-28 Sum 1987.

Notes that syllabus requirements for British secondary school literature courses tacitly create a course in writing as well. Presents ways in which this writing component can be implemented, without isolating it from the literature component.

Stahlschmidt, Agnes. "Teaching with Trade Books, K-8: Library Resource Materials for Teachers and Students." Paper presented at the Annual Spring Conference of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1989. 8p. [CS 221 778]

This annotated bibliography of library resource materials includes a section on integrating literature into the classroom.

Stewig, John Warren. "Children's Literature: An Impetus to Composition." Paper presented at the 20th Annual Meeting of the Texas Joint Council of Teachers of English, 1985. 19p. [ED 255 917]

Noting that too many children leave elementary school without developing the ability to use words imaginatively, this paper presents a teaching approach that uses literature to foster invention in children's writing. The approach described is part of a total composition program that structures writing experiences in which children observe settings, people, and occurrences and then write about them. The paper first presents a rationale for reading literature aloud to children, then offers six writing techniques that children can explore subsequent to listening to literature read aloud: (1) story retelling, (2) writing alphabet books with a story line, (3) writing a story for a wordless picture book, (4) writing endings for unfinished stories read aloud, (5) writing stories with a plot structure parallel to a story read aloud, and (6) rewriting stories from a different point of view.

Watson, Dorothy J., ed. *Ideas and Insights: Language Arts in the Elementary School.* National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1987. 246p. [ED 287 173]

Intended to provide elementary school language arts teachers with new and interesting

teaching activities, this book contains over 100 teacher-tested classroom activities that are based on the Whole Language approach to learning. One of the chapters discusses how literature points the way (including themes and organization, literature and experience, and extended literature). Includes a 15-page bibliography, which contains a section on extending literature and reading that leads to writing, and a list of teaching activities.

Using Computers

Schwartz, Helen J. "The Student as Producer and Consumer of Text: Computer Uses in English Studies," 1986. 14p. [ED 283 211]

Computer use in the English classroom has the potential to help students enjoy and integrate their learning of writing and reading of literature in new ways. This new relationship between the student and machine-readable text can be thought of in terms of Alvin Toffler's theory of the "prosumer," a person who uses Information Age technology to combine the role of producer and consumer. Computer use in English classrooms can integrate the study of literature and creative writing, reading skills and writing skills, giving the student a new "prosumer" role as both producer and consumer of text.

Shostak, Robert, ed. *Computers in Composition Instruction.* International Council for Computers in Education, 1787 Agate Street, Eugene, OR, 1984. ($6.00 prepaid; quantity discounts) 89p. [ED 240 702; paper copy not available from EDRS]

This volume consists of nine conference papers and journal articles concerned with microcomputer applications in the teaching of writing. A heuristic device that describes the computer as a tool for helping writers discover, arrange, and style ideas by means of interactive questioning strategies for writing about literature is described by Helen Schwartz in "But What Do I Write—Literary Analysis Made Easier."

Research

Hayes, Mary F., ed.; and others. *Teachers at Work: Articles from the Ohio Writing Project.* Miami University, Oxford, OH, 1983. 163p. [ED 232 209]

Prepared by classroom teachers, the papers in this collection synthesize teaching experiences with recent writing research revelations. Extending literature through writing in the elementary school classroom is one of the topics.

Stewig, John Warren. "Gifted Children Write from Literature," *Journal of Teaching Writing,* v6 n2 p211-20 Fall-Win 1987.

Presents specific implications of writing research for teachers who work with gifted youngsters in elementary school writing. Supports the use of derived plot patterns and changed point of view as two types of literature-based writing assignments that work especially well with gifted students.

Focused Access to Selected Topics No. 13
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Poetry–Writing Instruction

by Mary Morgan

The ERIC database provides a wealth of suggestions for teaching poetry-writing to students at the elementary and secondary level. The information in these articles concentrates not only on the formal aspects of poetry-writing, but also discusses how poetry-writing instruction can encourage personal expression and creativity. An overview section focuses on how poetry writing can stimulate both students and teachers, and act as a catalyst for personal growth. The next section provides articles discussing a variety of poetic forms, including free verse, cinquain, haiku, concrete, and found poetry. The renga-a Japanese chain poem-is presented as a collaborative writing activity; other creative approaches are suggested to help students conceptualize and practice contemporary poetic forms.

The core of this FAST Bib is devoted to practical teaching strategies—strategies suitable for all levels, as well as those specifically suited to elementary, junior high, and senior high school students. Articles in these sections provide suggestions for poetry assignments, address the problem of assessing students' poetry, and present ideas for activities which create enthusiasm for writing poetry. Finally, a section on computer-assisted instruction tells of computer programs designed to help students write poetry.

Overview

Carter, John Marshall. "Transforming the Self through Poetry," *Clearing House*, v58 n6 p256-60 Feb 1985.

States that language arts teachers should be agents for personal growth and development. Suggests using an extensive poetry project as an avenue to personal transformation.

Hollingsworth, Craig R. "ERIC/RCS Report: Poetry and Drama: Alternatives in the Composition Course," *English Journal*, v74 n5 p60-62 Sep 1985.

Discusses how incorporating a short poetry or drama unit in a composition course can stimulate both students and teachers. Notes that benefits include more creative thinking, better attitudes toward writing and assignments, and sharpened revision skills.

Focus on Form

"Poetic Forms: A New Look," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, v19 n1 p1-7 Sep-Oct 1987.

Adapted from the forthcoming book, *The Teachers & Writers Handbook of Poetic Forms*, this article defines forms, summarizes their histories, quotes examples, and offers teachers, students, and beginning writers suggestions on how to read and compose in each form. Discusses free verse, ghazal, epic, prose poem, line, spoonerism, imitation, and villanelle.

Burgess, Carol A. "Five Lines for Sixth Grade. (A Lesson Model for Teaching the Writing of the Cinquain Poem to Sixth Grade Students.)." 1987. 9 p.[ED 286 179]

Describes how sixth grade students can use cinquain poems to explore language, learn grammar, and write creatively.

Gorrell, Nancy. "Let Found Poetry Help Your Students Find Poetry," *English Journal*, v78 n2 p30-34 Feb 1989.

Presents a series of three lessons based on found poems. Includes a discussion on what poetry is; developing a poetic; and sharing poetry with others through peer analysis and small group discussion of each student's found poem.

Pino, Cynthia L. *Rx for Formula Poetry in the Content Area: An Activities Book*. Volusia County Schools, Daytona Beach, Fla., 1983. 35 p. [ED 272 880]

Provides activities for teaching formula poetry (poetry written according to a defined format) in all subject areas. Outlines instructions for teaching students to write bio-poems, cinquains, concrete poems, definition poems, diamante poems, five-sense poems, found poetry, haiku, inside/outside poems, parallel poems, and vertical name poems. Gives examples of poems that have been written in science, social studies, and English classes.

Rodriguez, William Robert. "Three Approaches to Writing the First Poem," *English Journal*, v74 n4 p33-37 Apr 1985.

Suggests that by using the three approaches to writing the first poem—breath-grouping, prose-poetry, and the repeater—students will conceptualize and practice some of the possible forms of contemporary poetry.

Schwartz, Jeffrey. "Renga: Teaching a Collaborative Poem," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, v15 n3 p1-3 Jan-Feb 1984.

Suggests that classroom exploration of the renga, a chain poem developed in eighth-century Japan, can awaken students' sense of the choices and constraints in writing.

Suhor, Charles. "How to Draw a Poem: Concrete Poetry in the Classroom," *Louisiana English Journal*, v15 p43-51 Fall 1975. 11 p. [ED 239 297]

Examines over 1,000 student poems to show the wide variety of forms taken by concrete poetry. Notes that students appear to enjoy reading and writing concrete poetry and gradually grow in critical analysis skills as they talk about the poems. Includes numerous examples of students' concrete poems.

Teaching Strategies: All Levels

Clinton, DeWitt. "A Writer's Suggestions for Teaching Creative Writing." Paper presented, in part, at the 25th Annual Convention of the Wisconsin Council of Teachers of English, 1983. 8 p. [ED 233 369]

Suggests activities which generate excitement for poetry writing. Activities include: 1) improvising ways in which poetry can be written in alternative media; 2) studying and listening to ballads, followed by writing, practice, and performance; 3) starting a column of poetry in the school or town newspaper; 4) bringing a poet into the classroom; 5) publishing a journal in which students contribute poetry and prose as well as editorial and production time; and 7) producing and directing an annual poetry festival, featuring dramatic performances of "Spoon River" poems, epics, ballads, and favorite poems.

Haugen, Nancy S., ed.; and others. *A Guide to Teaching Creative Writing: Poetry*. University of Wisconsin, Madison. Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction, 1981. 62 p. [ED 220 864]

This teacher's guide is intended to stimulate students' writing and reading of poetry. Contains activities for K-12, divided into primary, intermediate, and secondary levels, each with objectives, strategies, activities, and models. Includes suggestions for evaluating poetry, a bibliography, and a list of other suggested resources.

Tsujimato, Joseph I. *Teaching Poetry Writing to Adolescents*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, IL; National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1988. 120 p. [ED 295 214]

Intended as a general model for poetry-writing instruction, this guide, although originally written for teachers of seventh and eighth graders, is adaptable to all levels. Includes chapters on the teacher and his/her students, and the theoretical model upon which poetry assignments are designed. Presents 18 poetry assignments for the classroom.

Teaching Strategies: Grades 1–8

Bizarro, Patrick. "Teacher as Writer and Researcher: The Poetry Dilemma," *Language Arts*, v60 n7 p851-59 Oct 1983.

Discusses the use of models for teaching children to write, suggesting that successive drafts rather than a finished poem are more effective models of the revision process. Includes three drafts of a poem by the author, discussing observations for teaching illustrated by the poem's revision process.

Chapman, Diane L. "Poet to Poet: An Author Responds to Child-Writers," *Language Arts*, v62 n3 p235-42 Mar 1985.

Describes a two-day residence by poet Arnold Adoff in a fifth- and sixth-grade classroom. Presents his interaction with five students as they struggle with their poetry writing.

Derricotte, Toi; Bass, Madeline Tiger. *Creative Writing: A Manual for Teachers*. New Jersey State Council on the Arts, Trenton, 1985. 23 p. [ED 267 433]

Contains suggestions and exercises for teaching creative writing, and provides a message to teachers about the writers-in-the-school program. Outlines detailed exercises in four categories: memory, imagery, metaphor, and music. Presents 20 "easy recipes" or instructional suggestions, answers to questions teachers often ask, and a brief list of resources.

Fagin, Larry; Padgett, Ron. "Fantasy Helmets," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, v18 n2 p1-6 Nov-Dec 1986.

Discusses a teacher's experience writing poems with eight third and fifth graders pulled from their regular classrooms. Provides transcripts of the two poems written with the students.

Freeman, Ruth H. "Poetry Writing in the Upper Elementary Grades," *Reading Teacher*, v37 n3 p238-42 Dec 1983.

Notes that poetry writing can be a natural and interesting part of the language arts curriculum. Offers an approach to teaching poetry to intermediate grade students that leads them to accept and like poetry.

Greenberg, Harry. "Writing with Family Album Photos," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, v14 n5 p1-4 May-Jun 1983.

Describes a poetry writing exercise that used photographs as a stimulus. Presents some poems produced by this exercise.

Marsh, Elizabeth. "Beginning Reading, Writing and Poetry." 1982. 31 p. [ED 258 132]

Describes a program which makes beginning reading an activity in which children use their cognitive and affective abilities to experience images and ideas within a piece. Includes suggestions for the ideal physical arrangement of the classroom and poetry accessibility. Details a model classroom schedule, incorporating reading and writing poetry, that provides four times throughout the day when four different poetry activities could be used. Sample poems and suggestions for student activities for each of those areas are provided.

Teaching Strategies: Grades 9–12

"Poetry Instruction. Motivator of the Month." compiled from columns in three issues of *Notes Plus*, v1 n3 Jan 1984; v2 n2 Nov 1984; and v3 n1 Sep 1985. 5 p. [ED 264 561]

Presents teaching activities from four journal columns focusing on understanding and writing poetry at the high school level.

Edelman, Michael. *Teaching Literature Grade 9: Integrating the Communication Arts. Poetry. Experimental.* New York City Board of Education, Brooklyn, N.Y. Div. of Curriculum and Instruction, 1985. 89 p. [ED 290 151]

Designed to demonstrate a variety of ways in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities can be built around the study of poetry, this collection of materials, lessons, and activities covers some of the most frequently taught poems in New York City ninth-grade classrooms. Provides specific suggestions for teaching the poetry to ninth-grade students. A list of poems appearing in the guide is included.

Miller, Judith. "Evaluating Student Poetry," *English Journal*, v78 n2 p35-39 Feb 1989.

Discusses how to assess student poetry, focusing on the qualities of internal logic, tone, music words, figurative language, stanzas and line length, space, detail, voice, and "life."

Murphy, Tom. "Bad Poems/Good Poems: How Do I Know What I Mean Till I See What I Say?" *English Journal*, v78 n2 p24-29 Feb 1989.

Presents a series of exercises aimed at helping students generate lines and ideas for their poetry.

Shaughnessy, Shari E. "Creating Poetry," *Exercise Exchange*, v32 n2 p45-53 Spr 1987.

Provides a step-by-step approach to teaching students the elements of poetry, such as similes, acrostics, metaphors, and odes. Copies of handouts are included.

Spinner, Bettye T. "Re-Vision: The Student as Poet." Paper presented at the 76th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1986. 30 p. [ED 290 170]

Explains how one teacher developed a method for teaching poetry successfully in an all-male remedial high school class. Discusses the literary theory underlying this pedagogical approach, derived from psychology and Adrienne Rich's views of writing as re-vision. Appendixes include: poetry workshop guidelines; instructions for student samples of different types of poetry; and a list of seven useful references for poetry teachers.

Wagner, Maryfrances. "Preventive Maintenance: Establishing a Climate for Poetry." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Missouri Association of Teachers of English, 1985. 17 p. [ED 267 441]

Describes several ways that teachers can help students learn the art of good poetry writing. Suggestions include: 1) providing students with a list of words not to use—overused nouns, overused or opinionated adjectives and adverbs, and assorted cliches; 2) offering advice from famous writers, editors, and publishers; 3) focusing on one skill at a time while presenting models of good poetry; and 4) encouraging students to enter contests or submit poems for publication.

Computer-Assisted Poetry–Writing Instruction

Marcus, Stephen. "The Muse and the Machine: A Computers and Poetry Project," *Pipeline*, v8 n1 p10-12 Spr 1983.

Describes "Compupoem," a program that helps students write poems, emphasizes pro-

cess/product, and encourages divergent problem-solving. A sample student session and a completed poem are provided. Also describes the Computers and Poetry Project, which produces elementary/secondary-level, interactive poetry-writing activities.

Pedersen, Elray L. "Computers and the Poetry Portfolio." Paper presented at the 76th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1986. 16 p.[ED 277 012]

Presents ideas based on an example and precept method of teaching instead of an analysis and explication method. Explains how students can produce a poetry portfolio of different types of poems. Discusses the advantages of having students write and illustrate their poetry using microcomputers and word-processing software. Appendixes provide sample assignments for 12 kinds of poetry, with a full explanation of each type, and examples of students' poetry.

Shostak, Robert. "Computer-Assisted Composition Instruction: Some Promising Practices," *Pipeline*, v8 n1 p4-6 Spr 1983.

Describes computer programs designed to assist in teaching composition. These include an elementary school writing program, poetry writing programs, and four writing/editing programs (dealing with text already written and needing revision or for helping students develop a higher level of sophistication with specific skills already demonstrated in their writing).

Focused Access to Selected topics No. 11
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Word Processing and Writing Instruction for Students with Special Needs

by Michael Shermis

Much has been written on and about word processing and writing instruction. But is there anything addressing the problem of students with special needs? The ERIC database includes several resources that will provide useful and informative suggestions on the integration of computers in basic writing classes, in classes with the learning disabled (LD), and in the English as a second language (ESL) classroom.

The citations in the first section discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using word processors in writing instruction with LD students and suggest instructional approaches to use. The second section lists sources that examine the benefits of word processors to basic writers, along with ideas on how and when to introduce word-processing skills. Articles and papers in the last section deal with how to integrate the use of computers into the ESL classroom.

Learning Disabled (LD)

Candler, Ann C.; Keefe, Charlotte Hendrick. "The Word Processor as a Tool for the Learning Disabled Student." Paper presented at the 65th Annual Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children, 1987. 19 p. [ED 285 315]

Reviews the advantages and disadvantages of using word-processing programs with LD students, describes some available programs, delineates criteria for selection of word-processing programs, and considers expanded uses of word processing with this population. Suggests word-processing programs recommended for LD students: "Bank Street Writer," "Talking Screen Textwriting Program," "Quill," and "Magic Slate."

Collins, Terence: Price, Lynda. "A Guide to Selecting Word-Processing Software for Learning Disabled College Writers." Working Paper. Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, 1986. 17 p. [ED 267 412]

Discusses what needs must be addressed when selecting word-processing software for use in helping LD adults overcome writing problems. Lists five criteria: (1) visible program logic; (2) clarity of on-screen working features; (3) the manufacturer's documentation and tutorial; (4) on-screen working features; and (5) multisensory approaches.

Collins, Terence; Price, Lynda. "Testimony from Learning Disabled College Writers on the Efficacy of Word Processing in their Writing Process." Working Paper. Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, 1986. 32 p. [ED 267 411]

Records in an interview format the responses of LD college-aged writers to a research program that used word processors and was intended to help understand their writing processes.

Dalton, Bridget M.; and others. "'I've Lost My Story!' Integrating Word Processing with Writing Instruction." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1988. 21 p. [ED 296 717]

Focuses on ways to teach normally achieving and LD students the machine skills they need to make the computer a fluent writing tool. Identifies the word-processing skills that students need to learn and the ones that are most difficult, and the instructional approaches that work best in teaching word-processing skills. Suggests several factors that contribute to students' difficulties and points to some practical directions for teaching word-processing skills more effectively.

Dunham, Trudy. *Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, Evaluation Report*, 1985-86. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, 1987. 80 p. [ED 286 188]

Describes the Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, implemented at the University of Minnesota during the 1985-86 school year and designed to aid LD college students master

composition skills through training in the use of microcomputer word processors.

Engen-Wedin, Nancy; Collins, Terence. "Composition, Word Processing, and the Learning Disabled College Writer: An Annotated Bibliography." Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, 1986. 68 p. [ED 267 410]

Annotates works in the following areas: the role of microcomputers in mainstream writing instruction; characteristics of LD college students; writing instruction for LD college students, with special attention to applications on microcomputers; and writing-related career and vocational options for LD college students.

Engen-Wedin, Nancy; and others. "Composition, Word Processing, and the Learning Disabled College Writer: An Annotated Bibliography." Supplement #1, Working Paper. Learning Disabled College Writers' Project, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, 1986. 19 p. [ED 272 916]

Contains annotations of selected recent articles that discuss how learning disabled writers in college are affected by microcomputer applications in word processing.

Fais, Laurie; Wanderrnan, Richard. "A Computer-Aided Writing Program for Learning Disabled Adolescents." 1987. 28 p. [ED 293 273]

Describes the application of a computer-assisted writing program in a special high school for LD and dyslexic students and reports on a study of the program's effectiveness.

Isaacson, Stephen; and others. "Teaching Written Expression; Directed Reading and Writing; Self-Instructional Strategy Training; and Computers and Writing Instruction," *Teaching Exceptional Children*, v20 n2 p32-39 Win 1988.

Presents principles for effectively teaching writing skills to mildly handicapped and LD students. Suggests three varying approaches: (1) Direct Reading and Writing program, integrating regular class content with writing instruction; (2) self-instructional control strategies to reduce the complexity of writing tasks; and (3) computer word processing.

Jacobi, Christina. "Word Processing for Special Needs Students: Is There Really a Gain?" *Educational Technology*, v26 n4 p36-39 Apr 1986.

Describes a research study on the effects of word-processing use in teaching writing to four fifth-grade boys in a special education program, and reviews other studies on word-processing use with LD students. Concludes that word processing offers great promise to the special needs student.

Long, Maxine M. *Teaching Writing to Learning Disabled Students: A Pilot Study.* Report prepared for the President of Genesse County College, NY, 1988. 25 p. [ED 296 374]

Examines the influence of team teaching, the use of computers, conferencing, and one-to-one immediate feedback on the development of writing skills of LD students. Finds that the creation of a special English section for LD students was helpful to the students involved.

Morocco, Catherine Cobb; and others. *Teachers, Children and the Magical Writing Machine: Instructional Contexts for Word Processing with Learning Disabled Children.* Final Report, and "I Know What to Say!" Writing Activities for the Magical Machine. Education Development Center, Inc., Newton, MA, 1987. 202 p. [ED 296 492]

Investigates the use of word-processing technology with LD intermediate-grade children and remedial teachers in five Massachusetts school districts. Finds that of three teaching approaches—substantive instruction, procedural instruction, and direct instruction—procedural instruction in which teachers provide students with strategies for generating ideas, was the most effective.

Neale, Amy E.; and others. "Getting to Know the Writing Machine: Word-Processing Environments for Fourth-Grade Classrooms." *Pointer*, v32 n1 p19-23 Fall 1987.

Considers the research basis for use of word processing with learning disabled fourth grade students, notes the special demands word processing makes on teachers and students in the initial learning stage, and suggests instructional approaches.

Basic Writing

Etchison, Craig. "Word Processing: A Helpful Tool for Basic Writers." Paper presented at the 39th Annual Meeting of the Conference of College Composition and Communication, 1988. 16 p. [ED 294 243]

Examines the effects of word processing on basic writers by comparing two classes of basic writers—one class using word processors and one class using handwriting. Finds a significant increase in the quantity of writing produced by the word-processor students, although holistic evaluation showed no significant difference in

the growth of writing quality between students using word processing and students using handwriting.

Geoffrion, Leo D. "The Feasibility of Word Processing for Students with Writing Handicaps." *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, v11 n3 p239-50 1982-83.

Reports results of a preliminary investigation of the feasibility and effectiveness of using word processors for students with poor writing skills.

Hunter, Linda. "Student Responses to Using Computer Text Editing," *Journal of Developmental & Remedial Education*, v8 n2 p13-14, 29 1984.

Describes the use of microcomputers and text editing functions in a remedial writing course. Presents survey results showing generally positive student responses to using text editing. Sees microcomputers as enhancing students' writing abilities and self-esteem.

Kurth, Ruth J.; Stromberg, Linda J. "Using Word Processing in Composition Instruction." Paper presented at the 5th Annual Meeting of the American Reading Forum, 1984. 16 p. [ED 251 850]

Conducts a study to see if the use of word-processing programs during composition instruction for basic writers would result in a larger quantity of writing and more global revision while writing. Finds that while it appears that word processing can be used to enhance the teaching of written composition, it cannot substitute for good instruction in the entire writing process.

McAllister, Carole; Louth, Richard. "The Effect of Word Processing on the Revision of Basic Writers." Paper presented at the 38th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1987. 25 p. [ED 281 232]

Determines whether basic writers revise more successfully using word processors as opposed to pen and paper. Finds that revising on the word processor in a writing laboratory outside of class produces the most significant effect on the overall quality of revision.

Moore, Dennis. "What Should Computers Do in the Writing Center?" Paper presented at the Midwest Writing Centers Conference, 1983. 13 p. [ED 248 521]

Asserts that the computer can pose some problems for the student in the writing center. Contends that teachers should take a critical attitude toward educational computing—continuing to learn about it while asking questions—and that pedagogy should take precedence over technology.

Nichols, Randall G. "Word Processing and Basic Writers," *Journal of Basic Writing*, v5 n2 p81-97 Fall 1986.

Studies the effects of word processing on the composing process of six basic writers. Concludes that the quantity and quality of revising are not likely to increase, that word processing initially causes many interventions in composing, and that better writers are more likely to use word-processing programs in advantageous ways.

Rodrigues, Dawn. "Computers and Basic Writers," *College Composition and Communication*, v36 n3 p336-39 Oct 1985.

Explains how students in a basic writing course gained confidence and independence as writers by producing and revising their texts on screen.

Rodrigues, Dawn. "Sounding the Depths: Computers and Basic Writers." Paper presented at the 35th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1984. 17 p. [ED 248 505]

Suggests that since basic writers tend to learn best when only a few skills are presented at a time, composition teachers should introduce these students to word processing and writing simultaneously, demonstrating word-processing commands as they complement the writing process. Finds that the computer helps students concentrate on their work and become independent writers.

English as a Second Language (ESL)

Herrmann, Andrea W. "Word Processing in the ESL Class: Integrating Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking Skills." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association, 1985. 12 p. [ED 274 980]

Discusses how creating a writing workshop atmosphere using computers in the ESL classroom improves the opportunities for integrating all language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Argues that by using word processing, students become highly engaged in writing and learning language, gain new sensitivity to the flexibility of language, appear more receptive to feedback concerning the need for revision and editing, and improve their overall writing and language ability.

Huffman, Donald T.; Goldberg, John R. "Using Word Processing to Teach EFL Composition," *System, v14 n2 p169-75 1987.*

Reviews specific word-processing programs to teach foreigners English language composition. Discusses advantages and disadvantages of such features as spelling checkers, prompting markers, and formatting programs. Presents suggestions for enhancing students' writing skills both with and without word-processing help.

Piper, Alison. "Helping Learners to Write: A Role for the Word Processor," *ELT Journal,* v41 n2 p119-25 Apr 1987.

Discusses the value of using a word processor and its features which help ESL students improve their writing, including student assessment, possible teaching methods, and possible learning activities.

Wyatt, David H. *Computers and ESL.* Language in Education: Theory and Practice, No. 56. ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Washington, D.C.; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich International, Orlando, FL, 1984. 129 p. [ED 246 694]

Examines the state of the art of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in instruction of English as a Second Language. Discusses computer roles in language learning, computers and the standard curriculum, computer requirements for different types of CALL (instructional, collaborative, and facilitative), the promise of CALL in the ESL curriculum, and the benefits offered by computer assisted learning.

Focused Access to Selected Topics No. 10
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Word Processing and Writing Instruction

by Michael Shermis

While the research findings are still mixed, there is considerable evidence that word processing improves both the amount and quality of revision in student writing (Kurth, 1987). The ERIC database offers several articles and papers that support this finding. However, it must be pointed out that "word processing does not, in itself, teach revision." (Strickland, 1988) Many of the authors stress that computers are just a tool; instruction and encouragement are also needed to promote good writing. Focusing on editing and revision in writing instruction, this *FAST Bib* provides several sources that contain creative ideas and new computer strategies for teaching revision and using word processors in the classroom.

The first section includes strategies, techniques, exercises, activities, and ideas on how to use time on a word processor most effectively. Articles and papers discussing the numerous benefits of word processor use, including motivating students to spend more time on task and encouraging changes and rewriting, are presented in the second section. The resources in the last section will be helpful in selecting word-processing programs and other kinds of instructional software.

Strategies, Techniques, and Exercises

Arms, Valarie M. "The Computer and the Process of Composition," *Pipe Line*, v8 n1 p16-18 Spr 1983.

Focuses on the problems students have in prewriting, writing, and revising. Suggests solutions to these problems involve computer use and include making students aware of the composition process, writing strategies good writers use, audience analysis, grammar review, and the need for peer review.

Balajthy, Ernest. "Holistic Approaches to Reading," *Reading Teacher*, v42 n4 p324 Jan 1989.

Reflects the concern that children use computers in a social and purposeful context. Suggests that (1) teacher feedback for writing should be provided during, not after, the writing process; (2) writing process curriculua such as "Write Connection" and "Writing Workshop" provide prewriting, during writing, and postwriting guidance for students; and (3) "The Writing Notebook," a quarterly publication, offers a wealth of creative ideas for using word processors in the classroom.

Borgh, Karin; Dickson, W. Patrick. *The Effects on Children's Writing of Adding Speech Synthesis to a Word Processor.* Wisconsin Center for Education Research, Madison, 1986. 26p. [ED 277 007]

Examines whether computers equipped with speech synthesis devices could facilitate children's writing. Finds that using a speech synthesizer led to increased levels of editing in young children.

Cronnell, Bruce. *Computer Instruction for Generating and Revising/Editing Narrative Text.* Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, Los Alamitos, CA, 1982. 13p. [ED 223 244]

Outlines a proposed procedure for using an interactive computer-based approach to assist students in composing text on a word processor.

Dollieslager, Rick. "Exercises for Writing Courses Using Word Processors," *Exercise Exchange*, v32 n1 p31-32 Fall 1986.

Presents three exercises that teach good proofreading and editing skills as well as tap students' creativity on the word processor.

Head, Susan D. "The Sweetwater Model for Writing Improvement." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Development of Computer-Based Instructional Systems, 1988. 16p. [CS 211 631]

Describes a computer-assisted writing laboratory project integrating Model Curriculum Standards (teacher-developed instructional literature guides integrating the reading of core pieces of literature with the writing process), the writing process, computer hardware and software, and staff development. Suggests that the project will allow students to complete a variety of writing assignments while enabling them to incorporate revision as a natural part of writing and allow the teacher to respond more to content and text-level issues.

Henney, Maribeth. *Reading and Computers–How Teachers Can Make Them Work Together,* 1984. 61p. [ED 269 745]

Addresses some concerns regarding the use of computers in reading instruction. Explores the similarities and differences between reading printed materials and computer display screens (legibility, portability, etc.) and presents some advantages and disadvantages of computers. Describes two programs promoting the combined teaching of reading and writing–the "Bank Street Writer" and the "Story Tree" from Scholastic–and suggests 24 activities for use with these programs, including correcting misspellings, incorrect grammar, and punctuation; putting sentences in proper sequence; creative writing; and editing.

Mehan, Hugh; and others. "Research Currents: Knowledge of Text Editing and Control of Literacy Skills," *Language Arts,* v61 n5 p510-15 Sep 1984.

Discusses the potential of microcomputers for accomplishing educational goals beyond drill and practice software. Describes a program in which students have access to a computer-based network that connects classrooms in four states, which allows peer response, develops a sense of audience, and gives students greater control over their literacy development.

Pon, Kathy. "Process Writing in the One-Computer Classroom." *Computing Teacher,* v15 n6 p33-37 Mar 1988.

Suggests techniques for the efficient use of one word processor by many students by dividing the writing process into stages of prewriting, writing, editing, and publishing. Provides examples of exercises and evaluations, a guide to producing a book, and a list of publications that accept children's writing.

Rodrigues, Dawn; Rodriques, Raymond J. *Teaching Writing with a Word Processor, Grades 7-13.* ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, IL, 1986. 87p. [ED 268 547]

Describes how teachers can create computer lesson files for students that incorporate findings from research on effective writing instruction and allow students to develop, share, and revise their own writing at the computer monitor.

Strickland, James. "Computer Strategies for Teaching Revision: It May be Convenient, but It's Not Easy." Paper presented at the 78th Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1988. 18p. [CS 211 617]

Contends that word processing does not, in itself, teach revision. Suggests that new computer strategies for teaching revision are needed–revision strategies that use the computer to reorganize, elaborate, and strengthen what has already been written.

Thiesmeyer, John. "Some Boundary Considerations for Writing-Software." Paper presented at the University of Minnesota Conference on "Computers and Writing: Research and Applications," 1984. 13p. [ED 246 462]

Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of computerized spelling programs or "spelling checkers."

Thomas, Irene D. "Uses of the Computer in Teaching the Composing Process." 1985 Annual Report of the NCTE Committee on Instructional Technology. Paper presented at the 75th Annual Meeting of the National council of Teachers of English, 1985. 5p. [ED 265 571]

Discusses the impact of technological advances on classroom instruction. Cites arguments against the use of word processing, including the position that word processing is difficult to learn and takes time away from writing instruction. Concludes that word processing is the best justification to date for using computers in the classrooms.

Wresch, William, ed. *The Computer in Composition Instruction: A Writer's Tool.* National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL, 1984. 218p. [ED 247 602]

Contains articles on computer applications in writing instruction that deal with the areas of prewriting, editing and grammar, word-processing research and applications, and programs for the writing process.

Effects, Benefits of Word Processor Use

Crawford, Reg. "Inside Classrooms: Word Processing and the Fourth Grade Writer," *Canadian Journal of English Language Arts,* v11 n1 p42-46 1988.

Describes an experiment introducing a word processor as a tool for writing in a fourth-grade classroom. Discusses resulting effects on the writing process, especially revision and editing, and on attitudes toward collaborative efforts.

Dalton, David W.; Watson, James F. "Word Processing and the Writing Process: Enhancement or Distraction?" Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, 1986. 19p. [ED 267 763]

Examines the effects of a year-long word-processing program on learners' holistic writing skills. Finds that relatively low achieving learners scored significantly better when using the word-processing treatment than low learners in the conventional treatment; however, word processing was not as effective in improving writing skills for the relatively high-ability students.

Gula Robert J. "Beyond the Typewriter: An English Teacher Looks at Word Processing," *Independent School*, v42 n3 p44-46 Feb 1983.

Discusses how word processors permit students to save time and effort in learning to write and allow instructors to be more demanding of students because revising and correcting take less time.

Jacoby, Adrienne. "Word Processing with the Elementary School Student—A Teaching and Learning Experience for Both Teachers and Students." Paper presented at the Spring Conference of the Delaware Valley Writing Council and Villanova University's English Department, 1984. 8p. [ED 246 449]

Argues that using word processing in the elementary school writing curriculum is advantageous for both students and teachers. Contends that word processors motivate students to spend more time on task, encourages changes and rewriting, and eliminate concern for neatness and the tedium of writing (and rewriting) by hand. Lists management and teaching suggestions to make the program function smoothly.

Kurth, Ruth J. "Word Processing and Composition Revision Strategies." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1987. 16p. [ED 283 195]

Examines whether the use of word processing improves both the amount and the quality of revision done by high school students. Finds that word processing programs enhanced writing instruction, and that the group using word processors wrote more substantial compositions than did the other group.

LeBlanc, Paul. "How to Get the Words Right: A Reappraisal of Word Processing and Revision," *Computers and Composition*, v5 n3 p29-42 Aug 1988.

Believes word processing has not created new revision strategies, only allowed those existing strategies to be more or less effective. A teacher's help is necessary for the computer to change a student's ability to revise.

Rosenbaum, Nina J. "Problems with Current Research in Writing Using the Microcomputer." Paper presented at the Spring Conference of the Delaware Valley Writing Council and Villanova University's English Department, 1984. 19p. [ED 243 116]

Asserts that benefits from using the computer include (1) multiple copies of a draft can easily be printed for use in peer editing groups; (2) final drafts can be displayed without the stigma of poor handwriting; (3) the absence of handwriting encourages large revisions; and (4) revisions can be more easily done in stages, leaving writers free to concentrate on different aspects of revising at different times.

Schriner, Delores K. "Risk Taking, Revising, and Word Processing." *Computers and Composition*, v5 n3 p43-53 Aug 1988.

Finds word processing creates a favorable environment and that students are more inclined to take risks and experiment with revisions at higher levels, but that it did not lead to qualitatively better texts.

Stromberg, Linda; Kurth, Ruth J. "Using Word Processing to Teach Revision in Written Composition." Paper presented at the 33rd Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, 1983. 11p. [ED 241 953]

Examines whether the editing and text moving capabilities of word-processing programs can be useful in helping students revise more readily and skillfully. Finds that the students were very positive about their experiences with the word processing system. Suggests that the most usable word processing system for students is a Scholastic program called "Bank Street Writer," although the "Easy Script" also proved successful.

Tone, Bruce; Winchester, Dorothy. *Computer-Assisted Writing Instruction. ERIC Digest Number 2, 1988. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Bloomington, IN. 4p. [ED 293 130]*

Summarizes reports in the ERIC database on computer-assisted writing instruction. Finds that although computer-assisted writing instruction has some effect on both the quantity and quality of student writing, limited time-on-task does not assure students ample opportunity to use them.

Selected Word Processors

Leahy, Ellen K. "A Writing Teacher's Shopping and Reading List for Software," *English Journal*, v73 n1 p62-65 Jan 1984.

Describes new sources of word-processing, proofreading, and text-editing programs that can be used in hands-on computer sessions, analyzing writing samples for and with students.

Luchte, Jeanne. "Computer Programs in the Writing Center: A Bibliographical Essay," *Writing Center Journal*, v18 n1 p11-19 Fall-Win 1987.

Concentrates on reviewing literature on the use of computers to assist the composing process and the teaching of composing in the writing center. Deals with the following categories of software: (1) general; (2) prewriting; (3) organizing; (4) drafting; (5) revising; and (6) proofreading/copy editing.

Oates, William R.; Oates, Rita Haugh. "Going beyond Word Processing: A Survey of Computer-Based Approaches for Writing Instruction." Paper presented at the 70th Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, 1987. 21p. [ED 286 186]

Surveys computer approaches and appropriate software for effective writing instruction, including prewriting software, composing tools, editing and revising approaches, and instructional software for writing skills. Also reviews new areas related to computer technology—desktop publishing, telecommunications,and electronic bulletin boards.

Piazza, Carolyn L; Dawson, Joel C. "Choosing a Word Processor for Writing Instruction," *Computers, Reading and Language Arts*, v2 n1 p10-12 Sum-Fall 1984.

Presents specific practical suggestions about evaluating and selecting word-processing programs and text-editing programs for students learning to write on microcomputers.

Focused Access to Selected topics No. 42
a FAST Bib by the
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Publishing Student Writing

Margaret Haining Cowles

A couple of months ago I was amazed to learn that my eleven-year-old nephew had authored a science fiction book which has been bound and placed in the school library. A search of the ERIC database reveals the fact that students of all ages—in this country and elsewhere—are now being encouraged to publish their writing. This *FAST Bib* addresses anyone interested in publishing student writing as part of an instructional approach to teaching writing skills. Current and prospective language arts teachers, parents, and aspiring writers should all find something of interest here.

An overview section of respresentative articles covers methods for producing anthologies of student writing, sequential stages of composing, advice on using resources such as "Writer's Market," and procedural aspects of classroom publishing—from proofreading to including illustrations and acquiring access to the equipment needed. A section on strategies for publishing follows. These articles include information on a bookmaking party, a turn-of-the-century printing press on which students print their own stories, teaching grammar and mechanics and developing literacy, and involving parents. The two remaining sections touch on the benefits of publishing student writing—including fostering audience awareness and increasing the incentives for students to develop their writing skills—and on reflections and advice from teachers and authors.

An Overview

Carroll, Joyce Armstrong. "Publishing: The Writer's Touchdown," *English Journal*, 72 (4), April 1983, pp. 93-94.

Urges teachers to publish their students' writing.

Greenberg, Harry, and Shapiro, Nancy Larson. "Variations on the Culminating Event," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, 19 (2), November-December 1987, pp. 10-11.

Describes methods for producing collections of student writing, including such aspects as anthology book covers, layout, artwork, lettering, print runs, headlines and editorial philosophy. Also provides tips for alternatives to an actual anthology, such as broadsides, poetry postcards, tiny books, videotaped readings, dramatic readings, and poetry calendars.

Guckes, Lucille R. "Creation, Composition, Publication: Putting It All Together," *Journal of Teaching Writing*, 5 (1), Spring 1986, pp. 103-112.

Illustrates sequential stages of composing and discusses appropriate teaching methods for each stage. Suggests an initial prewriting phase, including a stimulating experience, development of awareness, and encouragement of expressive creation. A second, teacher-guided phase includes a cooling off period of analysis, revising, and proofreading. Finally, the "masterpiece" is published.

Koelling, Robert. "Market Analysis: Helping Creative Writing Students Publish." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Wyoming Conference on Freshman and Sophomore English, 1983. 16 pp. [ED 234 424]

Writing instructors can assist students who are submitting their work to professional publications by advising them on the best way to use "Writer's Market" listings. Tips for students fall into five general categories: 1) know the publication; 2) write well; 3) be honest; 4) know the publication's specific needs; and 5) do not be discouraged. Additional magazines useful for market analysis are "The Writer" and "The Writer's Digest."

Shugert, Diane P., Ed. "Writing for Real Audiences," *Connecticut English Journal*, 14 (2), Spring 1983. 113 pp. [ED 263 605]

The focus of the articles in this journal is helping students write for real audiences. It contains the following articles: "Real Audiences: The Only Kind We Write For" (Margaret Queenan); "A literary Magazine for Middle Grades" (Anthony R. Angelo and Marie-Jeanne Laurent); "Rewarding Understanding and Warmth" (Peter M. Ashe); "Journalizing Journalism" (Carol J. Balvanz); "Biography Partners" (Dorothy Francis and Joan E. Shea); "Emit: A Class Project" (John

Azrak); "Using Letter Writing in the Classroom" (Thomas Patrick Fitzgerald and Kathleen Witthoft Byrne); "Our Town" (J.P. Rhinesmith); "Student Publishing Opportunities" (Helen Clara Lee); "Interdisciplinary Writing in the Elementary School" (Katherine Jones Loheyde); "Teachers Are Real, Too" (Alan C. Purves); "Generating Excitement through Writing to a Favorite Author" (Anne B. Pfeiffer); "Increasing the Reality of Audiences in Classrooms" (Donald A. McAndrew); "Book Critics Apply Here!" (Barbara Leigh Laurain); "Letters Create Audience Awareness" (Michael J. Melerski); "Peer Conferencing to Teach Audience" (Kathryn Chesley); "Writing a Corporate Style Manual" (Stephen T. Moskey and Mark N. O'Brien); "Lou Grant Died for Our Sins" (James W. Penha); "Writing for Professional Journals: Preservice Training" (Philip M. Anderson); "A Pragmatic Approach to Advanced Composition" (John M. Roderick); "From Martians to Ice Cream: Students' Journal Writing Ideas" (Barbara Leonard Warren); "Organizing and Publishing a High School Literary Magazine" (Leta W. Marks); "Editing Tips for Real Audience Writing" (Ralph L. Corrigan, Jr.); "I Read It in the Local Paper" (Mary Ann Link); "Writing for Peers" (Mary Hills Kuck); and "Audiences for Student Poetry" (Barbara Meyers).

Tally, Susan D., and Naylor, Kathleen. "Living in the Mailbox, and Other Strategies for Student Writers," *English Journal*, 71 (8), December 1982, pp. 36-40.

Presents a guide for the young writer seeking publication.

Wilson, Lorraine. "Classroom Publishing," *Primary English Notes (PEN), (60), 1986. 5 pp. [ED 280 037]*

Treats various aspects of publishing young student-authors' writing, including proofreading, pagination, illustrations, dedication and information about the author, publishing equipment, and postpublishing celebrations. Points out that children should be involved at all stages of publication.

Strategies for Grades K-12

Archibald, Georgia, *et al.* (Eds.) "New Routes to Writing K-8" [Revised], St. Louis: University of Missouri, 1984. 200 pp. Print copy not available from EDRS. [ED 260 452]

Drawing on the experiences of teachers of writing in elementary through junior high schools, the teaching strategies presented in this collection are grouped into four sections: prewriting, drafting, editing and publishing, and systems. Topics covered in the editing and publishing section include revising, elements of style, beginning writing and sentence lifting, peer proofreading, colorful words, playing with modifiers, teaching grammar and mechanics through writing, publishing books, and young authors programs.

Boloz, Sigmund A., and Loughrin, Patricia L. "Language Energized, Participation Maximized: The Growth of a Writing Project," [1981]. 12 pp. [ED 236 622]

The Ganado Language Arts Development (GLAD) Project is a kindergarten through grade 3 writing program whose goals are to develop each student's literacy, to expand and enrich the pedagogical competencies of each language arts staff member, and to develop and strengthen parental awareness of and support for school programming. To encourage the students to view writing as a meaningful experience, books written by them are regularly published at the district's curriculum center. Teachers foster an environment that encourages composition by withholding extensive criticism, by demonstrating sensitivity to the students' cultural identities, and by implementing frequent and varied writing and publishing experiences.

Drury, Lori, *et al.* "Feature Project—A Bookmaking Party," *Live Wire*, 1 (1), August 1984, pp. 10-12. [ED 263 564]

Focuses on a bookmaking party which gives children a format in which they can publish and share their activities in a formal way, provides them with books for recording their writing, and involves students, parents, and the community with children's writing. Describes steps for assembling the materials and organizing the party and instructions for making the books.

Huffman, Suanne, "Publishing Coordinator: Not Just Another Fancy Title," *English Journal*, 75 (8), December 1986, pp. 32-33.

Describes a high school project to encourage creative writing across the curriculum by designating a 'Publications coordinator,' whose job is to help fledgling writers by keeping track of opportunities available for publication and generally aiding young writers.

Keville, Richard. "Kids Find Publishing a Moving Experience," *American School Board Journal*, 171 (11), November 1984, p. 39.

A New York State rural school district converted a school bus into a self-contained pub-

lishing activities center that helps develop students' reading and writing skills.

Lamb, Jane. "The Greenwood School Press," *Learning*, 12 (7), February 1984, pp. 90-92.

A turn-of-the-century printing press motivates elementary students to write. Children write, edit, and print their own stories on the Greenwood School Press. This self-supporting enterprise introduces children to various aspects of writing and producing literature.

Willinsky, John. "To Publish and Publish and Publish," *Language Arts*, 62 (6), October 1985, pp. 619-623.

Offers half a dozen methods for 'publishing' or sharing students' written work. These include reader's theatre for students' poetry, medieval manuscript illumination, and computer graphics.

Lessons Learned from Publishing

Burnham, Christopher C. "Teaching Literature through Writing: An Informal Publication Project," *Journal of Teaching Writing*, 5 (1), Spring 1986, pp. 91-102.

Discusses the values of publishing student writing (among them increased audience awareness); describes one writing project's procedures for formulating topics by daily expressive writing on a literary topic; outlines procedures for evaluating, responding positively to, and publishing this daily writing; and enumerates benefits for teacher and student.

Clinton, DeWitt. "Teaching Audience." Paper presented at the 36th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1985. 10 pp. [ED 260 458]

A sense of audience was fostered in college composition students when they were asked to select publications to which their articles could be sent for possible publication. Nearly all of the students identified how much more enjoyable it was to compose an assignment when a particular audience was addressed.

Coffey, Kathy. "Recycled Responses: Bringing the Editor into the Classroom," *English Journal*, 76 (3), March 1987, pp. 70-71.

Suggests that modeling of the writing process be carried one step further to the publishing component and recounts some of the benefits to be gained by doing so.

Ehrenberg, Randy Ann. "Clubs in English—Publish or Perish," *English Journal", 72 (8), December 1983, pp. 64-65.*

Explains how student writing clubs can be used effectively in a middle school English class. Suggests that the required club publications not only provide a strong incentive for students to develop their writing skills, but also encourage student control and decision making, demand student leadership, and elicit parent involvement.

"Second Graders Answer the Question 'Why Publish?'" *Reading Teacher*, 38 (7), March 1985, pp. 658-662.

Concludes that in classes where their writings are turned into books, even seven year olds gain a sense of audience and begin to write with their readers in mind.

Author/Teacher Viewpoints

Butler, Syd, and Terpening, Jon. "W.P. Kinsella Creates Magic and Mystery," *Highway One*, 9 (1), Winter 1986, pp. 55-60.

Interviews W.P. Kinsella about his views on a number of subjects, including how he began his career as an author, how he creates his stories, and why students should study modern writing.

Noethe, Sheryl. "My Perfect Residency," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, 19 (2), November-December 1987, pp. 8-9.

Describes one poet's experience in a writing residency in a Brooklyn intermediate school. Discusses collaboration with teachers and collecting and publishing an anthology of student poems. Comments on the positive atmosphere and teaching philosophy of this particular school.

Shepherd, Greg. "All Publishers Are Paper Tigers or Frank Hardy and Bruce Pascoe Give Advice to Budding Short Story Writers," *English in Australia*, (70), December 1984, pp. 39-41.

Relates Frank Hardy's and Bruce Pascoe's advice to students in a writing class concerning what they believe to be the necessary qualities of a good short story from the editing and publishing standpoint.

Ziegler, Alan. "Editing Student Work for Publication," *Teachers and Writers Magazine*, 17 (4), March-April 1986, p. 14.

Five writers/teachers explain their philosophies about editing student work for publication.

Focused Access to Selected Topics No. 2
a FAST Bib by the
Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills

Writing across the Curriculum: 1983–1987

By Bruce Tone

When a university professor recently described himself as a *biogeochemist*, he exemplified with one word the trend toward interdisciplinary research, teaching, and learning that is evident in higher education. This crossing of traditional distinctions that have defined disciplines may explain why three out of four documents entered into the ERIC database from 1983 through 1987 on *writing across the curriculum* describe or derive from programs in place at colleges and universities. Most explore the potential of writing to interrelate, synthesize, clarify, and implement what is learned in all subjects while structuring and aiding learning itself.

This focus on how writing serves the acquisition of knowledge in many disciplines reflects interdisciplinary trends binding researchers and students of science with those in the arts and humanities as they recognize a common need to understand and learn from one another.

Effective communication becomes an essential factor for people working in interrelated fields. The cooperative efforts of teachers in various disciplines to create instruction that "demystifies" specialties—as one report in the ERIC database puts it—is a hallmark of many of these writing across the curriculum programs.

There are also in the database, reports that indicate that the writing across the curriculum movement can be successful at the high school and elementary instructional levels. It appears to build the tendency to interrelate and synthesize what is learned in different subject areas while developing writing fluency and other language, study, and learning skills.

This bibliography is a sample of nearly 50 reports on writing across the curriculum added to the ERIC database from 1983 through 1987. A common characteristic of most of the sources from which those in this *FAST Bibliography* were selected is that they offer much practical information for introducing and implementing such programs. Many discuss the school- or campus-wide supports that are needed to ensure the success of such programs; some offer models of workshops for teachers. The search does suggest a need for carefully controlled studies to verify benefits informally observed in writing across the curriculum programs.

Overview of Writing across the Curriculum

Barnes, Linda Laube, and Smithson, Isaiah (eds.) *Writing across the Curriculum*. Papers from the Annual Composition Conference, 1986, 57 pp. [ED 277 004]

Includes papers describing writing across the curriculum as a radical shift in the way teachers teach and learners learn, "transferring power" from teacher to learner by creating a student-centered curriculum. Discusses extensive writing projects, writing centers, and the incorporation of literature and creative processes.

Fulwiler, Toby. *Teaching with Writing*, Upper Montclair, New Jersey: Boynton/Cook, 1987. Hard copy not available from EDRS. [ED 277 021]

To clarify how writing across the curriculum improves learning across the curriculum, this book provides an overview of the current state of writing instruction at the secondary and college levels as it applies to teaching in the content areas. Each chapter deals with an aspect or methodology for teaching, giving practical ideas for using writing. Discusses theories on which these ideas are based. Includes extensive workshop materials.

Kelly Kathleen A. "Writing across the Curriculum; What the Literature Tells Us," 1985, 20 pp. [ED 274 975]

This review of literature on writing across the curriculum identifies common higher education program components, assessments, objectives, and guidelines.

Larsen, Richard B. "Synergistic Teaching," *College Teaching, 34* (4), Fall, 1986, pp. 145–148.

A "thinking-across-the-campus" program for composition is described. Argues that the analogizing/synergizing principle applicable to composition can benefit many courses.

Moore, Leslie E., and Peterson, Linda H. "Convention as Connection: Linking the Composition Course to

the English College Curriculum." *College Composition and Communication, 37* (4), December 1986, pp. 466–477, 488, 506.

Provides an effective model for the appropriate inclusion of teachers of English as participants in writing across the curriculum programs.

North, Stephen M. "Writing in a Philosophy Class: Three Case Studies," *Research in the Teaching of English, 20* (3), October 1986, pp. 225–262.

Examines the relationship between writing and learning in a college-level writing across the curriculum class in philosophy. Results provide a basis for speculation about the conception of the writing/learning relationship.

Parker, Robert P. "Surveying Writing Practices across the Curriculum: Models and Findings," *NASSP Bulletin, 69* (478), February, 1985, pp 34–40.

Compares evaluation research models applicable to writing across the curriculum.

Walter, James F. "Reading, the Imagination, and Writing," *ADE Bulletin,* No. 86, Spring, 1987, pp. 29–33.

Advocates making instruction in the critical reading of literature the foundation of an integrated literature and writing curriculum.

Writing to Learn in Different Disciplines

Atkinson, G. F. "Writing among Other Skills," *Journal of Chemical Education, 63* (4), April, 1986, pp. 337–338.

Recommends that writing be a skill fostered in science classes and discusses several appropriate writing experiences.

Gates, Rosemary L. "AITIA and KAIROS: Classical Rhetoric in the Writing across the Curriculum Program." Paper presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1986. 25 pp. [ED 274 974]

Three areas of the classical rhetoric of Aristotle, adapted for the modern discourse of inquiry and demonstration, provided a systematic framework for students to understand thought, investigation, and writing in other disciplines.

Labianca, Dominick A., and Reeves, William J. "Provocative Opinion: Writing across the Curriculum: The Science Segment: A Heretical Perspective," *Journal of Chemical Education, 62* (5), May, 1985, pp. 400–402.

Discusses a dilemma that writing across the curriculum presents for science professors and majors.

McMillen, Liz. "Science and Math Professors are Assigning Writing Drills to Focus Students' Thinking," *Chronicle of Higher Education, 31* (19), January 22, 1986, pp. 19–21.

Reports that math and science instruction now often includes more brief, informal writing exercises, sometimes completed in class, as a means of helping college students think more clearly. While writing skills are often not emphasized, writing improves as a by-product.

Parker, Robert P., and Goodkin, Vera. *The Consequences of Writing: Enhancing Learning in the Disciplines,* Upper Montclair, New Jersey: Boynton/Cook, 1987, 183 pp. [ED 272 928]

Intended for teachers of grades 7–16, this book discusses how writing contributes to an understanding of self. Its first chapter covers the origins of content area writing and its potential to develop awareness of intentions for learning, of models for writing and learning, of audiences, and of the power of writing in communicating, assessing and criticizing, and becoming informed.

Penrose, Ann. "Individual Differences in Composing: Exploring Consequences for Learning through Writing." Paper presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1986, 10 pp. [ED 270 758]

Gives an overview of research results supporting the claim that writing is a way to learn. Discusses research on the 1) affective, 2) social, and 3) cognitive dimensions of writing; and discusses the effects of different writing tasks and individual differences among writers.

Samples of Program Descriptions in the Database

Calder, Boni, et al. *Guide 1983–84* (rvd.) Saratoga, California: Saratoga Union School District, 1987, 386 pp. [ED 280 017]

This guide for teachers of grades one through six in the Bay Area Writing Project includes instructional techniques and activities, student writing samples, and a stepped process definition of writing; a grade level sequence with activities designed to incorporate other language arts curricula; and a formula for "power writing" to develop expository writing.

Cook, Lenora. "Facilitating Writing: A Staff Development Model for the Secondary Schools." Paper presented at the 76th Annual Meeting of the Na-

tional Council of Teachers of English, 1986. 5 pp. [ED 277 042]

Reports on a middle-school program that focused on various approaches to student journal writing.

Grundy, Thomas. "The Writing Program in the Beaverton School District," *OSSA Bulletin, 30* (2), October, 1986, 43 pp. [ED 274 104]

The audience-focused process approach to teaching composition used in the Beaverton School District in Oregon is explained. Five writing stages comparable to Aristotelian rhetoric are described and illustrated. Ideas advanced by three sample programs in elementary, intermediate, and high schools are highlighted. The Beaverton program's success was measured as dramatic improvement in students' test scores from 1985 to 1986 and better student attitudes toward writing.

Hallock, Sylvia M., and Downie, Susan L. *"I Never Know What I Think Until I See What I Say," Saul Bellow. (Honing Critical Thinking Skills through Writing).* 151 pp. [ED 282 234]

Describes the implementation of a pilot program at Frank W. Cox High School in Virginia Beach, Virginia. It emphasizes ethics education and writing to promote critical thinking. Includes many sample instructional materials.

Hansen, Kristine. "Relationships between Expert and Novice Performance in Disciplinary Writing and Reading." Paper presented at the 38th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1987. 14 pp. [ED 283 220]

Describes a college writing course designed to initiate freshman students into the multidisciplinary academic discourse community by having them observe, analyze, and produced the salient features of a discourse community's "dialect."

Morgan, Lorraine et al. "Pushing the Write Button: Writing-across-the-Curriculum." Paper presented at the 38th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1987. 12 pp. [ED 280 028]

The objectives of a writing across the curriculum project of the Human Biology program at Stanford University were to develop fluency by requiring more writing, to improve the quality of writing by focusing on process, and to help students use writing to analyze course content.

Russell, David R. "Writing across the Curriculum and the Communications Movement: Some Lessons from the Past," *College Composition and Communication, 38* (2), May, 1987, pp. 184–94.

Discusses how the Functional Writing Program at Colgate (1949–1961) and the Prose Improvement Committee at the University of California at Berkeley (1950–1965) viewed writing as unifying the intellectual community to link disciplines.

Soven, Margot. "The Conversational Model: A Paradigm for Connecting Freshman Composition to the Disciplines." Paper presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, 1986. 15 pp. [ED 276 036]

The writing across the curriculum program at La Salle University, Pennsylvania, derives its basic philosophy from Charles Bazerman's "The Informed Writer." Bazerman stresses that students learn about academic writing and reading in terms of a community of discourse. Recommends a sequence of assignments.

ERIC/RCS

A Profile

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- Where to get an ERIC computer search.
- Which organizations and institutions near you have ERIC microfiche collections.
- To obtain a list of ERIC/RCS publications.

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A. A kindergarten teacher has been asked by some of his neighbors who have preschoolers if there is anything they can do at home to help their children get ready for writing in school. The teacher decides that the key concept involved is Writing Readiness.

B. The teacher checks that term in the *ERIC Thesaurus* at a nearby university library and finds it listed.

C. Selecting one of the library's volumes of *RIE*, in this case the January-June 1988 semiannual index, *the teacher finds the following documents in the subject index:*

Writing Readiness

Children's Names: Landmarks for Literacy?
ED 290 171
Integrating Reading and Writing Instruction at the Primary level. **ED 286 158**
Sister and Brother Writing Interplay.
ED 285 176
Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School.
ED 285 207

D. **ED 285 207** Looks like an appropriate resource, so the teacher finds that ED number in a monthly issue of *RIE "January 1988" in the document resume section:*

ED 285 207 **CS 210 790**

Clay, Marie
Writing Begins at Home: Preparing Children for Writing before They Go to School.
Report No. ISBN-0-435-08452-6
Pub Date 87
Note 64p.
Available from Heinemann Educational Books Inc., 70 Court St., Portsmouth, NH 03801 ($12.50)
Pub type Books (010) - Guides - Non-Classroom (055)

Document Not Available from EDRS.
Descriptors_Case Studies, Family Environment, Language Acquisition, *Parent Child Relationship, Parent Participation, Parent Role, *Preschool Children, Preschool Education, Psychomotor Skills, Reading Writing Relationship, Writing Exercises, *Writing Readiness, *Written Language
Identifiers_*Childrens Writing, *Emergent Literacy, Writing Attitudes

Intended for parents of preschoolers, this book offers samples of children's writing (defined as the funny signs and symbols that pencils make) and attempts to show how parents can support and expand children's discovery of printed language before children begin school. Each of the eight chapters contains numerous examples of young children's drawing and printing, as well as helpful comments and practical considerations to orient parents. The chapters are entitled: (1) Getting in Touch; (2) Exploration and Discoveries; (3) I Want to Record a Message; (4) We Follow Sally Ann's Progress; (5) Individual Differences at School Entry; (6) How Can a Parent Help?; (7) The Child at School; and (8) Let Your Child Read. (References and a list of complementary publications are attached.) (NKA)

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ERIC/RCS

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