

THE EFFECTS OF COGNITIVE STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN WRITING
(CSIW) ON THE WRITING SKILLS OF SEVERELY LEARNING DISABLED
STUDENTS AND THEIR PEERS IN AN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

by

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**The Effects of Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) on the
Writing Skills of Severely Learning Disabled Students and Their Peers in
an Inclusive Classroom**

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) Curriculum on skill in writing compare/contrast text structures in two students with severe learning disabilities (SLD) and their twenty-five classmates in an inclusive grade seven classroom. There were two conditions: experimental and control. The twenty-five students participating in the control group were taught writing skills through a process writing approach guided by the British Columbia Language Arts Curriculum. The experimental group were taught how to write compare/contrast essays through the CSIW curriculum which is an intervention that contains five key instructional components. These include: analysis of text structure, teaching writing as an entire process, utilizing dialogue to structure the writing experiences, scaffolding instruction and peer collaboration. Results indicated significant improvements for CSIW trained students in overall essay structure and clarity. CSIW trained SLD students showed improvement in overall essay structure but not in essay clarity, suggesting the need for more practice in writing. Furthermore, trends indicating improvements in self-efficacy were evident in CSIW trained SLD students and their trained regular classroom peers. Maintenance testing four weeks after the conclusion of the study indicated that CSIW trained students maintained the learned CSIW strategies over time. In summary, the data from this study indicated that CSIW can be implemented effectively in an inclusive setting with overall good results.

I wish to dedicate this thesis to Dan for his valued support throughout this endeavor and to Mom and Dad who are always there when I need them most.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) is a program developed to improve elementary students' ability to write expository text (Englert and Raphael, 1988). It has proven to be successful in improving learning disabled students' ability to write various expository texts within a special education environment and has also proven to be successful in improving expository writing ability of low achievers (LA) and high achievers (HA) within the regular classroom (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony and Stevens, 1991). However, there has been no investigation regarding the application of CSIW to an inclusive classroom environment that contains both normally-achieving peers and special needs students, a practice that reflects the current philosophy in British Columbia (Ministry of Education, 1990). The purpose of this research is to investigate the efficacy of CSIW as applied within an inclusive classroom. The following will provide a rationale for said research.

Expository Writing

Writing assignments that demand the production of expository text are common to both elementary and secondary school classrooms. Applebee and his colleagues (Applebee, 1984) determined, in fact, that expository (informational) text represented 89% of school writing tasks for secondary students that participated in their investigation. Other research suggests that 63% of writing produced by elementary students is expository (transactional) writing (Britton, Burgess, Martin, Mcleod and Rosen, 1975). The high demand for expository

writing assignments in both elementary and secondary school classrooms has compelled researchers in the field of Learning Disabilities to investigate whether students with learning disabilities (LD) demonstrate skill in generating expository text.

Expository Writing Ability of Students with Learning Disabilities

Students with LD experience significant problems with all facets of the writing process. Their problems span from difficulty with lower order cognitive skills such as mechanics and syntax (Espin and Sindelar, 1988; Moran, 1981; Morris and Crumb, 1982; Wong, Wong, and Blenkinsop 1989) to higher order cognitive skills such as text structure knowledge (Englert and Thomas, 1987; Thomas, Englert and Gregg, 1987) to metacognitive skills (Englert, Raphael, Fear, and Anderson, 1988; Wong et al, 1989).

The difficulty that students with LD experience with the production of expository text are indeed overwhelming and it is evident that intervention is in order. However, interventions designed specifically to deal with expository text production have only recently been developed and researched (Englert et al 1991; Englert, Raphael and Anderson, 1992, Graham and MacArthur, 1988; Graham and Harris, 1989a; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz and Page-Voth, 1992, Wong, Wong, Darlington and Jones, 1991; Wong, Butler, Ficzero, Kuperis, Corden and Zelmer, 1994; Wong, Butler, Ficzero and Kuperis, 1996; Wong, Butler, Ficzero and Kuperis, in press). There is reason to be encouraged however, as the results to date are promising.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW)

CSIW is an example of one intervention that has proven to be successful in improving learning disabled students' ability to write various expository texts within a special education environment and has also proven to be successful in improving expository writing ability of low achievers (LA) and high achievers (HA) within the regular classroom (Englert et al, 1991).

CSIW is a program developed to improve elementary students' ability to write expository text (Englert and Raphael, 1988). It is a program that emphasizes teacher and student dialogues about expository writing strategies, text-structure and self-regulated learning. Englert (1992), describes social constructivism as proposed by Vygotsky (1978), as providing the theoretical framework in designing CSIW. Each of the specific components of CSIW are driven by four basic assumptions identified within the context of Vygotsky's (1978) view of learning "as a profoundly social process." These assumptions are that:

(a) cognitive processes in writing arise in holistic and functional activity; (b) higher mental functioning has its origins in social life, and is mediated in dialogic interaction through symbolic tools, such as language; (c) literacy learning needs to take place within students' zones of proximal development in order to promote the internalization, appropriation, and transformation of strategies; and (d) knowledge and the construction of knowledge are cultural and social phenomena, and are historically situated in interchange among people (Englert, 1992, p.155)

These social constructivist assumptions provide the framework for five key components that appear to be integral to the success of CSIW in improving students' expository text production (Englert et al., 1991) and in improving students' metacognitive knowledge about writing (Englert, Raphael and Anderson,

1992). These components include (a) text analysis; (b) teaching writing as an entire process; (c) utilizing dialogue to structure the writing experience; (d) scaffolding instruction; and (e) peer collaboration.

CSIW as a Viable Instructional Method for Students with Learning Disabilities

CSIW's success in promoting students' with LD ability to write expository text (Englert et al., 1991) and in developing students with LD metacognitive knowledge about writing (Englert et al., 1992) provide support for the consideration of CSIW as an integral part of students' with LD writing curriculum. However, there are specific concerns that need to be addressed before implementing CSIW as an instructional alternative for students with LD. The first concern deals with the issue of strategy generalization across settings and the second deals with the current thrust toward inclusive education.

Generalization Across Settings

The thirty-three students with LD who participated in the CSIW intervention (Englert et al., 1991), were all instructed within the context of special education classrooms. The intervention proved to be successful in improving students' expository writing abilities and in promoting near task transfer. However, it was not determined whether these students were able to generalize CSIW strategies to the regular classroom. Certainly, the real test of the effectiveness of strategy instruction is whether students with LD can generalize the acquired strategy to the regular classroom (Deshler, Alley, Warner and Schumaker, 1981). Strategy generalization across settings often does not occur because the context strategies are taught in is substantially different from the environment they will ultimately be

utilized in (Ellis, 1993). Recognition of the difficulty for students with LD to generalize strategy use across settings and across tasks has led to the development of complex techniques that are incorporated into strategic instruction (Deshler et al., 1981; Graham & Harris, 1989; Chan, 1991). However, a more obvious solution may be to carry out strategy training within the environment that demands strategic behavior (Ellis, 1993; Schumaker & Deshler, 1992; Danoff, Harris & Graham, 1993). This solution is certainly supported by the current trend of providing instruction for students with LD within the context of the regular classroom.

The Current Thrust Toward Inclusive Education

Students with special needs should be provided with access to learning experiences in their neighborhood schools wherever possible... This does not preclude the appropriate use of resource rooms, or of self-contained or specialized settings. However, Ministerial Order #13/89 specifically states "Unless the educational needs of a handicapped students indicates that the student's educational program should be provided other wise, a board shall provide that student with an educational program in classrooms where that student is integrated with other students who do not have handicaps." (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1990, p.30)

This position statement for British Columbia schools has created a renewed emphasis on educating students with special needs within the mainstream. In recent years, educators have been struggling with a shift in philosophy which brings special educators into the regular classroom to work collaboratively with generalists in order to adapt or modify curriculum and teaching methods so that students with special needs may be effectively educated with their peers. Certainly, this trend is evident throughout many school districts in North America

as researchers have begun to recognize the importance of altering current methods of strategy instruction to facilitate presentation to mainstreamed settings (Hutchison & Wong, 1992; Schumaker & Deshler, 1992; Danoff et al., 1993; Ellis, 1993).

CSIW in the Inclusive Classroom

Consideration of the utilization of CSIW in the writing curriculum within an inclusive classroom, appears to be logical for reasons beyond the aforementioned issues regarding generalization across settings and the current trend of inclusive education. CSIW has not only improved students' with LD ability to write expository prose, it has also demonstrated success with both low-achieving (LA) and high-achieving (HA) peers (Englert et al., 1991).

That all students may benefit from the instruction in a specific cognitive intervention strategy, is an important consideration for mainstream teachers, particularly in light of research results indicating that specific strategies which yield improved results from students with LD may not improve the performance of normal achieving students (Wong & Jones, 1982; Swanson; 1989). Wong & Jones (1982), suggested that the normally achieving sixth grade readers in their study, did not benefit from self-questioning training because it was a "simple self-monitoring strategy and, as such, was likely to already be in their metacognitive repertoire" (p.238). In other words, the strategy taught was not useful to the normal achievers because it was redundant in that they had already developed a functional strategy in comprehension monitoring. Englert et al (1991), on the other hand, noted that neither group of students (LD or non-LD) seemed proficient in writing strategies before their presentation. This observation was also made by Danoff et al., (1993), upon scrutiny of the contents of the writing folders

of non-LD students before including them in an intervention to improve story composition. Certainly, there is much evidence that leads to the conclusion that instruction in the writing process is required by the majority of students in our schools (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). CSIW certainly appears to be a promising addition to the inclusive classroom's writing curriculum. However, some adaptations appear to be in order. The adaptations would involve (a) the development of a teaching partnership between generalist and specialist and (b) the implementation of cooperative learning strategies to assist in accommodating the unique learning needs found in an inclusive classroom environment. This study was designed to investigate the efficacy of the Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing curriculum on a sample of 2 Severely Learning Disabled students and 25 of their peers. It was hypothesized that all students participating in CSIW instruction within this inclusive classroom would show improvements in their writing of expository text, specifically compare/contrast essays. It was also hypothesized that participation in the CSIW curriculum would improve students' self-efficacy for writing.

Research Questions

- 1) Will students taught compare/contrast essays through CSIW improve in their essay writing more than students not taught through CSIW?
- 2) Will students demonstrate strategy maintenance over time?
- 3) Will mainstreamed SLD students demonstrate improvements in their ability to write compare/contrast essays?

4) Will mainstreamed SLD students demonstrate strategy maintenance over time?

5) Will students taught compare/contrast essays through CSIW improve their self-

efficacy for writing more than students not taught through CSIW?

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Expository Writing Ability of Students with Learning Disabilities

Lerner, (1988) states that the lack of ability to express ideas through writing is probably the most common disability of the language skills. In their review of the literature investigating the ability of writers with LD, Newcomer and Barenbaum (1991) provide evidence that students with LD have significantly more problems communicating through writing than do their low achieving or average achieving peers. Their problems in writing are consistent in both story composition and in the composition of expository text.

The complexity of the writing process has proven to create significant problems for students with LD. It appears that they have difficulties spanning all facets of the writing process. Regarding lower-order cognitive problems (mechanics) in writing, Moran's (1981) comparative study of low-achievers (LA) and students with LD revealed that although these two groups did not differ in their use of mechanics or conventions, LA performed significantly better than students with LD in regard to the number of spelling errors present in their writing samples. Wong, Wong, and Blenkinsop (1989), found similar results through an analysis of sentence errors, spelling errors, and grammatical errors in the writing of normal achievers (NA) and students with LD. In this study, students with LD produced more spelling errors than their NA peers, while significant differences did not occur in sentence or grammatical errors. Espin and Sindelar (1988) studied the differences between LD and non disabled writers as they revised errors in written compositions and concluded that students with LD are less successful in

detecting and correcting syntactic errors of word order, word usage, word endings and punctuation than are their NA peers.

Wong and her colleagues (1989), also highlighted higher order cognitive problems in learning disabled adolescents' writing. NA eighth graders produced reportive and argument essays that were superior to LD eighth and eleventh graders on interestingness and in clarity of goal communication. NA eighth graders also produced essays that were significantly better organized and more coherent than LD eighth and eleventh graders. These results led Wong et al., (1989) to conclude that NA students possessed "sizeably more writing skills and a broader knowledge of writing genre" (p.313) than the LD subjects.

Research dealing with the knowledge of text structure and its effect on the production of expository text, demonstrates that students with LD appear to have less ability than their NA peers in generating conceptual patterns of given text structure (Englert and Thomas, 1987; Thomas, Englert and Gregg, 1987). Englert et al., (1987), examined the expository production skills of grades 3, 4, 6 and 7 students with LD, low achieving students matched to LD students in reading ability and IQ (LD-M), and NA students. Each group was presented with two sets of stimulus sentences which signaled each of four text structures; Description, Enumeration, Sequence and Compare/Contrast. Subjects were required to write two sentences which would complete the expository paragraph. LD students performed significantly poorer than their LD-M and NA peers in their "ability to generate relevant details to fill out the conceptual pattern of a given text structure" (p.101). An extension of this research focused on specific types of writing errors produced by students (Thomas et al, 1987).

Thomas and her colleagues (1987), determined that LD students performed significantly more poorly than their LD-M and NA peers on the error category of Early Termination. LD students appeared to have difficulty in generating a variety

of ideas related to a topic and were five times as likely as their LD-M and their NA peers to terminate their text prematurely. On the error category of Redundancy, both LD and LD-M students performed significantly poorer than their NA peers. LD and LD-M students were more likely to repeat previously stated information or to begin the discourse again. Both LD and LD-M groups also performed significantly more poorly than NA on the error category of Irrelevancies wherein two types of errors were noted; a) "interjection of an egocentric point of view or irrelevant opinion of the topic" and; b) "undue focus on what was personally important or interesting to the writer rather than informative to the reader or indicated by the premise statement" (p.27). Finally, it was determined that LD students made significantly more mechanical errors than the LD-M or NA students. Thomas et al., (1987), noted that the results of this study clearly identified the major barriers to successful writing for students with LD were not indicated in the excessiveness of their mechanical or syntactical errors but rather in "higher order difficulties involving the control and management of text structure" (p.27). LD students resorted to the use of a "knowledge telling strategy" (Scardamalia and Bereiter, 1986) which involves the written production of everything the writer knows about, with no regard to relevance or to specific text structure.

Metacognition about the writing process have also been identified as being much weaker in students with LD (Englert, Raphael, Fear, and Anderson, 1988; Wong et al., 1989). Students with LD appear to be less aware of modeled writing strategies, steps in the writing process, strategies for presenting expository ideas, use of organizational strategies, and procedures for selecting and integrating information from multiple sources (Englert et al., 1988). Wong et al., (1989), suggested that students with LD may be developmentally delayed in both metacognitive and cognitive aspects of writing and that although students with LD

demonstrate some metacognition of the writing process, their NA peers are superior in this area.

Clearly, students with LD possess inferior skills in producing expository writing assignments. It appears that both the lower level mechanical and syntactical skills and higher order cognitive aspects of writing impact on the overall quality of LD students' expository essay writing. Furthermore, NA students possess more mature metacognition regarding the writing task. Hence, concentrated intervention is needed in order to improve the expository writing skills of students with LD.

Intervention Research on Writing Expository Text with Students with Learning Disabilities

Intervention research designed specifically to improve production of expository text for students with LD has been conducted by three main groups of researchers: Graham and his colleagues (Graham and MacArthur, 1988; Graham and Harris, 1989a; Graham, MacArthur, Schwartz and Page-Voth, 1992), Englert and her colleagues (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, and Stevens, 1991; Englert, Raphael and Anderson, 1992) and Wong and her colleagues (Wong, Wong, Darlington and Jones, 1991; Wong, Butler, Ficzero, Kuperis, Corden and Zelmer, 1994; Wong, Butler, Ficzero and Kuperis, 1996; Wong, Butler, Ficzero and Kuperis, in press).

Graham and MacArthur (1988) and Graham and Harris (1989a), focused on strategy instruction designed to generate, frame and plan argumentative essays. The strategy was taught using self-instructional training techniques previously used in intervention research in story composition (Graham and Harris, 1989b).

Self-instructional training techniques involve interactive learning between teacher and students; the teacher initially provides strong external support to students, with ultimate responsibility for recruiting, applying, and monitoring the strategy gradually being transferred to the student. (Graham and Harris, 1989b, p. 202)

Graham and Harris (1989a), reported positive changes in the number of functional elements students with LD included in their essays and also noted that the proportion of nonfunctional essay elements dropped. Essays were also judged to be qualitatively superior and substantially longer. Graham et al., (1992) added the component of goal-setting to strategy training and found that it had a "significant and meaningful effect" on the essays students with LD produced. Students' performance improved in including the basic components of an essay, in increasing the length of the essays and in being more convincing; all of which were areas that students had set goals for. Graham and MacArthur (1988) focused on determining whether self-instructional strategy training would effect revising behavior in students' with LD as well as the length and quality of their essays composed on a word processor. The results of this research demonstrated positive changes in all areas investigated.

Wong et al., (1991), first investigated the effect of teacher-student interactional dialogues on the clarity and thematic salience of reportive essays written by adolescent students with LD. The intervention involved instruction in the process of writing which included planning, sentence generation, and revising. Particular emphasis on the revising process included the development of audience awareness so that the audience's comprehension of the writer's intent was considered throughout the revision process. Interactive teaching, which involved instructional dialogues between teacher and student throughout the planning and revising stages of the writing process, proved successful in that it taught students

to learn to identify ambiguities in their essays and to make their writing themes salient. In Wong et al's., (1994) study, the investigators expanded their original design to include both teacher-student and student-student interactional dialogues and to include a control group. Results of the study substantiated the effectiveness of both teacher-student and student-student interactive dialogues in promoting clarity and thematic salience in reportive essays written by adolescent students with LD. The role of interactive dialogues in enhancing LD adolescents writing was further highlighted in Wong et al., (1996) and Wong et al., (in press). In these studies Wong and her associates focused on opinion essays and compare/contrast essays.

Englert, C.S., Raphael, T.E., Anderson, L.M., Anthony, H.M., Fear, K.L. and Gregg, S.L. (1988), describe a program identified as Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW), which emphasizes teacher and student dialogues about expository writing strategies, text-structure process and self-regulated learning. Englert and her colleagues (1991;1992) researched the effect of the CSIW program on the writing ability and metacognitive knowledge of elementary students. The results of Englert's research will be reviewed in depth following a thorough examination of the theoretical framework upon which the CSIW program is built.

Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW)

As discussed in the previous chapter, Englert (1992), describes social constructivism as proposed by Vygotsky (1978), as providing the theoretical framework in designing CSIW. Five key components have arisen from social constructivist assumptions which have become integral to the effectiveness of the CSIW program in improving students' expository text production (Englert et al.,

1991) and in improving students' metacognitive knowledge about writing (Englert et al., 1992). These components include (a) text analysis; (b) teaching writing as an entire process; (c) utilizing dialogue to structure the writing experience; (d) scaffolding instruction; and (e) peer collaboration. Each of these components are described below and their connection to social constructivist theory is discussed.

Analysis of Text Structure

The importance of text structure knowledge and its inclusion as a key component of CSIW is largely a result of research which demonstrated that knowledge of text structure proved to be a key factor in students' ability to both comprehend and produce expository text (Englert, Stewart and Hiebert, 1988; Heibert, Englert and Brennan, 1983; Taylor and Beach, 1984). Teachers employing the CSIW program begin the process of strategy instruction by introducing students to the notion that the type of expository prose under study has a unique structure, which is signaled to the reader by specific semantic and syntactic techniques (Meyer, 1975). "For example, the sequence structure is signaled syntactically through such temporal indicators as 'first,' 'second,' 'then,' and 'finally,' whereas the comparison structure is signaled by such indicators as 'in contrast to,' 'like,' and 'similarly' (Englert et al., 1983, p.64.)

CSIW instruction begins with the presentation to students of a series of samples of a given text structure which vary in the extent to which the essential features of said structure is included. Class discussion revolves around the presence or absence of the essential features of the given text structure. Discussion is also steered toward identifying ways in which poorer quality papers can be improved. In this manner, analysis of text structure supports the social constructivist assumption that "cognitive processes in writing arise in holistic and

functional activity" (Englert, 1992, p.155). The influence of these social constructivist assumptions is also evident in the CSIW program because writing is not taught as a series of isolated skills but as a whole cognitive enterprise.

Teaching Writing as an Entire Process

CSIW supports the notion that writing entails a process that involves planning, drafting and revising of text (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). Therefore, cognitive and metacognitive strategies are taught to support the entire process of writing and are cued by the mnemonic "POWER" which stands for Plan, Organize, Write, Edit/Editor, and Revise (Englert, 1990).

The planning stage involves the identification of audience and purpose and utilizes the process of brainstorming to activate background knowledge. The organization stage promotes the organization of ideas previously developed in the planning stage, within a structure that supports a specific genre (e.g. explanation, compare/contrast, expert). In the writing stage, the first draft is developed to translate ideas into an extended written format which considers the needs of the audience. During the editing phase, the emphasis is on determining whether the written text is in fact understandable and whether the goals of the writer are accomplished. Drafts are both self-edited and peer-edited. In the last phase of the process, the writer implements both their own and their peer's suggestions for improving the draft so that it may be developed into a publishable product. Students are introduced to each of the phases of the writing process through teacher modeling which is facilitated by the use of "think-sheets," which correspond to each of the stages of the writing process. In this manner, writing is presented as a holistic endeavor.

Utilizing Dialogue to Structure the Writing Experience

Driven by Vygotsky's (1978) proposal that knowledgeable language users can teach cognitive processes by both modeling and talking about the processes, CSIW includes extensive modeling of all of the stages of the writing process by the teacher (Englert, 1992). Assisted by "think-sheets" which provide prompts to activate specific writing strategies, teachers verbalize their internal dialogue that occurs at each stage of the writing process. For example, the cues on the editing think-sheet would stimulate and guide the teacher in demonstrating what occurs within the writer's mind while editing and would provide a format on which various suggestions for enhancing the quality of the text in question could be recorded. The use of dialogue comes into action as students and teacher become joint participants in the use of modeled strategies. Students are invited to make suggestions, to model their own inner speech and to utilize the think-sheets to guide their thinking, either by assisting the teacher with her own writing or by developing a class writing project. The opportunity to work through CSIW writing strategies in collaboration with a more "knowledgeable language user" offers the students a "scaffold" toward the internalization of the dialogue so that it may be used to independently guide future writing (Englert, 1992).

Scaffolding Instruction

Scaffolded instruction incorporates a variety of temporary supports which allow the development of strategies which are just beyond the current capability of the learner (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988). The instructional scaffold in essence, bridges what Vygotsky (1978), terms "the zone of proximal development which is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent

problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p.86).

CSIW provides instructional scaffolding in a variety of ways (Englert, 1990). The think-sheets are an example of scaffolding through procedural facilitation (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). Procedural facilitation involves the use of oral or written prompts that cue the learner to utilize or perhaps consider specific strategies. Think-sheets are in fact written prompts that are utilized firstly to facilitate the direct presentation of the stages of the writing process by the teacher and then to facilitate student internalization of the strategies inherent in each of the stages. The think-sheets are gradually faded out as the learner demonstrates the ability to "activate and monitor the strategies independently" (Englert, 1990, p.216).

Instructional scaffolding is also evident in the ongoing dialogue that occurs throughout the writing process (Englert, 1990). Teachers are expected to provide verbal prompts and questions which support students through activities which are unfamiliar to them and which allow students to perform independently if it is evident that they are ready to do so. This may occur for example, in the context of pupil/teacher conferences where individual strengths and weaknesses can easily be identified. In the editing stage for example, teachers may cue students to clarify their statements by asking questions that lead to the construction of more detail (Wong et al., 1991). Gradually, teacher prompting is removed as students recognize the importance of considering audience while composing text. Sensitivity to audience is also facilitated by providing opportunities for dialogue between peers.

Peer Collaboration

CSIW's promotion of peer collaboration is a result of the final assumption of social constructivist theory, which views writing as a cultural and social activity (Englert, 1992). Peer collaboration promotes intersubjectivity (Rogoff, 1990) and intertextuality (Heap, 1989) which are both a result of social interaction within the context of a specific culture. Intertextuality refers to the reflection of "social structures, interactions, and communications in the classroom" in children's written texts (Englert, 1992, p.168). Intersubjectivity, refers to the tendency of students within a particular classroom culture to "build a common pool of strategies and shared meanings" that are reflected in their writing (Englert, 1992, p.168).

CSIW promotes interaction and collaboration throughout each stage of the writing process by encouraging student participation in dialogue regarding writing strategies. However, a more direct form of peer collaboration is evident during the editing process where writers and editors hold conferences after individually completing the edit/editor think-sheets. These conferences appear to encourage intertextuality and intersubjectivity but also assist the writer in developing an author-audience relationship. "Initially, the voice of the text is externally and explicitly enacted by a peer, but the author gradually internalizes the voices of his or her audience over time in order to plan, draft, or edit a text for an absent audience (Englert, 1992, p.169). In this way, peer collaboration not only provides an opportunity for social interaction, it also serves as an instructional scaffold toward the development of audience sensitivity.

Englert et al., (1991), reported success in improving expository writing ability of fourth and fifth grade low achieving (LA) and high achieving (HA) students trained in the regular classroom and LD students trained in their special education classrooms, on both explanation and compare/contrast text structures. CSIW

trained students performed better than control students in that trained students' compositions were representative of the organizational patterns of specific text structures and the degree to which they utilized appropriate key words affiliated with specific text structures (primary traits). Students trained in CSIW also produced compositions that were more interesting and which demonstrated the "ability to internalize the perspective of the reader to communicate their ideas more effectively" (audience sensitivity) than did those of the untrained control students (Englert et al., 1991, p.365). Furthermore, trained students demonstrated transfer of strategy knowledge by demonstrating significant improvement on holistic, primary trait, productivity and reader sensitivity scores on the production of an essay requiring a text structure not specifically taught as part of the intervention (expert essay). Trained students' metacognitive knowledge of the writing process and strategies for composing text also improved and significantly surpassed that of the control group.

Englert et al., (1992), further examined whether CSIW would improve the metacognitive knowledge about writing and reading in students with LD and non-learning disabled students (NLD). Analysis of metacognitive interviews determined that students in both intervention groups "showed greater ability to talk about planning, drafting, and revising as well as to discuss their purposes and intended audience" (Englert et al., 1992, p.411). This suggests that trained subjects were able to reflect on their activities in the writing process. Also, positive correlations were indicated between the quality of students' metacognitive knowledge and their essay writing scores which demonstrates the importance of metacognitive knowledge for developing improved writing skills. Furthermore, comparisons made between the NLD and the LD groups indicated that trained LD students made the greatest gains in the incorporation of the language of self-regulation throughout the interviews. Trained LD writers "stressed that the

resources for writing were at the writer's own disposal and that writers had prerogatives related to generating ideas and editing their own papers" (Englert et al., 1992, p.441).

The efficacy of the CSIW program on the essay writing of students with LD within the context of their special education classrooms has been further investigated by Thomas (1993) and Hallenbeck (1996). Thomas (1993), studied 12 grade 5-7 students with LD and reported significant improvements in the students' writing of compare/contrast essays and descriptive reports. Metacognitive interviews also revealed trainees' increased metacognitive knowledge of the two text structures, the writing process and of process strategies. Self-efficacy in writing also improved and students maintained text structure knowledge and improved writing skills over a six week period. Hallenbeck (1996), investigated the effect of the CSIW program on 7 adolescents enrolled in a resource program for junior high and high school students with LD and reported improvements in the production of expert and explanation essays in overall quality, structure-specific primary traits, paper length and reader sensitivity. Hallenbeck (1996), also noted that several trained students adapted CSIW strategies in other classes they attended.

The preceding literature review clearly indicates that intervention research investigating the effect of cognitive strategy instruction on the production of expository writing has yielded encouraging results for educators of students with LD to consider. However, in light of the current trend toward inclusive education (Ministry of Education, 1990; Will, 1986), further research is required to determine whether these interventions will produce similar results in improving expository writing skills in students with LD taught within an inclusive classroom.

Writing Instruction for Students with Learning Disabilities within an Inclusive Setting

Research investigating students with LD's writing progress within the regular classroom is limited. Two studies qualitatively describe the progress of students with LD participating in writing process instruction in the regular classroom (Wansart, 1988; Zaragoza and Vaughn, 1992). A third study examines the efficacy of incorporating strategy instruction with writing process instruction in three inclusive classrooms (Danoff, Harris and Graham, 1993).

Wansart's (1988), case study of a fourth grade LD student initially describes the student as a reluctant writer who produced no more than one or two sentences with intensive individualized support in the resource room setting. Subsequent to the LD student's participation in a fourth grade classroom which used the writing process approach (Graves, 1983, 1985), improvement was evident in the student's overall attitude toward writing and in the amount of writing produced by the student (first completed narrative was 425 words). Furthermore, the LD student began to demonstrate generalization of strategies learned during the writing program to writing assignments in other subject areas such as recording in a reading journal and answering science questions.

Zaragoza and Vaughn (1992), examined the writing samples of a LD, LA and a gifted student participating in writing process instruction (Graves, 1983, 1985) in their regular grade 2 classroom over a period of six months. Improvements were noted in punctuation, spelling, capitalization, and fluency for all students. Furthermore all three students demonstrated improvements in their attitudes about writing.

Danoff and her colleagues (1993), instructed two LD grade five students and one LD grade 4 student who were participating in writing classes which

emphasized a process approach to writing instruction (Calkins, 1991), to apply to their writing, a composition strategy which included self-regulation procedures (Graham & Harris, 1989b; Sawyer, Graham and Harris, 1992). The schematic structure in all of the trained students' stories improved and these improvements were maintained over time and were generalized, occurring in the students' general education classroom as well as the resource room. Except for one trained grade 5 LD student, overall story quality also improved. Furthermore, scores on measures of self-efficacy in writing increased from pretest to posttest for all students.

Adaptation of CSIW to an Inclusive Setting

It is conceivable that CSIW would produce improved writing skills in all students educated within an inclusive environment because it has been proven effective with Low Achievers (LA) and High Achievers (HA) in the regular classroom (Englert et al., 1991) and with LD students in their special education classrooms (Englert et al., 1991; Hallenbeck, 1996; Thomas, 1993). It appears however, that successful implementation may necessitate adapting the program in order to render it effective in an inclusive setting. The adaptations would involve (a) the development of a teaching partnership between generalist and specialist and; (b) the implementation of cooperative learning strategies (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1986).

Teacher Partnership

The current movement toward inclusive education has resulted in the necessity for learning disabilities specialists to become more involved in modifying and adapting the curriculum of the regular classroom in order to meet the diverse needs

of students with LD. LD specialists are also moving away from a "pull-out" model of service delivery and moving toward a "pull-in" model (Gelzheiser & Meyers, 1990; Sindelar, 1995). A pull-in model of service delivery, which promotes a co-teaching relationship between the generalist and specialist, appears to warrant consideration as it holds promise for the successful implementation of CSIW in mainstreamed settings. A co-teaching model, for example, would immediately decrease pupil-teacher ratio, allowing for increased levels of individualized instruction and support, which is often required by students with LD, not to mention the LA and English as a second language (ESL) students that are inevitably part of the inclusive population. A co-teaching partnership could also provide opportunities for teachers to appropriately model various stages of the writing process, particularly those that required peer interaction (e.g. peer conferences).

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning strategies have been proven to be particularly effective in inclusive environments because they appear to assist in the development of both social and academic skills of all students (Madden and Slavin, 1983). Johnson and Johnson (1986a), identify opportunities to cooperate with their peers, as a key factor for the development of appropriate social skills in mainstreamed students with special needs. Research has indicated (Johnson and Johnson, 1986a), that cooperative learning increases a variety of social skills including helping, sharing, cooperating and generalization of cooperation to other settings. Slavin (1987), indicates that cooperative learning strategies also lead to higher academic gains than competitive or individual incentive systems. The effectiveness of cooperative learning in establishing a positive classroom climate promoting students' social and academic skills within an inclusive environment warrants some consideration

when planning CSIW implementation in an inclusive setting. For example, Johnson, Johnson & Holubec (1986), recommend grouping students heterogeneously because they have observed that these types of groupings facilitate "more elaborative thinking, more frequent giving and receiving of explanations, and greater perspective taking" (p.39) than do homogeneous groupings. This is an important consideration when pairing students for the peer editing stage of the CSIW program.

Beyond heterogeneous grouping, Johnson et al, (1986b) identify five key elements of cooperative learning to be; positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face interaction, collaborative skill, and processing. Attention to each of these elements could play a role in ensuring that the collaborative activities of the peer editing teams is productive and on track. It appears that the three key elements of positive interdependence, individual accountability and face-to face interaction are already integral to the CSIW program.

Positive interdependence involves the creation of the perception within a team, that in order to succeed individually, the other team member must be successful as well. Johnson and Johnson (1986b), describe five ways in which teachers may structure positive independence as; positive goal interdependence, positive reward interdependence, positive resource interdependence, positive role interdependence and positive task interdependence. In terms of the peer editing relationship in CSIW, a positive task interdependence exists because in order for each student to complete an essay, their partner must edit their writing and make suggestions regarding revisions. In this context, the element of individual accountability would be established by individual publication of the target essay. Face to face interaction is facilitated through the peer conferencing that occurs upon completion of the edit/editor think sheets. Students have the opportunity to

discuss the strengths and weaknesses of their peers' essays and to make recommendations for revision. It is evident that the CSIW program considers three important elements of cooperative learning within the peer editing structure. Some consideration however, is required of the final two elements of the development of collaborative skill and processing.

The development of collaborative skill is perhaps key to the success of peer interactions and requires teacher modeling and scaffolding (Wong et al., in press). Johnson and Johnson (1986b) identify needed collaborative skills including "leadership, decision-making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management skills" (p.555). Collaborative skill teaching becomes particularly important within a mainstreamed setting, as students with LD are often at risk for problems with social skills (Vaughn, 1991). It appears important then, that peer conferences be supervised closely and that teacher modeling and scaffolding of collaborative skills are provided to students until they demonstrate ability to collaborate effectively without adult support. Close supervision of peer conferences may also provide teachers the opportunity to encourage students to participate in discussions about how well they are doing as a peer editing team which further facilitates the learning of collaborative skills, ensures that each student understands the importance of their editing and allows them to reflect on the areas that require improvement in regard to their collaborative skills (processing).

It appears that the implementation of the CSIW program in an inclusive classroom may yield positive results in producing improved essay writing in all participating students. This hypothesis can reasonably be extrapolated from evidence that CSIW trained LA and HA students have demonstrated improvements in essay writing in the regular classroom (Englert et al., 1991) and that CSIW trained LD students have demonstrated improvements in their special education

classrooms (Englert et al., 1991; Hallenbeck, 1996; Thomas, 1993). It has been proposed by the present author that successful implementation of the CSIW program in the inclusive classroom necessitates the development of a partnership between generalist and specialist and the inclusion of the specific cooperative learning elements of heterogeneous pairing, collaborative skills instruction, and pair processing to create effective peer editing partnerships.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Achievement

While the focus of this study is largely to determine the efficacy of the CSIW program in improving the essay writing of students trained in an inclusive environment, of further interest is whether improvements in students' self-efficacy in writing will be realized as well. The determination of whether cognitive strategy instruction creates improved self-efficacy is an important consideration due to its role as a mechanism underlying academic change, strategy maintenance and strategy generalization (Schunk, 1991). Students with negative perceptions of their capabilities in regard to a specific task often are passive learners (Wong, 1991). If cognitive strategy intervention is to have long term effects, increased self-efficacy which ultimately "mediates choice of activities, expenditure of effort, and persistence in the face of difficulty" (Graham and Harris, 1989b, p.360) merits attention. Although Englert and her colleagues (1991), did not directly measure self-efficacy, other researchers have witnessed positive improvements in cognitive strategy trained LD students' self-efficacy in writing (Danoff et al., 1993; Graham and Harris, 1989a, 1989b; Graham and MacArthur, 1988; Wong et al., 1994, 1996). Certainly some measurement of whether students' participation in CSIW improves self-efficacy would add to the growing body of literature examining the effects of cognitive strategy instruction in writing on student self-efficacy.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature relevant to the present study. Firstly, the difficulties of students of LD experience with writing was reviewed followed by a review of current intervention research developed to improve expository writing ability in students with LD . Specific attention was given to the theoretical background of the CSIW program as this program is the specific focus of this study. A brief discussion regarding the importance of researching the effect of proven writing interventions on LD students taught within an inclusive setting was followed by the presentation of the results of three studies which were completed in inclusive classrooms. Recommendations to facilitate the implementation of CSIW in the inclusive classroom were then discussed followed by a brief discussion of the importance of determining the effect of cognitive strategy instruction on student self-efficacy.

CHAPTER III

Method

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted from March 31, 1994 to June 24, 1994 with the same grade seven teacher in the same school as the final experiment. During this time specific observations were made which resulted in procedural changes in the study. Firstly, it was noted that peer partnerships were much more effective if trainees were paired with same-sex partners. When trainees were paired with peers of the opposite sex there appeared to be less cooperation and more off task behavior. As well, a number of trainees refused to work with specific individuals. Secondly, it was noted that because proofreading skills were not the specific instructional focus during the pilot study, students tended to be more negligent in regard to proofreading their writing. This was cause for concern because the researcher did not want students to disregard this very important step in the writing process (Isaacson, 1992). Therefore students were given an overall score for capitalization, punctuation and spelling although these data were not included in scoring.

The pilot study also provided an opportunity for the researcher and the classroom teacher to clearly define their roles. The classroom teacher was able to observe a variety of peer conferences initiated or facilitated by the researcher. This ensured that the classroom teacher understood the conferencing process and would therefore facilitate peer conferences in much the same manner as the researcher during the experiment.

Also during the pilot study, class posters and prompt cards, in aid of writing, were developed and revised as required. Samples of trainees' essays written for

the pilot study were utilized to assist in the instruction of text analysis and clarity.

Final Experiment

Subjects

The intervention study was conducted in two elementary schools in the school district of Surrey, British Columbia. Both schools enroll students from lower-middle to middle class families.

Prior to beginning the research, parental consent (Appendix A) and approval from the University Ethics Committee were obtained following procedures established for conducting research involving human subjects by both the Surrey School District and Simon Fraser University.

Students participating in the study were grade seven students whose teachers had volunteered to participate in the study. A total of 52 grade seven students participated in the study, 27 of which served as experimental or trained subjects. The remaining 25 students served as untrained control subjects. There were a total of 22 males and 30 females participating. The trained group consisted of 10 males and 17 females and the untrained group consisted of 12 males and 13 females. The ages of the students ranges from 12.2 years to 13.5 years months, with a mean age of 12.7 (SD 3.73) in the experimental group and 12.8 (SD 5.14) in the untrained group. The trained subjects attended a grade seven class in one school and the control group attended a grade seven class in another school. The schools were situated within the same district zone and were approximately 2 kilometers from each other, with residents in the same range of socioeconomic strata. Each classroom was heterogeneous in nature and consisted of High

Achievers (HA), Normal Achievers (NA), Low Achievers (LA). Both classrooms were representative of the current thrust toward inclusion of special needs students in the regular classroom, and therefore both classrooms had students with English as a Second Language (ESL), students with Severely Learning Disabilities (SLD) and students who had a Mild Intellectual Disability (MID), enrolled full time.

Four SLD students participated in the study. They were formally identified by district personnel. The diagnostic criteria for designation as having a severe learning disability is that the learner has to have had a Full Scale score on the WISC-R/III at the 20th percentile or higher and achievement on the Woodcock Johnson Achievement Battery at the 10th percentile or lower in Broad Reading and/or at the 10th percentile or lower in Broad Math and Written Language. Because information of students' measured intelligence is deemed confidential by the School District it cannot be reported here. However, a review of the students' cumulative files confirmed that all criteria had been met. All four SLD students were male. Two were part of the trained experimental group and upon which the forthcoming qualitative analysis was done. Their ages were 12 years 7 months and 13 years 4 months. The ages of the two SLD students who were part of the untrained group were 12 years 9 months and 13 years 6 months.

To insure that the students in the experimental and control conditions were at a similar performance level in reading and writing, they were given vocabulary and comprehension subsets from the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests (MacGinitie and MacGinitie, 1992), the Thematic Maturity and Contextual Vocabulary subtests from the Test of Written Language -2 (TOWL-2) (Hammel & Larsen, 1988). Additionally, the subjects were compared in text structure and clarity in two pretest compare/contrast essays and in a pretest self-efficacy questionnaire.

Pretest Data

Two one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run on the data from the TOWL Thematic Maturity and Contextual Vocabulary subtests involving the two groups (one treatment and one control). In both cases, $F(1,50) < 1$, with resultant $p > .05$.

The means and standard deviations of the TOWL Contextual Vocabulary and Thematic Maturity subtests in the treatment group were 51.89 (11.09) and 52.56 (11.96). The means and standard deviations of the same subtests in the untrained control group were 54.16 (8.65) and 52.72 (8.99). The large standard deviations reflect the variability among the subjects in each group.

Two one-way ANOVAs were run on the vocabulary and comprehension subtests of the Gates MacGinitie Reading tests involving the two groups of subjects. Once again, in both cases $F(1,50) < 1$, with the resultant $p > .05$.

The means and standard deviations of the Gates MacGinitie vocabulary and comprehension subtests in the trained experimental group were 44.78 (10.67) and 44.11 (9.85). The means and standard deviations of the same subtests in the untrained control group were 44.60 (8.63) and 44.76 (11.37). The large standard deviations once again reflect the variability among the subjects in each group.

Three one-way ANOVAs involving the two groups of subjects were run on the pretest data from ratings of text structure, clarity and from the self-efficacy questionnaire on writing. The ANOVAs indicated no reliable differences between the two groups on the self-efficacy questionnaire [$F(1,50) = .70, p > .05$] or on clarity pretest essay data [$F(1,50) = 1.32, p > .05$].

However, the two one-way ANOVAs on the text structure pretest essay data indicated a significant difference between the two groups. [$F(1,50) = 6.34, p < .05$]. The untrained control group mean and standard deviation for text structure were

6.72 (1.73). The experimental group mean and standard deviation for text structure were 5.43 (1.96).

The unexpected finding of superior performance of the untrained control group on the text structure pretest essay data was comparable to the findings of Wong and her colleagues (1994). Wong's pretest data demonstrated a significant difference between groups in the comprehension subtest of the Gates MacGinitie reading tests. Wong determined that this finding had little affect on the intervention data. This researcher has also determined that the above findings had little affect on the intervention data of this study for the same reasons identified by Wong : (1) the results of the intervention (reported in following chapter) clearly indicated that the trained experimental group ultimately surpassed the untrained control group; (2) on all the other pretests including the vocabulary and comprehension subtests of the Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests, the Thematic Maturity and Contextual Vocabulary subtests of the TOWL, the pretest essay clarity data, and the self-efficacy questionnaire, no reliable differences among the two groups (experimental and control) were found.

Experimental Design

A two-group, pretest-posttest experimental design was used in this study. Additionally, to complement quantitative data analyses, I shall present qualitative data from analyses of LD trainees' quality of writing, video-tapes of peer conferences involving LD trainees and field observations of students with LD throughout the training process.

Procedure

All instruction and assessment in this study was conducted by the researcher. The researcher was assisted however, by the cooperating classroom teacher in facilitating peer editing conferences. Instruction was conducted in the trainees' regular classroom, however, editing conferences were held in both the regular classroom and in the SLD resource room. This was done because it provided the researcher with a private space to hold conferences in and it decreased the level of distraction for video-taping purposes.

Peer editing pairs were randomly assigned to the regular classroom teacher or the researcher except for the SLD students and their partners who were assigned to the researcher for all three essay conferences. This was done to ensure the video-taping of all the SLD subjects' conferences. All trainees who participated in conferences with the researcher were video-taped. Over the course of the study all trainees participated in a video-taped session in the resource room at least once.

The study began February 6, 1995, and except for one week of Spring Break, continued to May 23, 1995, for a total of fourteen instructional weeks. Students met for fifty instructional sessions, engaging in a variety of activities such as direct teaching, planning, organizing, drafting, editing, conferencing, revising, proofreading and publishing. The instructional activities will be discussed in detail in subsequent sections.

Assessment Procedures

For the trained experimental group, data were collected at three points in each phase of the study: pretest, posttest and maintenance. The untrained control group data were collected at two points: pretest and posttest. For both groups,

two pretest samples of writing were assessed for each subject. However, time constraints permitted only one sample of writing to be collected from each student for posttest and maintenance probes.

Prior to the beginning of instruction both trained and untrained groups were asked to compose two compare/contrast essays. Both groups were first presented with an explanation of what a compare/contrast essay was. It was explained that two subjects within the same larger category could be discussed in terms of how they were alike and how they were different. The example of fruit was used as a category and apples and oranges were chosen as the subjects to be compared and contrasted. This researcher then orally gave examples of compare/contrast statements. For example, an apple is red or gold in color, however an orange is orange in color; an orange has a thick skin that you cannot eat while an apple has a thin red or gold skin that you may choose to eat; both fruits are high in nutritional value. Trainees then were asked to give other examples of how they might compare/contrast an apple and an orange. Trainees were then asked to brainstorm other subjects that they might choose to write about. This researcher responded to appropriate topics by recording them on chart paper which was posted in the classroom so that the trainees could use it to generate their own topic choices for the pretests. Trainees were required to choose the specific topic for the compare/contrast text structure to ensure that the topic was within the students' knowledge base and interest (Benton, Corkill & Khramtsova, 1992; Lloyd-Jones, 1977). This format was followed for each writing sample collected at pretest, posttest and maintenance points in the study.

Writing Assessment

Compare/contrast essays written by the students, including those for pretest,

posttest and maintenance test purposes, were scored using primary trait scores for text structure (Cooper, 1977; Lloyd-Jones, 1977) and holistic scoring for clarity (Wong et al., 1994) (Appendix B). Four primary traits were analyzed and were assigned an individual rating of 0-5. Three of the traits included (Englert et al., 1989; 1991): a) introduction of the topic to be compared and contrasted b) description of similarities and differences within specific categories, and c) use of key or signal words. A fourth primary trait was included which required the summarization of key points. A score of zero was given if the primary trait was absent, whereas five was given if the trait was clearly and fully represented in its entirety. Lastly, the essays were assessed for overall clarity on a scale of 0-5. For clarity, a zero represented an essay which lacked complete and relevant ideas, whereas a five reflected an essay where ideas were complete, understandable and clear throughout (Wong et al., 1994). Each essay was rated out of a maximum score of 25: 20 points were assigned to Text Structure and 5 points were assigned to Clarity. It should be noted once again that throughout the instructional portion of the study, students were also rated on their proofreading accuracy so that they would take ownership for their own proofreading and to instill the importance of this last stage of the writing process. However, for the purposes of this study those scores have not been included in analyses.

Assessment of Self-Efficacy

The self-efficacy questionnaires contained Likert-type questions with a rating scale of one to five, with one indicating the most negative perception of self as writer and of writing in general, and five the most positive (Appendix C). Items were sequenced in a way to avoid response set in subjects. This questionnaire had

been used previously in research done by Wong and her associates (Wong et al., 1994, 1996, in press).

Reliability Procedures

All scoring of the writing samples as well as the self-efficacy questionnaire was completed by the researcher. Another graduate student in education who had no association with the study scored a random sample of 29% of the essays and questionnaires pooled from the experimental and control conditions. The percent agreement between her scoring and the scoring of the researcher which was calculated using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation to obtain interrater reliability of essay clarity, 80%, essay structure, 95%, self-efficacy questionnaire, 100%.

Instructional Procedures

Instruction in writing compare/contrast essays was modeled after Curriculum Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) (Englert et al., 1989; Englert et al., 1991). The trainees were first instructed in compare/contrast text structure and then were instructed in the overall writing process of planning, organizing, writing, editing and revising (POWER) (Englert et al., 1989; Englert et al., 1991). Each step of the process was then modeled, followed by guided practice and then finally subjects used the strategy independently. Instruction in clarity was incorporated in the editing phase of the process. Each phase of the instructional process is described in detail below.

Text Structure

Trainees were introduced to compare/contrast text structure through the presentation of a student writing sample from a pilot study run during the previous school year which represented a "good " example of an essay (Appendix D). Trainees were directed to note the overall structure of the essay which included an introductory paragraph, three category paragraphs and a summary. The overall structure was referred to as the acronym "IC3S," which stood for the following: Introduction, Category #1, Category #2, Category #3, Summary. Subjects were provided with IC3S prompt cards which were kept in their writing folders and an IC3S poster was hung in the classroom (Appendix E). Trainees were also instructed as to the presence and function of the introductory statement, topic sentences, supporting details and the summary statement. In order to assess whether trainees could indeed recognize specific components of a compare/contrast essay, they were provided with another writing sample (Appendix 3) and asked to color code each component. Further analysis of compare contrast essays involved the presentation of "fair" and "poor" writing samples which were discussed in terms of whether overall structure and specific components were present or absent and suggestions were given to improve the essay to meet the requirements of structure (Appendix D). In a future lesson the above process was used to introduce key or signal words. Trainees revisited the "good" writing sample, highlighted key or signal words on another writing sample, and discussed improvements on "poor" or "fair" writing samples. Trainees were provided with a prompt card of key words and key word cards were posted in the classroom as well (Appendix E).

Scoring and Graphing

After students were instructed on compare/contrast text structure they were given a lesson on the criteria by which they would be graded. Hillocks' (1984) research indicated that student awareness of criteria is an effective technique to assist in enhancing writing quality. Essays written throughout this study were graded and reported to parents as an overall average term mark in writing. Trainees were provided with a copy of scoring criteria, a revised version of criteria used by Thomas (1993) (Appendix B) and each primary trait was discussed in an oral lecture with the whole class. Trainees were also provided with graphs on which they recorded their pretest scores (Appendix F); individual trait scores and total scores. This provided a baseline by which the students could compare their subsequent essays. Each time a graded essay was returned to the trainees they recorded their progress on their own personal graphs. Both the classroom teacher and the researcher would circulate during this time and point out areas that trainees improved on, and would also encourage students to identify an area which they would try to improve on throughout the following essay. This feedback was provided to develop self-efficacy for writing and internal attributions based on effort and strategy use.

POWER

Based on Englert's model (Englert et al., 1989; Englert et al., 1990) the overall writing process was taught through using the acronym "POWER" which stands for Plan, Organize, Write, Edit/Editor, and Revise. Trainees were first introduced to the overall process through the introduction of the acronym and by a subsequent explanation of each of the cognitive strategies of planning, organizing, writing, editing and revising. A class poster was posted in the classroom for trainees to refer to throughout their learning (Appendix E). Once trainees appeared to have an

understanding of "POWER", the strategies were modeled for them as the researcher wrote a compare /contrast essay . The researcher first modeled how one might choose a topic by first choosing an area of interest and then by determining whether one had enough knowledge in that particular area to derive a topic and write a detailed essay on it. Topic choice was followed by instruction in each cognitive strategy by first modeling the cognitive and metacognitive processes required for each of the strategies planning, organizing, writing, editing and revising. This was followed by trainee guided practice. Teacher modeling was done with the assistance of an overhead projector upon which transparencies of "Think Sheets" designed by Englert, were projected and written on, as the researcher "thought out loud" (Englert et al., 1989; Englert et al., 1991).

For planning, trainees were trained to brainstorm ideas and to record them on the "Plan Think Sheet" (Appendix G). The researcher first modeled the strategy on an overhead projector, then students were encouraged to assist the researcher by contributing their ideas to the researcher's plan. Trainees were then required to develop their own plans on topics of their choice, and were encouraged to informally discuss their plans with other classmates.

For organizing, trainees learned to identify three appropriate categories under which each of their brainstormed phrases, words or sentences could be placed. Once again, the information was recorded on the "Organize Think Sheet" (Appendix G). The researcher once again modeled this organization strategy by "thinking aloud" while recording information on a projection of the Think Sheet. Students were encouraged to make contributions by suggesting appropriate categories or by assisting in the categorization of brainstormed ideas. Once the researcher's Think Sheet was completed, trainees were required to complete the organization strategy independently. Trainees were encouraged to informally discuss the organization of their essays with their classmates.

Writing was modeled by the researcher and then performed by trainees in three phases, which coincided with the overall structure of the compare/contrast essay: (a) introduction (b) categories (c) summary. Specific areas of focus for the introductory paragraph included: Insuring that students wrote a topic sentence, followed by a description of the categories to be discussed; and that they end the paragraph with an interesting comment on the topic. Specific areas of focus for the "category" paragraphs included insuring students introduced the category with a topic sentence, and made both comparisons and contrasts in each category. Instructional focus for the summary paragraph included insuring students provided a summary statement describing the chosen topic, restated the categories that were discussed within the body of the essay, and concluded with an overall opinion statement.

The classroom teacher modeled the editing strategy by using the "Edit Think Sheet" as a guide (Appendix G). Using the "Edit Think Sheet," students edited their own essays; then traded essays with their peer editors and used the "Editor Think Sheet" (Appendix G) to edit each other's work. This was followed by both the researcher and the classroom teacher modeling a peer conference. The peer conference culminated with each writer filling out a "Revision Think Sheet" (Appendix G). As with the previous stages of the writing process, trainees observed the researcher making appropriate revisions to her essay before they were required to revise their own essays. There was also specific direct instruction given on the use of revision symbols.

Trainees were also instructed on how to use the "COPS" strategy (Schumaker, Deshler, Alley, Warner, Clark and Nolan, 1981). This strategy utilizes the acronym "COPS" to assist students in proofreading their writing for errors in Capitalization, Omissions, Punctuation and Spelling. Trainees were required to proofread their essays themselves and to also have a peer or an adult proofread

their work before publishing. A "Proofreading Pass" was used to promote individual accountability for proofreading (Corday, 1988) (Appendix H).

As described above, the first essays written by the trainees were closely monitored. Each cognitive strategy, cued by the acronym "POWER" was modeled by the researcher. Trainees were then required to complete the modeled strategy before instruction on the next strategy began. Following this closely monitored instructional procedure, students were required to complete two more essays independently.

Clarity Instruction

Instruction on Clarity was given immediately after the draft version of the essay was completed and just before the Edit stage of the writing process. Trainees were presented with a "Poor" example of clarity in a compare/contrast essay which was written during the pilot study (Appendix I). The researcher identified specific sentences within the essay which were unclear and talked about why the sentence or phrase was confusing to the reader. Further to this the researcher discussed ways in which the author could rewrite the unclear sections in a clearer fashion. The researcher also demonstrated how as an editor each trainee would use a highlighter pen to highlight those unclear sections on which she/he could make recommendations for revisions to the author during peer editing conferences. After three unclear areas were discussed by the researcher, the whole class was invited to continue to identify unclear sentences or phrases. When the whole essay was analyzed in this fashion the researcher presented an edited version of the essay which could now be classified as a "good" example of clarity (Appendix I).

Trainees utilized the modeled procedure to edit their own essays and ultimately a peer's essay for clarity.

Peer Editing

Throughout each stage of the writing process trainees were encouraged to share their ideas and assist their peers as required. However, it was determined that a more formal method of pairing trainees was required for the peer editing stage in order that each peer conference could easily be supervised and facilitated by either the researcher or the classroom teacher. In keeping with the recommendations of Johnson and Johnson (1986), low-achieving students were paired with average or high achieving students. For the purposes of this study, low achievers were identified by reviewing scores on the Gates-MacGinitie. Students scoring below the 39th percentile on the composite score were identified as low achievers. Trainees were also paired with partners of the same sex based on the observations made throughout the pilot study. Partners were changed for each of the three essays written and were chosen randomly with the above criterial limitations. All of the peer conferences were supervised by either the researcher or the classroom teacher and all conferences facilitated by the researcher were video-taped.

Control Group

The twenty-five students participating in the control group were taught writing skills through a process writing approach guided by the British Columbia Language Arts Curriculum.

Maintenance Assessment

Four weeks following the posttest assessment, a maintenance probe was administered. Trainees were given the same instructions administered at pretest and posttest sessions. Only one sample was collected due to time constraints.

CHAPTER IV

Results and Discussion

In this chapter, the data will be examined and discussed within the framework of the five questions posed in Chapter 1. Questions 1 through 3 will be analyzed quantitatively while questions 4 and 5 will be analyzed qualitatively.

1. Will students taught compare/contrast essays through CSIW improve in their essay writing more than students not taught through CSIW?

As shown in Table 1, the means in the trained condition show improvements in both structure and clarity written across time, from pretest to posttest. On the other hand it appears that the untrained condition did not improve on either structure or clarity over time.

To determine the statistical significance of the improvements made by the trained group, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run with the untrained and trained group serving as the between-group variable (Groups), and with pretest and posttest serving as the within-group variable (Tests). The two dependent variables simultaneously analyzed were clarity and structure. The MANOVA results indicated a significant Main Effect of Groups $F(2,49) = 59.29$, $p < .001$ as well as a significant Main Effect of Tests $F(2,49) = 121.47$, $p < .001$. Furthermore, the Group X Tests interaction was significant $F(2,49) = 191.87$, $p < .001$. In order to locate the sites of the significant interaction indicated by the MANOVA, t tests were run. Data from these follow-up analyses will illuminate and qualify interpretations of the main effects.

Regarding the dependent variable structure, results of the t tests indicate that although the untrained group ($M=6.72$) surpassed the trained group ($M=5.43$) on

Table 1

Means and Standard deviations in rated clarity and structure in student compare contrast essays under two conditions: Trained and untrained, and three tests: Pretest, posttest and maintenance tests for the trained condition and two tests: Pretest and posttest for the untrained condition.

Trained Condition				
	n	Pretest	Posttest	Maintenance
Clarity	27	2.32 (0.80)	3.33 (1.11)	3.33 (0.88)
Structure	27	5.43 (1.96)	16.78 (1.95)	16.67 (2.30)
Untrained Condition				
	n	Pretest	Posttest	
Clarity	25	2.60 (0.99)	2.20 (1.190)	
Structure	25	6.72 (1.73)	5.44 (2.47)	

on structure at pretest $t(50) = -2.52, p < .05$, the trained group ($M=16.78$) surpassed the untrained group ($M=5.44$) at posttest $t(50) = 18.46, p < .001$. Examination of the t -values also indicated that the trained group improved significantly over time from pretest to posttest, $t(26) = -25.07, p < .001$ while no significant improvement was evident for the untrained group.

Regarding the dependent variable of clarity, no significant difference between

groups was found at pretest. In contrast, results of the t-tests demonstrate significant difference on clarity between groups at posttest $t(50) = 3.55, p < .01$. The trained group also improved significantly over time from pretest to posttest $t(26) = -5.27, p < .001$ while no significant improvement was evident for the untrained group.

In summary, four separate t tests clearly located the sites of significant interactions. Specifically for both dependent variables, structure and clarity, the trained group surpassed the untrained group at posttest. Thus, the preceding data from follow-up analyses clearly constrain interpretation of significant main effects of group and tests.

2. Will students taught compare/contrast essays through CSIW demonstrate strategy maintenance over time?

As shown on Table 1, the means of the trained group from posttest to maintenance test for both clarity and structure change very little over time. In order to determine the significance of this finding a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run in which the trained group served as the within group variable and posttest and maintenance tests were the within group variable. The results of this analysis indicated that there was no significant finding $F(2,25) = .05, p > .05$. The data suggests that the trained group maintained their gains in both structure and clarity in essays written.

3. Will students taught compare/contrast essays through CSIW improve their self-efficacy for writing more than students not taught through CSIW?

As Table 2 indicates, it appears that the means in the trained condition show trainees improved in self-efficacy across time, from pretest to posttest. In order to determine the significance of this finding, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

run using groups as the between subjects variable (Groups) and tests as the within subjects variable (Tests). The dependent measure was self-efficacy. The results

Table 2

Means and Standard deviations on Self-efficacy questionnaire results in the trained and untrained conditions at pretest and posttest

	N	Pretest	Posttest
Trained	27	35.00 (7.14)	38.00 (6.31)
Untrained	25	32.08 (6.99)	32.88 (6.88)

indicated a significant Main Effect of Groups $F(1,50) = 6.08, p < .05$. There was not however, a significant Tests main effect $F(1,50) = 3.85, p > .05$ nor a significant Groups X Test interaction $F(1,50) = 1.29, p > .05$.

In light of the absence of significant Tests main effect as well as of significant Group X Test interaction, the significant Main Effect of Groups are best seen as reflecting trends in self-efficacy improvement in trained students.

Presentation of students' with SLD scores are presented in Table 3. Both students' scores show a trend toward an improvement in self-efficacy in writing. The SLD students pretest scores are somewhat lower than the mean pretest score of the trained group ($M=35.00$) while their posttest scores more closely resemble the mean of the trained group ($M=38.00$).

Table 3

Self-efficacy questionnaire results of the trained SLD students at pretest and posttest

	Pretest	Posttest
Student 1	29	39
Student 2	26	32

Qualitative Analysis

4. Will mainstreamed SLD students demonstrate improvements in their ability to write compare/contrast essays?

Table 4 shows that both SLD students improved over time on Structure. Improvement in clarity, however, was much more elusive to attain for both students.

Table 4

SLD students' scores in rated clarity and structure in compare contrast essays under three tests: Pretest, posttest and maintenance tests

		Pretest 1	Pretest 2	Pretest Mean	Posttest	Maintenance
Student 1	Clarity	3	1	2	2	2
	Structure	6	1	3.5	11	13
Student 2	Clarity	1	2	1.5	2	2
	Structure	4	3	3.5	13	9

To let readers view the improvements made by the two SLD students in their compare/contrast essay writing, sample essays written at pre, post and maintenance tests are provided in Figures 1 and 2. Specifically, improvements were reflected in students' overall essay structure which was rated on four components: Introduction, description, key words and summary.

Structure

Commentary on SLD Student 1's Essay Writing

In both pretest essays written by Student 1, no formal introduction to his topics are observed. For example, although a title is present in Pretest 1 which provides a clue to the overall topic, the reader is not made aware of the student's goal until much later in the essay when it becomes evident that both comparisons and contrasts are being made on hockey and football. No mention of the actual topic occurs until the second sentence. On the other hand, in the posttest essay, this student clearly identifies his topic in the first sentence and continues by describing the categories he has chosen to organize his information. It is noted however, that although students were instructed to complete their introductions with an interesting "catch phrase" this student has not provided this component of a good introduction.

In Pretest 1 of SLD Student 1, there is some evidence of organization or structure in that the student first provided a series of statements which made comparisons, and then followed up with a series of consecutive statements that contrasted the two sports of hockey and football. However, there is no attempt made to categorize information, and the writer jumps from a statement regarding the rules of the game, to a statement about equipment, back to rules, then to a statement describing the field or play area, and so on. This illustrates what

Figure 1: Pretest, Posttest and Maintenance Compare/Contrast Writing Samples of SLD Student 1.

Pretest - Essay 1

Hockey and Football

They Both want to get more points than the other teams. Hockey and football Both wear helmets and shoulder pads. There is hitting in both of the sports. They Both have refs. They both have lines Hockey has Blue and reds and Football has yardlines. But Hockey you ice skate Football you run. Hockey has more equipment to wear. Football is on grass. Hockey has goals and football doesn't. Hockey has a Puck football has a football. Hockey has periods and Football has Quarters. Hockey has Boards.

Pretest - Essay 2

Shoe

There are shoes that are repeats like they look the same they aren't. There is the same styles. There are expensive shoes there are cheap shoes There are Basketball shoes there are track shoes some are ugly some aren't There are green Blue, orange, Purple, Black, white, gray, pink shoes

Posttest essay

In this compare and contrasting essay I will be writing about Baseball and football the categories are going to be Equipment, field, rules.

For my first category I will be writing about Equipment it is the same and different in many ways. They Both use a Ball But on the other hand football has an oval Ball and Baseball has a round Ball. They Both wear a helmet all the time like football Baseball has a Bat and football doesn't.

For my second paragraph I will be writing about field Both fields have grass But on the other hand Baseball has sand around the bases. Baseball has bases and football doesn't. Both sports have lines Baseball has the base line and football has a line every yard.

For my third paragraph I will be writing about rules. In Baseball the basemen can not stand in front of the base because then the runner can't get to the base. In football you can not grab the runner with the ball.

In conclusion I wrote this essay. I wrote about Equipment, field and rules

Maintenance Essay

Harley and Honda Bikes

In this compare and contrasting essay I will be writing about Harley's and Honda motor bike. The three categories will be engine, looks and price.

For my first category I will be writing about engine. The Harley engine is much more powerful than the Honda on the other hand Honda is cheaper than the Harley Davidson. The Harley is much bigger. The Harley is much harder to control. My Dad has a Harley Davidson it is really nice it has flames on its tank and wheels. It is in fact, condition. I see Honda and Harley are better and powerful.

For my second I will be writing about looks on a Harley then engine looks better because more chrome on it. The tank on the Harley looks better than the Honda's because it is bigger and better shape.

For my third I will be writing about price it is made in. Harley is a U.S.A. bike on the other hand Honda is made in Japan. Harley would be harder to make than Honda. Because it has more parts.

In conclusion I wrote this essay about Harley Davidson and Honda. The categories were engine, look and price it is made. Harley is a way different bike. I think Harley Davidson a way better.

Figure 2: Pretest, Posttest and Maintenance Compare/Contrast Writing Samples of SLD Student 2

Pretest - Essay 1

BOYS 2 MEN, GREENDAY

- They bouth have good songs.
- They bouth are very very good singers.
- They bouth are on Z 95.3 FM the best radio station.
- I've got bouth of them on tape.

Pretest - Essay 2

Hit list and musick chanle

- they Bouth play musick
- the Hit list plays better musik
- the musick chanle is on every day and the Hit lest is not
- the Hit lest plays musick from Z and musick chanle hardly dose.
- the Hit lest has a C.d a caset when - musick chanle dose not

Posttest Essay

I this compare and contras easy I'm going to talk about biks and cars in trasptasen speed and what makes itwerks. In this pargraph I'm going to talk about speed a bike gose as fast as a car but the bik maks more nose case it to cover the moter.

In this paragraph Im going to talk about what makes it work they both use gas and oil. but a car neds have more gas and oil.

In this paragraph I'm going to talk about trnpertasn They bout can take you whar you want to go but a bike can take you more plases and is smaller then a car.

In this easy I talked about bikes and cars in transpetation, speed and what maks it wark ana I like both of them.

Maintenance Essay

In this essay I'm going to compare and contrast tage and ball tage in extment, how meney pepole and to pike teams and how to play it.

In this pareigraph I'm going to talk about the equipment of the game in balltage you need sume balls, pepole and something for a child like a garbage can lead. and in tage you jist need pople.

I this paregrapf I'm going to talk about how meney pepole you need and how to pike teams in this game you have to have more then 5 pepole and you get to pik who you want to be with and if that don't werk you do patatos in tage you jist need the same way to pik temes and only 2 or more pople

I this pareigrapf I'm going to writ about how to play thim in ball tage you neat to hit the person with a ball and in tage you have to touch the persen and in ball tage you can touck some one on your tem if he gets hit and he will be free and in tage you don't.

In my opinyen I like ball tage beter because I no how to play it better.

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1986) termed a "knowledge telling" strategy where the student simply writes down everything he knows about a particular subject with no regard to relevance or to specific text structure. Employment of this strategy is also evident in the second pretest essay of Student 1 in which the writer simply lists facts and makes no attempt to compare or contrast information. The body of the posttest essay is clearly divided into three categories. Paragraph one and two present several statements which describe both similarities and differences. However, it appears that the student was unable to sustain this effort throughout paragraph three and has once again resorted to a "knowledge-telling" strategy.

Although there was evidence of key word usage in SLD Student 1's Pretest 1, usage was limited to the use of the word "both" to signal comparison and "but" to signal contrast. Student 1 also substituted "and" where a key word would have been more appropriate as in the statement, "Hockey has periods *and* football has quarters." In Pretest 2, there is a complete lack of key words which is probably due to the student's failure to write any compare or contrast statements. However, he demonstrates an increased awareness of key word usage in his posttest essay. Attempts to use more novel key words is evident such as "whereas" and "on the other hand." However, the key words are often used incorrectly as in the statement, "They both wear helmets *whereas* baseball doesn't wear a helmet all the time like football." The student also continues to substitute "and" for an appropriate key word as in, "Baseball has a bat *and* football doesn't."

No attempt was made to summarize the information written in either Pretest 1 or Pretest 2, but there is evidence that the student has developed an awareness of the concept of summarization in the posttest. The effort does not include a summary statement in regard to the overall topic however, and does not include an opinion statement.

Commentary on SLD Student 2's Essay Writing

Student 2 did not provide a formal introduction for either of his pretest essays. Other than the presence of a title, no indication of the overall topic was provided in Pretest 1. In Pretest 2 the reader is not made aware of the topic until the last statement. In the posttest essay on the other hand, Student 2 introduces the topic immediately and identifies the three categories under which he has organized his information. Like student 1 however, he has not provided an interesting "catch phrase."

In Pretest 1, no attempt was made by Student 2 to write his information in essay form. He instead, chose to write a series of details in point form. Pretest Essay 2 is somewhat better than Pretest 1 in that the student included both compare and contrast statements while only comparisons were made in Pretest 1. Again, we have a case of the "knowledge telling" strategy where no structure or organization is present. The posttest essay shows improvement in organizing compare/contrast statements under three categories. It is evident that the student has included both compare/contrast statements but it appears that he has had difficulty generating ideas as there are a minimal amount of details under each category provided.

In both pretest essays Student 2 uses the term "both" to signal similarity but does not provide any key words to signal differences. He also uses "and" and "when" where a key word would be more appropriate as in the statement, "the Hit List plays music from *Z* and music channel hardly does." In the posttest, key word usage is still limited to the use of "both" to signal similarity, however, the student now includes "but" to signal differences. No effort is made to use more sophisticated key words in the posttest. However, the essay is void of substitutions of "and" or "when" for more appropriate key words.

Neither pretest effort includes a formal summary of information. The posttest essay on the other hand, includes a complete summary which reviews both the topic and the three categories and also provides an opinion.

In summary, it is evident that both SLD students improved in communicating their thoughts in a more organized manner. They both demonstrate an improved understanding of overall compare/contrast structure which is reflected in their overall essay scores as well as through an analysis of their pretest and posttest essay samples.

Clarity

Clarity proved to be an elusive ideal for both SLD students (Table3). It was evident from early on in the instructional process that both students had difficulty comprehending this very abstract concept. Throughout the editing stages of the three instructional essays, both students either avoided highlighting unclear parts altogether or highlighted spelling mistakes as "unclear." During the three student conferences held with each of the two SLD students and their peer editors, the researcher continually modeled the procedure of highlighting and correcting unclear statements for the SLD students but this appeared not to be effective in improving the overall clarity of their essays. Poor overall clarity was due to a variety of issues such as incomplete thoughts as in , "In conclusion to I wrote this essay" ; vague reference to subject as in the statements, " Both wear helmets." or "They both play music."; incorrect grammar such as, "In this compare and contrasting essay...." or "For my first categories....."; incorrect use of vocabulary as in the statement, "There are some shoes that are *repeats* like they look the same they aren't."; and missing articles or prepositions as in the phrase, "...but a car needs have more gas and oil." or as in the statement "Hockey has goal and football doesn't."

5. Will mainstreamed SLD students demonstrate strategy maintenance over time?

Table 4 indicates that the SLD students maintained the strategy over time. Student 1 in fact has improved his overall score for structure, while Student 2 has deteriorated somewhat.

Analysis of maintenance essays indicates that both students included a formal introduction which introduced the topic immediately and also identified the three categories under which the compare/contrast statements would be organized. Hence there does not appear to be any deterioration of strategy use in regard to the appropriate structure of the introduction.

Both students maintained the use of three "category" paragraphs to organize their compare/contrast statements. Student 1 deteriorated somewhat in that his details included contrasting statements only, in all three paragraphs. He also went off on a tangent in the first paragraph and reverted back to utilizing a "knowledge telling" strategy. Student 2 also provided contrasting statements only, and once again demonstrated difficulty with idea generation in that very few details were presented under any given category. Both SLD students' failure to provide comparison statements and their demonstrated difficulty with organization and idea generation may be attributed to their lack of planning before writing their maintenance essay. Both students generated a "plan" before writing their posttest essay but failed to do so before their maintenance test (Figure 3). A more detailed discussion of the significance of this occurrence will follow in the next chapter.

Figure 3: SLD Students "Plans" at Posttest

Student 1

Baseball	footBall
EQUtmont same Ball halmet	Difront not alles helment
fild grass	Base bas Bases foot lines Base one Base line
rule Base Ball you can not stind in front of the Base	

Student 2

bikes	and	cars
1 - It take you whar you want to go 2- as fast 3 - use gas 3- has a moter 1 - smaller 1- gose more plases 2-nosy		1- It take you whar you want to go 2- go faster 3- use gas 3 - has a moter 1- bigger 1- gose less plases 2- quit

The level of key word usage was also maintained by both students. Unlike his efforts in the posttest essay, Student 1 did not experiment with a variety of key words in the maintenance test. However, because usage was often incorrect in the posttest essay the overall change was rated as minimal.

Student 1 actually improved his summary on the maintenance test. He included a review of both the topic and the categories and also provided an opinion statement. Student 2, on the other hand, only provided an opinion statement and therefore demonstrated strategy deterioration in this structural component.

In summary, it appears that both students maintained the skills taught through CSIW training. There was some deterioration evident however, in regard to the overall structure of the details identified under each category. In their

maintenance essays both students provided contrasting statements exclusively and failed to provide statements of comparison. Both SLD students developed a written plan before writing their posttest essay but did not do so for the maintenance probe. Further deterioration was evident in the summary written by Student 2. Student 1 however, maintained improvements in writing a summary.

CHAPTER V

Conclusions

This study investigated the efficacy of Englert's (1988; 1992) Cognitive Strategy Instruction in Writing (CSIW) program within an inclusive classroom. Of specific interest were the effects of CSIW on the overall structure and clarity in trainees' compare/contrast essays, maintenance of these effects and trainees' self-efficacy in writing. There was an additional focus of the impact of CSIW on two students with severe learning disabilities (SLD) in the inclusive classroom.

Analysis of pretest and posttest writing samples indicated that significant improvements were made in the overall structure of the trained students' compare/contrast essays. This was also true for the trained students with SLD. All students improved in providing an introduction, three category paragraphs, a summary and in using appropriate key words. These results corroborated with those obtained by Englert et al., (1991), who trained normal achievers (NA) and High Achievers (HA) in the regular classroom and learning disabled (LD) students in their special education classrooms; and Hallenback, (1996) and Thomas, (1993) who trained LD students in their special education classrooms.

The improvements made in overall text structure may be attributed to the interaction of some key CSIW instructional strategies. Students are first directly taught the organizational structures in text through teacher presentation of several writing samples that contain a specific text structure. This instructional strategy provides students with a schema upon which to "hang" new information (Englert, 1988). Knowledge of text structure is further enhanced by the teacher modeling strategies related to producing specific text structures. Teacher modeling is facilitated through the use of dialogue or think-alouds (Langer, 1984) during which

students are encouraged to participate and "thus begin to internalize the self-talk and thinking that guides writing performance in each of the writing subprocesses" (Englert, 1988, p.517). Teacher modeling and guided practice through the use of "think-sheets" provide the scaffolding which enable students to generate organizational and self-questioning cues. Of particular relevance to text structure are the organize and edit/editor think sheets. The organize think-sheet guides the student to organize their information according to the target text structure while the edit/editor think sheets guide students to consider both overall content and textual organization of their draft product (Englert, 1988). To summarize, the trained students' improvements in overall text structure in this study point to specific CSIW instructional strategies which were designed to develop text structure awareness and to instruct students in how to produce specific text structure. These instructional strategies include; the direct teaching of text structure, the teacher modeling of the production of specific text structures and the utilization of scaffolding provided by the organize and edit-editor think sheets.

Regarding clarity of essays written, the SLD students did not improve here while their classmates did. For such improvement to have occurred Wong et al., (1994) suggest the pivotal role of interactive dialogues between the student writer and teacher and/or student critic. However, the similar role of interactive dialogues during peer conferences in this study was not effective for these SLD students.

Observations made throughout student conferences indicated that initially all students had some difficulty comprehending the concept of clarity. Although students were instructed to highlight information that was unclear due to incorrect word usage, grammatical error or because of vague phrasing, they initially focused entirely upon spelling errors. Intensive teacher intervention was required during the first set of conferences to develop an understanding of how to detect and correct ambiguities in their own and their peer's writing.

For the majority of trained students, it appeared that direct instruction during peer conferences, which focused on identifying and revising unclear parts of student essays, was sufficient to induce student understanding of clarity in writing. Much improvement was evident in the trained students' detection of ambiguities in their essays during subsequent conferences. However, similar improvement was not evident in the students with SLD. Not once throughout the "Edit" stage of the overall writing process, did either student with SLD highlight any portion of their three practice essays. The students with SLD made "clarity" revisions based only on recommendations made by the teacher and/or the peer editor.

The disappointing results in regard to the SLD students' essay clarity imply that more individualized instruction coupled with further practice may be required before this very abstract concept becomes understood by SLD writers. The positive results witnessed by Wong and her colleagues (1994) may be a result of a more intensive intervention throughout which students wrote 6 to 8 practice essays, compared to the 3 practice essays completed by trained students in this study. Hence, the present data suggest more intensive training is necessary to produce desired level/amount of improvement in the clarity of SLD students' writing.

The difficulty of the compare/contrast text structure may have contributed to the SLD students' difficulty with essay clarity. Englert and Hiebert (1984), found that of four major types of expository text investigated, the compare/contrast structure was one of the most difficult for children at grades three and six to comprehend. Raphael, Englert, and Kirschner (1986), similarly found that for upper-elementary students, the compare/contrast text structure was one of the more difficult structures to compose. Perhaps improvement in essay clarity would have been attainable for the trained SLD students in this study had the target text structure been much less difficult to comprehend and write.

The improved skills in the structural component of the compare/contrast essays were maintained by all trainees four weeks after the study. Qualitative analysis of the SLD students' maintenance probes however, raised some concern. Some deterioration was evident in that both students provided contrasting statements only and provided very few details under each identified category. Further analysis of the posttest and maintenance probes revealed that the SLD students had spontaneously generated a "Plan" before writing their posttest essay but did not do so for the maintenance essay (Figure 3). The absence of a "Plan" at maintenance may account for the observed deterioration. When students generated a "plan" it prompted them to consider comparison as well as contrast statements within the body of their essay. It also provided them with a format upon which to "brainstorm" ideas. It appears then, that the importance of planning and organizing one's work before writing was not maintained, which likely contributed to a deterioration in the overall quality and essay structure.

Finally, there were trends in self-efficacy improvement in trained students. Especially encouraging are the apparent trends in self-efficacy improvement made by the students with SLD whose pretest scores were somewhat lower than the mean score of their peers. While such trends are encouraging, they need further empirical substantiation for us to draw definite conclusions and implications for research and practise. In this study, it seems conceivable that observed trends in SLD students' improvements in self-efficacy cannot be attributed to any distinguishing situation variable but rather to a composite of possible influences. Firstly, trained students kept a personal graph upon which scores gained on practice essays were recorded (Appendix 8a/8b). This visual record clearly demonstrated improvements students made in their writing over time, which in turn promoted a belief that the CSIW strategies had been learned and that they had in fact improved the students' essay writing skills. This belief conceivably

promotes a feeling of control over achievement outcomes, which in turn contributes to an overall improvement in self-efficacy (Corno, 1989; Schunk, 1989). A second possible contributor to trends in improved self-efficacy in this study is embedded in the attributional feedback consistently given to students by either the researcher or classroom teacher throughout peer conferences and during graphing sessions. Teacher verbalizations linking the trained students' achievements with the students' own personal effort supported students' perceptions of their progress, sustained motivation and increased self-efficacy (Schunk 1982, 1989). A final influence on student self-efficacy in this study is found within the peer interactions throughout the program. Trained students had the opportunity to observe their peers successfully performing the task of writing compare/contrast essays using the strategies taught through the CSIW program. "Observing similar peers successfully perform a task can raise self-efficacy in students because they may believe that if their peers can learn, they also can improve their skills" (Schunk, 1987, p.170). Successful peer models would probably be most influential on the self-efficacy of the students with SLD whose essay writing skills progressed at a somewhat slower pace than their peers. SLD students' observations of their peers' success may have assisted in raising their self-efficacy which was subsequently validated as they themselves experienced further success with the essay writing task. Certainly, the conditions for enhancing student self-efficacy were present within the framework of the instructional setting of this study but self-efficacy takes time to develop and change. It is probably unrealistic to expect significant changes in self-efficacy over a fourteen week period.

In summary, the students in this study showed improvements in their writing of compare/contrast essays, particularly in regard to essay structure. Improvements were evident in essay clarity for the majority of students but appeared to be an

elusive ideal for the students with SLD in this study. Trained students demonstrated strategy maintenance four weeks after the study, although some deterioration was evident in the essays of students with SLD. This appears to be largely due to a failure to "plan" before writing the maintenance essay. Finally, the trained students showed trends in improving in self-efficacy in writing. These results indicate that CSIW is an effective way to teach writing skills to students in an inclusive classroom including students with SLD.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The most obvious limitation of this study is the small sample size of students with SLD. Certainly, generalizations from this study regarding students with SLD must be constrained. Low sample size however, is an unavoidable barrier when implementing research that reflects the philosophy of inclusion. A call for studies with larger sample sizes would not be appropriate in this case. A possible solution to this problem may be qualitative analysis of writing data for an aggregate of several studies involving inclusion of SLD subjects.

Second, there is no measure of whether students were able to transfer their improved writing skills to other text structures, although there was some evidence of this gathered quite incidentally by the classroom teacher. The teacher had assigned an essay question on a Social Studies exam which required students to report everything they knew about a topic they had studied in relation to Ancient Egypt ("expert" essay). Scrutiny of the written responses indicated that the majority of students provided an introduction, a summary as well as a series of paragraphs categorized appropriately. The students with SLD however, did not appear to transfer strategy knowledge and had in fact resorted back to a "knowledge telling strategy." This observation is not consistent with the positive

results Englert and her colleagues (1991) witnessed when CSIW trained LD students, significantly improved their skills in writing an essay which required the creation of an unlearned text structure ("expert" essay). The differing results are perhaps due to the opportunity of Englert's trained students to apply CSIW strategies to two text structures (compare/contrast; explanation) while trained students in this study applied the strategy to the compare/contrast structure only. Graham and Harris (1989a) and Graham, Macarthur, Schwartz and Page-Voth (1992) also concluded that their mixed results in generalization across tasks in their studies were largely due to their failure to provide trained students with specific practice in independently applying learned strategies to different writing genres. The importance of providing opportunities for students to apply strategies to a sufficient range of different tasks and situations in order to promote strategy transfer is evident in current design of instructional strategies (Ashman and Conway, 1988; Deshler, Alley, Warner, and Schumaker, 1981; Englert, 1990).

Thirdly, this study focused specifically on the compare/contrast essay only. It would be valuable to research the effects of CSIW on other text structures within the context of the inclusive setting. It would be particularly interesting to investigate whether students with SLD would demonstrate improved essay clarity on text structures that have proven to be easier to comprehend such as enumeration and sequence text structures (Englert and Hiebert, 1984) and/or easier to compose such as sequence or explanation text structures (Raphael et al., 1986).

Lastly, the significance of the collaborative teaming of the classroom teacher and the support teacher requires further clarification. It is this researcher's opinion that successful strategy instruction in an inclusive setting depends on the effective collaborative efforts of the support teacher and the classroom teacher. Qualitative study of the individual roles of the support teacher and the classroom teacher during the implementation of the CSIW program in this study for example,

could have provided a basis upon which implementation guidelines on effective co-teaching could have been developed. Research questions related to individual role definitions within specific stages of CSIW instruction, as well as questions related to the facilitation of ongoing communication between the two teachers is of particular significance.

Implications for Instruction

The positive findings of this study imply that CSIW is an effective strategy for teaching students expository writing within the context of the inclusive classroom. It appears that a classroom teacher in collaboration with a support teacher can teach the strategy to a class of students and expect improvements in essay writing in trained students including those with SLD. The significance of this collaboration must be considered. It is unreasonable to assume that CSIW could be effectively taught to students with SLD within the regular classroom, without the assistance of a support teacher or at the very least a well trained teacher assistant. The needs of students with SLD impose demands that simply cannot be effectively addressed by one teacher within a classroom of students with a wide variety of needs. Students with SLD require specific support in generating ideas and in organizing information. They often require extensive teacher intervention throughout the conferencing and editing stage of the writing process because of the inferiority of the draft versions of their essays. Also, SLD students may require closer supervision than their peers in order that revisions are completed appropriately. Moreover, excessive mechanical errors made by SLD students may require teacher intervention throughout the proofreading stage. Students with SLD may also require support that cannot practically be delivered within the regular

classroom because their regular classroom peers have already achieved a satisfactory level, as in the case of clarity instruction in this study.

The maintenance data implies that the role of the support teacher may need to extend beyond the walls of the regular classroom. While the failure of the students with SLD in this study to improve overall essay clarity may be partially due to the complexity of the compare/contrast essay genre, the need for further practice is also evident. This poses problems within the context of the regular classroom where students without SLD have made satisfactory progress. Students with SLD who require further instruction and practice would benefit from a pull-out service which would accommodate their specific needs. This lends support to providing students with SLD flexibility within their educational programs (Hallahan, Keller, McKinney, Lloyd and Bryan, 1988; Kauffman, 1989). A service delivery model which exclusively provides support within the classroom will not likely meet the unique needs of students with SLD.

Some caution must be taken in ensuring that students learn to devise their own methods of planning and organizing their information. The "Think Sheet" is meant to be a scaffold and not a long term method of planning and organizing information. Although students in this study were required to plan and organize their last practice essay without the support of "Think Sheets," it was evident, particularly in the case of students with SLD, that this skill had not been maintained over time and that further practice was required. Both SLD students spontaneously developed a plan for their posttest essay but failed to do so for their maintenance probe. This resulted in an inferior maintenance essay. Perhaps further practice in planning and organizing without the support of "Think Sheets" would have assisted in carrying this skill over to the maintenance probe.

A last point to consider is the importance of incorporating CSIW across the curriculum. To teach this program in isolation from other school curricula will

stymie or reduce the likelihood of student generalization of learned skills. This is of particular importance for students with SLD who require direct instruction in generalizing skills (Deshler et al., 1981). This may easily be accomplished in the elementary classroom where all subjects are taught by one teacher. A specific structure could be taught within the context of the classroom writing program using CSIW. Further practice could be gained by successively assigning that specific structure as an assignment in each of the content area subjects while a new text structure is introduced through the writing program. Three important instructional issues are addressed by incorporating CSIW in this manner: Students are provided with extensive practice; practice occurs across curricula which promotes generalization of strategies; and new learning continues, which is an important consideration when planning instruction within the time constraints of a school year. Students taught in this manner would be well prepared for the expository writing demands of the high school curricula!

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APPENDIX A

Parent Consent Forms

(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Instruction in written language is a major component of the Grade Seven Curriculum. The ability to communicate through the written word is of importance throughout students' educational careers and in their future jobs.

This letter is to inform you of my teaching project in writing which will be taught to grade seven students throughout the next term. It involves teaching students how to write compare/contrast essays. Specific focus will be on teaching students to plan, organize, draft, edit, revise and proofread their work so that the finished product is clear, concise and interesting. The instruction will take place throughout four forty-five minute periods a week and will continue for a period of three to four months. The instruction will occur during the regular scheduled time for writing instruction and it will take place in the regular classroom.

This project is part of a study which is designed to meet the requirements towards a Master's Degree for Ms. Y. Gamelin, and has been approved by the Surrey School District's Research and Evaluation Department. As such, this requires the informed consent of parents. All the data to be collected will be confidential.

Please explain the project to you son/daughter and discuss with him/her what is involved. It is important that your son/daughter realizes that their participation is voluntary and that they have full awareness of what is involved. Your son/daughter also must realize that his/her participation in the project requires that he/she takes responsibility for his/her own learning. Lastly, the collected data will be analyzed anonymously.

Thank you for you attention to this letter. If you give permission to have your son/daughter participate in my teaching project in writing, and if he/she wishes to participate, please sign the form below and return it to the teacher. Thank you.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at 588-4435 or my advisor, Dr. B. Wong at 291-4115. Any concerns or complaints that may arise throughout the study may be forwarded to Dean Robin Barrow at 291-3148. If you wish to obtain results of the study please make a request in writing and forward to me at Simon Cunningham School, 9380 140th St., Surrey, B.C. V3V-5Z4.

Yours sincerely,

Ms. Y. Gamelin
Resource Room Teacher

I, parent/guardian of _____, do give permission to have him/her join Ms. Gamelin's teaching project in writing.

Signature of Parent/Guardian

(CONTROL GROUP)

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Instruction in written language is a major component of the Grade Seven Curriculum. The ability to communicate through the written word is of importance throughout students' educational careers and in their future jobs.

This letter is to inform you of my teaching project in writing which will require the collection of student writing samples. Student writing will be collected on three separate occasions. Students will also participate in standardized testing to determine achievement levels in both reading and writing.

Your son/daughter's participation will involve three written essays, and two formal tests, one in reading and the other in writing. This project is part of a study which is designed to meet the requirements towards a Master's Degree for Ms. Y. Gamelin, and has been approved by the Surrey School District's Research and Evaluation Department. As such, this requires the informed consent of parents. All the data to be collected will be confidential.

Please explain the project to you son/daughter and discuss with him/her what is involved. It is important that your son/daughter realizes that their participation is voluntary and that they have full awareness of what is involved. Your son/daughter also must realize that his/her participation in the project requires that he/she takes responsibility for his/her own learning. Lastly, the collected data will be analyzed anonymously.

Thank you for you attention to this letter. If you give permission to have your son/daughter participate in my teaching project in writing, and if he/she wishes to participate, please sign the form below and return it to the teacher. Thank you.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at 588-4435 or my advisor, Dr. B. Wong at 291-4115. Any concerns or complaints that may arise throughout the study may be forwarded to Dean Robin Barrow at 291-3148. If you wish to obtain results of the study please make a request in writing and forward to me at Simon Cunningham School, 9380 140th St., Surrey, B.C. V3V-5Z4.

Yours sincerely,

Ms. Y. Gamelin
Resource Room Teacher

I, parent/guardian of _____, do give permission to have him/her join Ms. Gamelin's teaching project in writing.

Signature of Parent/Guardian

Appendix B

Scoring Criteria for Compare/Contrast Essays

COMPARE/CONTRAST SCORING

INTRODUCTION

5 POINTS - introductory paragraph identifies two things being compared and contrasted and includes mention of the categories to be compared and contrasted; paragraph is closed with an interesting statement.

4 POINTS - there is an introductory paragraph identifying topic but does not introduce the categories to be compared and contrasted; may not include an interesting "catch" statement.

3 POINTS - it is clear what is being compared and contrasted but there is not an introductory paragraph; topic sentence may not be present.

2 POINTS - it is not clear what is being compared and contrasted until very late in the passage and sometimes the writer strays off topic.

1 POINT - some common theme evident throughout but it is vague as to what the writer's goal is.

0 POINTS - no clear idea of topic

DESCRIPTION OF SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

5 POINTS - organized by categories and supported by details; explains both likenesses and differences; many details are provided

4 POINTS - categories are evident but explanations are of likenesses but not differences or vice versa; many details are provided but perhaps not as extensive as above

3 POINTS - attempts to make compare/contrast by categories but not clearly done; categories are inappropriately chosen for topic; a few details are provided

2 POINTS - only details are compared or contrasted, no categories are identified

1 POINT - comparisons and contrasts are made in very broad general terms; no details or examples are given

0 POINTS - incorrect structure, or descriptions only given

USE OF KEY/SIGNAL WORDS

5 POINTS - a variety of key words used to signal both similarities and differences

4 POINTS - a variety of key words used but used to signal differences but not likenesses or vice versa

3 POINTS - attempts made to use key words but not much variety; key words are not used consistently throughout essay

2 POINTS - attempts made to use key words but use is often incorrect; very simple key words used e.g.) both, but

1 POINTS - use of "and" instead of key words

0 POINTS - no use of key words at all

SUMMARY

5 POINTS - clearly summarizes the categories discussed in the paper and makes an interesting observation or expresses and opinion

4 POINTS - all of the categories discussed in the summary; no opinion or observation given

3 POINTS - some but not all of the categories summarized; no opinion or observation given

2 POINTS - only an opinion or observation given; no summation of ideas and categories

1 POINT - summary statement given but not in the form of a paragraph e.g.) sentence only

0 POINT - no summary present

CLARITY

5 POINTS - all ideas are complete thoughts, understandable and clear; sentences are in logical order and flow smoothly from one to the next; consistent use of appropriate grammar

4 POINTS - minor ambiguities which do not interfere substantially with overall meaning; most of the ideas are complete thoughts; detailed explanations but not consistently so

3 POINTS - some evidence of attempts to relate ideas and to make complete thoughts but inconsistently so; some organization of thoughts present but inconsistencies evident; inconsistent use of correct grammar

2 POINTS - thoughts are often incomplete; grammatical errors often cloud meaning; sentence order is sometimes illogical; as below but less so

1 POINT - excessive grammatical errors cloud meaning; incomplete thoughts and ideas are hard to comprehend; sentence order is illogical but writer's goal is still evident; poor agreement between subject/object

0 POINT - not clear at all; high degree of confusion; sentence order is illogical and writer's goal is not evident

APPENDIX C

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

SELF-EFFICACY MEASURE

Name: _____

Birthdate: _____

School: _____

Grade: _____

- (1) When writing a paper, it is easy for me to get ideas.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

- (2) When writing a paper, it is hard for me to organize my ideas.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

- (3) When writing a paper, it is easy for me to get started.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

- (4) When writing a paper, I find it easy to make all the changes I need to make.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

- (5) When writing a paper, it is easy for me to write my ideas into good sentences.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

- (6) When writing a paper, it is hard for me to keep the paper going.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

(7) When writing a paper, it is hard for me to correct my mistakes.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

(8) When my class is asked to write a report, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

(9) When my class is asked to write a story, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

(10) When my class is asked to write a book report, mine is one of the best.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

Appendix D

Samples of Essays for Text Analysis

"GOOD" ESSAY (A)

COMPARE/CONTRAST - BASKETBALL AND VOLLEYBALL

In this compare and contrast assignment I will be writing about the two sports basketball and volleyball. In some ways they are different and in other ways they are the same. I'll be discussing three categories, namely how the game is played, the teams and where the sport can be played. As you read this essay you might find interesting things about both sports.

The first category I will discuss is how the game is played. Both sports have nets. However, in volleyball the players have to rally, serve, bump, and spike the ball over the net, whereas in basketball the players have to shoot the ball into the net. Of course when any sport is played, the game has to be started off. In volleyball the players rally for serve. On the other hand in basketball the players have jump offs. To play the game of volleyball the players have to serve, spike volley and bump, in contrast to basketball where the players have to dribble the ball. In both sports, points are accumulated. In basketball the players can score two or three points at a time as opposed to volleyball where only one point is made at a time.

The second category to be discussed is the teams. Both volleyball and basketball have teams. Basketball has national teams such as the National Basketball Association (N.B.A) and the National College Basketball Association (N.C.B.A.), whereas in volleyball there are six players on a team while in basketball there are five players on a team. The size of the players is also different between the two sports. Basketball has tall players and conversely volleyball has average height players.

The third category to be discussed is where the game is played. Basketball and volleyball can both be played in and out of doors. However, volleyball can be played on the beach while basketball requires a special court.

As you can see, both sports basketball and volleyball, can be both alike and different in many ways as I demonstrated through the discussion of the three categories of how the game is played, the teams, and where the sport can be played. I like these sports because they are fun and challenging. It is especially fun when you play with a team who has skills much like your team.

"GOOD" ESSAY (B)

COMPARE/CONTRAST - BASKETBALL AND BASEBALL

In this essay I will compare and contrast baseball and basketball. At first I will discuss the championships that take place in these two sports. Secondly, I will write about the size of the equipment and the clothes needed to participate in these two great sports. To finish my essay I would like to talk about the types of numbers and statistics related to these two sports. This essay will be very informative to the anyone interested in learning more about the fun activities of basketball and baseball.

In this paragraph I'll discuss the championships in baseball and basketball. In both sports the winners of the championship games win the best four out of seven games. In baseball the games are called the World Series. On the other hand, in basketball the championship games are simply called the finals. In baseball the National League plays the American League, whereas in basketball the East plays the West.

In this paragraph I'll focus on the types of clothes and equipment needed to participate in these two sports. In both sports a ball is used. However, in baseball the players use a small white ball, whereas in basketball the players use a large orange-brown ball. These two sports are similar because team players in both sports wear special uniforms. Baseball players wear pants, t-shirts, caps and cleats while basketball players wear shorts, tank tops and running shoes.

In this paragraph I will discuss the types of numbers and statistics related to the two sports. Baseball and basketball both have twenty-seven teams. Baseball has nine players on the field at a time, whereas basketball has five players on the court at a time. In both sports the games are divided into sections. Baseball is played in nine innings. However, basketball is played in four quarters. One way the sports are similar is that the teams accumulate scores and the team with the highest score at the end of the game is the winner. Scores are different in the two sports however. The winning score in baseball is usually under ten in contrast to basketball where the winning score is generally over one hundred!

In conclusion, I would like to say that both sports basketball and baseball are sometimes alike and sometimes different. I have compared and contrasted both sports in regard to three categories; Championships, clothes and equipment, and numbers and statistics. In my opinion, both sports are very enjoyable to watch and play.

FAIR ESSAY

COMPARE/CONTRAST - MATHEMATICS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

In my compare contrast essay I will be comparing two school subjects; Mathematics and Social Studies. I will be showing differences between the two to show which has the most writing involved, which you have the most fun in and how much homework you get.

The first feature I've compared is the writing involved. In Mathematics, at the beginning of the class you mark yesterday's work and then you do which page has been assigned. Each page has about an average of 15 questions and 3/4 have A,B,C on them so there's about 45 questions each day. What you don't finish, you do for homework. In Socials the teacher reads a page in the text and then we have to write a page, first in draft, then in good copy and sometimes a picture. So you do about 3 pages a week plus three pages of draft which is about the same as Math because you do Math every day.

The next feature I've compared is the fun involved. In both Math and Socials there is not much fun involved but I'll tell you the very little which is. In Math there are two things fun. The first is when you get a test or a page back and marked and you get a good mark. You feel good so it's pretty fun. The other things are when you play math games in class. Those are fun. In Socials there are also two things tht are fun. The first thing is coloring. It's fun to color and make pictures. The second is also getting a test back with a good mark on it.

The final feature I've compared is how much homework you get. In Math you get homework when you do not finish you assignment, but I mostly get it done so I only get homework once or twice a week. In Socials you also get homework when you don't finish your assignment but since there is a draft and a good copy you have to do homework just about every dat.

In conclusion, it is evident that there is a little more writing involved in Socials because there is a draft and good copy to do. It is also clear that there is about the some amount of fun involved because both have only two fun things but I think Math is a little more fun because I don't get as much homework as in Socials. It is also clear that there is more homework in Socials. It is also clear that there is more homework in Socials than in Math. So if I had a choice I would probably do Math mroe because there is less writing, less homework and there is fun too.

"POOR ESSAY"

COMPARE/CONTRAST - SISTER AND BROTHER

I like watching hockey, but I like playing basketball.

My brother likes watching wrestling, but he likes playing hockey.

I have girls as friends and he has boys as friends.

I like Math as a subject and my brother likes to read.

We both like "Fresh Prince of Bel-Air." Our whole family speaks our language. We both bug our parents to get money and other things and when we go shopping we always get a new shirt or pants or something like that.

APPENDIX E
Prompt Cards/Posters

Compare / Contrast - Structure

Introduction

Category # 1

Category # 2

Category # 3

Summary

I C 3 S

Key/Signal Words

Differences/Contrast

On the other hand

However

In contrast to

Although

Whereas

While

But

Similarities/Compare

In Common

In the same way

At the same time

Similarly

Alike

Both

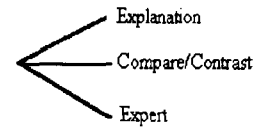
POWER

PLAN

AUDIENCE	:What ?
PURPOSE	:Why ?
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE	:What do I Know

O RGANIZE

CATEGORIZE IDEAS	: How can I group my ideas ?
ORDER IDEAS:	:How can I order my ideas ?



Write

TRANSLATION: Extend, Elaborate, Fleshout
--

Edit/Editor

MONITOR:	Does everything make sense ? Did I achieve my plans ? Is it interesting ?
----------	---

Revis

Fix up my text

APPENDIX F

Student Graphs

Quality of Writing: Total Score

Points	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
35							
34							
33							
32							
31							
30							
29							
28							
27							
26							
25							
24							
23							
22							
21							
20							
19							
18							
17							
16							
15							
14							
13							
12							
11							
10							
9							
8							
7							
6							
5							
4							
3							
2							
1							
0							

Essays

Student: _____

APPENDIX G

Think Sheets

Plan Think-Sheet

Name: _____

Date: _____

Topic: _____

WHO: Who am I writing for ?

WHAT: What do I know ? (Brainstorm)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____

HOW: How can I group my ideas ?

Compare/Contrast Organize Think-Sheet

What is being
compared /contrasted

On What ?

Alike ?

Different

On What ?

Alike ?

Different

On What ?

Alike ?

Different

EDIT THINK SHEET

Compare & Contrast

Name: _____

Date: _____

Read to Check Your Information **THINK!!**

What do I like best ? (Put a * by the parts I like best)

What parts are not clear ? (Highlight unclear parts)

Question Yourself to Check Organization. Did I ?

Stick to the Topic ?	YES	sort of	NO
Use 2-3 categories ?	YES	sort of	NO
Identify each category clearly ?	YES	sort of	NO
Give details to explain each category ?	YES	sort of	NO
Use key words ?	YES	sort of	NO
Make it interesting ?	YES	sort of	NO

Plan Revision. (look back)

What parts do I want to change ?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

EDITOR THINK SHEET

Compare & Contrast

Name: _____

Date: _____

Read to Check the Writers Information **THINK!!**

What do I like best ? (Put a * by the parts I like best)

What parts are not clear ? (Highlight unclear parts)

Question Yourself to Check Organization. Did the Writer

Stick to the Topic ?	YES	sort of	NO
Use 2-3 categories ?	YES	sort of	NO
Identify each category clearly ?	YES	sort of	NO
Give details to explain each category ?	YES	sort of	NO
Use key words ?	YES	sort of	NO
Make it interesting ?	YES	sort of	NO

Plan Revision. (look back)

What parts should the writer change ?

1. _____

2. _____

Revise

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. What revision do you plan to make? (Put a ✓ next to the suggestions on the Edit and Editor sheet that you will use.)

2. How will you make your paper more interesting?

3. Go back to your first paper and make your revisions directly on the paper.

Revision Symbols

Type	Symbol	Example
Add Words	^	The ^{little} girl is my sister
Take Words Out	—	The woman has tried to give
Change Order	~	He had <u>go</u> to home
Add Ideas here	↙	The dog is friendly. ^{which dog}

APPENDIX H

Proofreading Pass

Proofreading Pass

Writer: _____

Title: _____

Date: _____

✓ Checked ✓

<p>Proofreader #1</p> <p>— Capitals</p> <p>— Omissions</p> <p>— Punctuation</p> <p>— Spelling</p> <p>Signature of #1</p>	<p>Proofreader #2</p> <p>— Capitals</p> <p>— Omissions</p> <p>— Punctuation</p> <p>— Spelling</p> <p>Signature of #2</p>
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Proofreading Pass

Writer: _____

Title: _____

Date: _____

✓ Checked ✓

<p>Proofreader #1</p> <p>— Capitals</p> <p>— Omissions</p> <p>— Punctuation</p> <p>— Spelling</p> <p>Signature of #1</p>	<p>Proofreader #2</p> <p>— Capitals</p> <p>— Omissions</p> <p>— Punctuation</p> <p>— Spelling</p> <p>Signature of #2</p>
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Appendix I

Clarity Essay Samples

"POOR" CLARITY SAMPLE

COMPARE/CONTRAST - BASKETBALL AND BASEBALL

I will be comparing and contrasting equipment, players and exciting things that happen. Basketball has teams called the Suns, Lakers and Magic. However, baseball has teams like the Bluejays, White Sox, and Expos.

Basketball and baseball have team spirit. For example, they wear the team jersey. I think that the best player for basketball is Shaquil O'Neal. On the other hand, Frank Thomas is the best for baseball. In order to play basketball, you would need five players. Here are some positions to be in; centre, guard, forward. However, in baseball you would need nine players. Here are some positions to be in; catcher, pitcher, left field and right field.

One way that basketball and baseball are similar is that they use similar equipment. For example both sports need a ball. In both sports the players pass to their team members. The place that is used to play basketball is in a gym. The equipment that the players use for basketball is a hoop. The place to play baseball is a field. The equipment that is used for baseball are bases and gloves.

The exciting things that happen are when a basketball player breaks the backboard by doing a slam dunk with the ball. On the other hand, it's cool when a base ball player breaks a bat but that happens less often than slam dunks. In both sports it is exciting when the team that you like wins the game. When basketball players start a fight it is also exciting. However, the parts that are exciting for baseball is when a player makes a homerun.

Basketball and baseball are cool are cool sports to play or to watch. Basketball and baseball are alike but they are also different in the type of equipment they use, in the way the players are and in the way they are exciting.

REVISED VERSION OF "POOR CLARITY SAMPLE"

COMPARE/CONTRAST - BASKETBALL AND BASEBALL

I will be comparing and contrasting basketball and baseball using the categories of equipment, players and exciting things that happen. Basketball has teams called the Suns, Lakers and Magic. However, baseball has teams like the Bluejays, White Sox, and Expos.

Basketball and baseball have team spirit. For example, they wear the team jersey. I think that the best player for basketball is Shaquil O'Neal. On the other hand, Frank Thomas is the best for baseball. In order to play basketball, you would need five players. Here are some positions that basketball players can play in; centre, guard, forward. However, in baseball you would need nine players. Here are some positions baseball players can play in; catcher, pitcher, left field and right field.

One way that basketball and baseball are similar is that they use similar equipment. For example, both sports need a ball. In both sports the players pass to their team members. The place that is used to play basketball is in a gym. The equipment that the players use for basketball is a hoop. The place to play baseball is a field. The equipment that is used for baseball are bases and gloves.

The exciting things that happen are when a basketball player breaks the backboard by doing a slam dunk with the ball. On the other hand, it's cool when a baseball player breaks a bat but that happens less often than slam dunks. In both sports it is exciting when the team that you like wins the game. When basketball players start a fight it is also exciting. However, the parts that are exciting for baseball is when a player makes a homerun.

Basketball and baseball are cool sports to play or to watch. Basketball and baseball are alike but they are also different in the type of equipment they use, in the way the players are and in the way they are exciting.