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An evaluation of the procedures used to assess and remediate the perceived writing difficulties of undergraduate students in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University

Les Puhl
Edith Cowan University

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USE OF THESIS

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AN EVALUATION OF THE PROCEDURES USED TO ASSESS AND REMEDIATE THE PERCEIVED WRITING DIFFICULTIES OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION AT EDITH COWAN UNIVERSITY

BY


A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of

Master of Education

at the School of Education, Edith Cowan University

Date of Submission: 12.02.92
ABSTRACT

The standards of written literacy of teacher-education students at Edith Cowan University are perceived by many staff to be inadequate. The Faculty of Education's response to this perceived inadequacy is to carry out a mandatory skills-based remedial writing programme for students whose literacy competencies are judged to be deficient. The instrument used to assess the students' literacy competencies is the English Skills Assessment test. The students' performances in the various skills which the test purports to measure, also determine the area in which they are given remedial instruction if the results of the test suggest this is necessary. However, many Faculty of Education staff are concerned that there are important conceptual, structural, and organisational inadequacies in students' writing which are not identified by the English Skills Assessment test and, therefore, are not attended to in remediation programmes based on the results generated by this test.

This study was an evaluation of the remedial literacy programme conducted by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University. The programme was evaluated from two perspectives (a) a theoretical perspective and (b) a practical perspective.

Firstly, the study evaluated the procedures used by the Faculty of Education to diagnose and remediate writing difficulties among its first year student intake by comparing the assumptions underlying those procedures to the assumptions underlying a contemporary perspective of
writing and the teaching of writing. This comparison revealed that not only were many of the procedures used by the Faculty ineffectual, but also some of the procedures used had the potential to inhibit the literacy development of its students.

Secondly, the study investigated whether the English Skills Assessment test was able to identify (a) all the areas in which students experienced difficulties in writing and (b) the students who were likely to experience the difficulties. The performances of 426 first year primary and secondary teacher education students attending the Mount Lawley Campus of the Edith Cowan University in the English Skills Assessment test were compared with their performances in a research-essay assignment, carried out as a normal part of their course work. The results of this aspect of the study reinforce the findings of an earlier study (Holbrook & Bourke, 1989) which reported that the English Skills Assessment test neither identified all the areas in which tertiary-level students experience difficulty in their real writing nor the students likely to experience difficulties. This study shows that Holbrook and Bourke's findings, which related to narrative text, also applied when students wrote expository text. These results challenge the validity of the Faculty's use of the English Skills Assessment test as a means of identifying students with writing problems and show that any remedial writing programme based solely on the areas identified by the test will have a limited impact on the development of
students' written literacy.

In addition to the data originally sought for this study, other information came to light which showed the limitations of the way in which the Faculty conceptualises students' literacy needs. The emphasis of this programme is diagnosis and remediation. This conceptualisation has produced a literacy unit which is peripheral to the mainstream academic programme and which teaches the surface features of language in decontextualised, skills-based lessons. As a consequence, the unit: (a) is accorded marginal status by lecturers and students alike, (b) bears little relationship to what is happening in other units of the course, and (c) contributes little, if anything, to students' literacy development.

It is clear from the findings of this study that the Faculty of Education's remedial literacy programme contains serious flaws which cannot be rectified by attempting to modify the existing programme. The study concludes by recommending that the Faculty of Education should abandon its existing programme, along with its remedial emphasis, and institute a new programme designed to cater for the literacy needs of all its students. That is, all incoming students should be required to undertake a foundation unit which outlines the Faculty of Education's requirements and expectations of students, and teaches them the structures and processes (reading, writing, and thinking) required for successful learning in Bachelor of Arts (Education) courses.
"I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education; and that to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text."

Signature

Date 12/2/92
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Anecdotal evidence indicates that there is a perception, among Faculty of Education staff at the Edith Cowan University, that the standards of written literacy of many of its students are inadequate. Staff feel that the school system has not adequately prepared students for the literacy demands of a tertiary institution. The view that schools have failed to produce literate students has widespread currency in the community. The teaching of English has received considerable criticism in the media because of the apparent inability of schools to produce students who understand basic concepts in English, such as: spelling, grammar, and punctuation (Brandeth, 1988; Back to Basics, 1988; Brock, 1990).

The criticism levelled at schools has in turn been blamed on the low-level literacy competencies of teachers (Australian Education Council, 1990). Statistics relating to tertiary entrance examination scores indicate that this perception of teachers may have some veracity. A literacy problem may be manifest more in the case of students enrolling in teacher education courses than in other courses at tertiary institutions because teacher education students have amongst the lowest scoring-profiles in tertiary entrance examinations.
conducted throughout Australia (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1990; Prichard, 1990). The problem of relatively poorer credentials of prospective teacher education students in comparison with prospective students in other tertiary courses, is not limited to Australia. Prospective students in teacher education programmes in the United States reflect similar characteristics. Consequently, staff of education faculties have noted significant numbers of students with serious problems in writing. The problems are of such a magnitude that most of the faculties of education in Universities in the United States either run across-the-board literacy programmes for all incoming students or run mandatory remedial writing programmes for the students diagnosed by the faculties as being at risk (Duke, 1985; Schewebel, 1985; Carpenter and Johnson 1990).

The gulf between the understandings of incoming undergraduate teacher education students and the requirements for successful academic learning is in all probability higher at Edith Cowan University than at other Western Australian Universities because of the nature of its student intake. The students enrolling in a Bachelor of Arts (Education) at this University have the lowest scoring profile for their tertiary entrance examination (TEE) scores of all the four tertiary institutions offering teacher-education courses in Western Australia (Higher Education in Western Australia: A Status Report, 1989).
Table 2.1 indicates that commencing students in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University have significantly lower Tertiary Institutions Service Centre (TISC) aggregates than commencing students in the faculties of education at the other Western Australian universities. The significance of the gap between Edith Cowan University students and students at other Universities is even greater than indicated by Table 2.1. For example, an analysis of data related to student enrolments shows that the bulk of Edith Cowan education students have aggregate scores around the 40th percentile whilst the bulk of Curtin education students have aggregate scores around the 60th percentile (Higher Education in Western Australia: A Status Report, 1989)

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Table 2.1: Proportion of commencing education students in 1987 with a TISC aggregate within the top 30% of all aggregates.

The concern shown by Faculty of Education staff at Edith
Cowan University over the issue of literacy standards is not new. In order to compensate for the perceived inadequacies of the literacy standards of its students, the Faculty has instituted various measures. Initially, students experiencing language difficulties, were identified by lecturers or by teachers with whom students were placed on teaching practice. They were then referred to remedial courses to deal with the particular difficulties identified by the lecturers. Now the School of Education administers a screening test to all students in the first year of their Bachelor of Arts (Education) course. Students, whose literacy skills are considered to be deficient because of their test performances, must attend sessions in a remedial writing unit, Communications 0101 (COM0101).

The Problem

The written literacy standards of education students are perceived by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University as being inadequate. The Faculty's response to this perceived inadequacy is to test the entire student cohort using the English Skills Assessment (ACER, 1982b) test. Students are selected for mandatory remedial courses based on an analysis of their performances in this test. The Faculty uses the English Skills Assessment test to identify both the students it believes require remediation and the areas in which they require remediation.

However, many staff have expressed reservations about
the Faculty's use of the English Skills Assessment test to screen students for possible written literacy problems because this test measures the students' performances in only a limited range of writing-related skills. Staff are concerned that there are important structural and organisational inadequacies in students' writing which are not identified by the English Skills Assessment test and, therefore, are not attended to in current remediation programmes.

There is ample evidence, derived from the literature pertaining to writing, which indicates that the task of writing is far more complex than is suggested by the writing related skills measured by the English Skills Assessment test. Not only are the aspects of writing assessed by the English Skills Assessment test limited, but it also appears from the literature that some of the aspects of writing not assessed by the test represent some of the major problems in students' writing. Nightingale (1988), Parry (1989), and Taylor & Nightingale (1990) identified the lack of understanding of the underlying content, and the structures and organisational formats needed to express that understanding, as being the problem rather than the mechanics of tertiary students' writing. This literature supports the perception of Faculty of Education staff that students' major writing problems are not only to do

---

1 The test measures a student's ability to detect and correct errors in spelling, punctuation, sentence structure and usage.
with surface features, such as, grammar, spelling, and punctuation but also with the production of meaningful and coherent text and casts doubt on the use of the test as an adequate means of diagnosing students' writing difficulties. A study comparing the performances of 226 tertiary-level students in the English Assessment test with their performances in the writing of a narrative was carried out by Holbrook and Bourke (1989) at the University of Newcastle. The results of their study showed that the skills tested by the English Skills Assessment did not identify all the areas in which students experienced problems in their writing, e.g., paragraph construction and essay coherence. The study also showed that the types of errors made by students in the categories measured by the English Skills Assessment test did not necessarily equate to the kinds of errors made by students in the same categories when writing a narrative, e.g., students who performed poorly in the spelling component of the English Skills Assessment test did not necessarily manifest poor spelling in their narrative writing.

In summary, the Faculty of Education perceives that the literacy standards of some of the students enrolling in its undergraduate courses are inadequate. However, a problem exists because the Faculty's response to this perceived inadequacy is to run a mandatory remedial programme based on its analysis of students' performances in a test which (a) many lecturers believe to be inadequate for the purposes for which it is used, (b) appears to be flawed from the perspective of writing theory, and (c) the research evidence also shows may be
inadequate for the tasks for which the test is used.

The Purpose of the Study

The English Skills Assessment test is an integral aspect of the approach used by the Faculty of Education to meet the literacy needs of its students. Given the criticisms that have been levelled at the test, the general purpose of this study was to investigate the Faculty's diagnosis and remediation practices and to evaluate their usefulness in contributing to students' literacy development.

To meet its general purpose, this study was planned to achieve the following specific purposes:

1. To describe the Faculty of Education's diagnosis and remediation practices in relation to the literacy standards of its incoming undergraduate students;
2. To identify and analyse the assumptions about writing underlying the Faculty of Education's practices;
3. To evaluate the Faculty of Education's assumptions by comparing them to a perspective derived from a synthesis of the literature pertaining to writing, the teaching of writing and tertiary literacy;
4. To evaluate how useful the English Skills Assessment test is in identifying (a) the crucial variables in writing where students experience problems, and (b) the students who are likely to experience writing difficulties;
5. To design an alternative instrument to the English
Skills Assessment test, for screening students which more closely reflects the most important attributes of tertiary, academic writing as identified in the current literature;
6. To evaluate the usefulness and practicality of the alternative instrument.

Research Questions

These purposes were reformulated into general research questions. Thus, the study was designed to provide information relative to nine general questions. In the following section, the research questions are listed. The manner in which the information, needed to answer each of them was obtained, also is outlined.

Question 1

What are current concepts about the nature of writing?

Methods for collecting data. An extensive examination of the relevant literature was carried out to establish a perspective on the nature of writing and writing teaching derived from a "state of the art" point of view.

Question 2

What are the procedures used by the University to assess and remediate student writing difficulties?

Methods for collecting data. The instrument used by the University to assess students' writing difficulties, outlines for courses run by the University to remediate
those difficulties, and course materials were obtained and analysed.

**Question 3**

What are the assumptions about the nature of writing underlying the procedures used by the University to assess and remediate students' writing difficulties?

**Methods for collecting data.** The University's conceptualization of writing was inferred from its existing practices relating to the assessment and remediation of students' writing difficulties.

**Question 4**

What is the match between current concepts of writing and the assumptions about the nature of writing underlying the procedures used by the University to assess and remediate students' writing difficulties?

**Methods for collecting data.** The perspective on writing derived from a synthesis of the literature was compared with the perspective of writing inferred from the University's practices. The comparison of these two perspectives highlighted the inadequacies inherent in the University's perspective of writing. It also suggested how the University's perspective of writing should be modified to reflect a more appropriate view of writing.
Question 5

What are the crucial variables which contribute to successful academic writing?

Methods for collecting data. An extensive review of the literature was be carried out to establish the factors contributing to the cohesion and coherence of the text types used by students in their writing for course-related tasks.

Question 6

Does the English Skills Assessment test adequately identify all the variables where the breakdowns in students' written texts can occur?

Methods for collecting data. The performances of students in the English Skills Assessment test were compared to their performances in an essay assignment carried out as a normal part of their course load, to ascertain if all the areas in which students experienced problems in their "real" writing tasks were identified by the test.

Question 7

Does the English Skills Assessment test adequately identify all the students who are likely to experience problems in real writing situations?

Methods for collecting data. Students' English Skills Assessment test and essay writing performances were
compared to establish if the areas identified in the test as problems areas are reflected in students' real writing performances.

**Question 8**

Does the evaluation of an essay-assignment task carried out by students' as part of their course-work provide a suitable alternative to the English Skills test as a means of diagnosing student writing problems?

**Methods for collecting data.** A comparison of the quality and breadth of data supplied by analyses of students' performances in an essay-assignment task with the quality and breadth of the data supplied by analyses of students' performances in the English Skills Assessment test and an assessment of the practicality of the two forms of assessment were used to determine suitability of the task as an alternative means of assessing student writing problems.

**The Significance of the Study**

The significance of the study is fourfold:

1. It has provided a conceptual framework within which the writing needs of first year pre-service teachers can be examined.

2. The study has generated data which allow the relevance of the Faculty of Education's current assessment and remediation programme to be assessed.
3. Some of the data needed by the University to produce effective procedures for assessing and remediating the difficulties experienced by students in their writing have been provided by this study.

4. This study has provided data about student writing which could form the basis from which a uniform set of expectations for students' writing could be developed in the Faculty of Education. This set of expectations could then be used to develop criteria for the setting and marking of written assignments in all Bachelor of Arts (Education) units.

**Definition of Terms**

**Coherence**

Coherence in writing is a global quality which arises from the writer's understanding of the content and her/his systematic communication of that content to an audience using organisational formats which meet her/his purpose for writing and the needs of her/his audience.

**Cohesion**

Cohesion is an intersentential property of text in which connections between ideas are created within and between sentences to help make a sequence of sentences a text.

**Macrostructure**

Macrostructures are the "higher-level semantic or
conceptual structures that organise the local microstructures of discourse" (van Dijk, 1980, pV). Macrostructures are formed through the application of macrorules (deletion/selection, generalisation and construction) which "reduce and organise the more detailed information of the microstructure of the text" (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978, p366).

Superordinate Framework

This term refers to the global organising framework of a text. Different purposes for writing generate different organising frameworks for texts. For example, the two types of writing commonly used in tertiary institutions, i.e., the essay and the report, have different frameworks for organising the information contained within them.

High Literacy

This term refers to the linguistic and verbal abilities, the literary standards and sophistication, and the moral values and precepts appropriate to leaders of a society. It represents the tradition for educating elites all over the world (Resnick & Resnick, 1977).

Low Literacy

Mass education, according Resnick & Resnick (1977), grew out of a "low literacy" tradition. In the past, low literacy referred to the minimum levels of reading needed for religious practice. Low literacy now refers to the
minimum levels of literacy required for people to function in modern mass society and to be able to contribute to its maintenance through work.

**Surface Features**

The apparent features of language as opposed to the semantic content underlying those features. These include grammar and the mechanics, i.e., spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, and word usage.

**Process-Oriented Models of Writing**

Process oriented models of writing describe the processes used by expert writers to produce good writing. These processes include planning, drafting, revising and editing.

**Cognitive Process Models of Writing**

Cognitive process models of writing describe how the interaction between an individual writer's thought processes and the context in which s/he is operating regulate her/his writing.

**Product-Oriented Models of Writing**

Product-oriented models of writing are concerned with correctness of form. Good writing is seen as a product of a writer's understanding and control over all the surface features of writing. Teaching practices derived from product-oriented models focus on teaching aspects of writing in skills-based decontextualised lessons.
Plan of the Study

There are two major parts in this study. The first part analyses and evaluates the theoretical underpinnings of the Faculty of Education's remedial literacy programme. The second part examines the usefulness of the English Skills Assessment test as a means of identifying students experiencing writing problems. Chapters 2 and 3 relate to the first part of the study and Chapters 5 and 6 to the second part of the study. The study is reported according to the plan set out below.

Chapter 2 deals with empirical and theoretical work related to writing and the teaching of writing. Cognitive process models of writing and the relationships that exist among reading, writing and thinking are discussed. This chapter concludes by proposing a set of principles which are believed to underly the successful teaching of academic writing.

Chapter 3 outlines how data pertaining to the diagnosis and remediation procedures used by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University, were collected. These data are reported and the assumptions underlying them are deduced and described. These assumptions are then compared to the principles proposed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 4 contains a theoretical discussion of coherence and cohesion and outlines the characteristics of successful academic writing. The characteristics established in this chapter form the basis for the
development of a marking key which is used in the investigations relating to the English Skills Assessment test.

Chapter 5 is devoted to a description of the methodology used to investigate the usefulness of the English Skills Assessment test and a proposed assignment-essay alternative.

Chapter 6 reports the findings of the investigation of the English Skills assessment test and the proposed alternative.

The last chapter, chapter 7, reports the overall conclusions and recommendations for action that are drawn from these.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE:
WRITING AND THE TEACHING OF WRITING

There are three elements in the literature dealing with writing theory which are directly relevant to the first part of the study:
1. Literature relating to the composing process.
2. Literature which explores the reading, writing, thinking connection.
3. Literature which explores the relationship between teaching students formal grammar and students' writing performances.

Literature Relating to the Composing Process

The purpose of reviewing the literature relating to the composing process is twofold: (a) to develop an understanding of the nature of writing which is not exclusively product-oriented but which views writing as arising from the interaction of the four cognitive processes of researching, planning, composing, and reviewing within a specific context; and (b) to show the relevance of this broad understanding of the nature of writing to the diagnosis and remediation of the writing problems of students at Edith Cowan University.

Literature on the Reading, Writing, Thinking Connection

The literature exploring the connections among reading, writing, and thinking is reviewed to develop an
understanding of the connections among reading, writing, and thinking, and of the relevance of these connections to the teaching of writing.

Literature on the Teaching of Grammar and Writing Performance

The literature relating to grammar and writing performance is reviewed to assist in the evaluation of writing remediation procedures which focus on teaching students the surface features of writing, such as grammar, in decontextualised skills-based lessons.

These three elements of the literature dealing with writing theory are combined at the end of this chapter to develop a set of principles which underpin a contemporary perspective on the teaching of writing. These principles are subsequently applied in Chapter 3 to evaluate the principles underlying the procedures used by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University to assess and remediate students identified as having difficulties with written language.

The Nature of Writing: The Composing Process

Introduction

Cognitive process models of writing have made two important contributions to the development of writing theory. Firstly, along with other process models, cognitive process models have produced a shift from a product orientation in which writing is examined and
taught in isolation to an orientation which contextualises writing and highlights the importance of the cognitive processes involved. Secondly, the methodology used to gather data for cognitive process models has highlighted the differences between expert and novice writers' understanding of the nature of writing and the differences in their control over the processes involved in successful writing. These differences have important implications for the kinds of understandings and processes that need to be taught and developed in programmes designed to improve students' writing.

The purpose of this section is to: (a) survey some of the major developments over the last decade in cognitive process theories of writing, (b) evaluate their strengths and weaknesses on the basis of conceptual and methodological considerations, (c) propose a model of writing which capitalises on the strengths of existing theory and eliminates any major weaknesses that have been identified, and (d) show the relevance of this model to the diagnosis and remediation of the writing problems of Faculty of Education students at Edith Cowan University.

**Cognitive Process Models of Writing**

One of the most influential developments in the last decade of research into writing has been the Hayes and Flower cognitive process model of writing as shown in Figure 2.1 (Hayes and Flower, 1980, 1983; Flower and Hayes, 1981). Data for this model were provided by think-aloud protocols as writers worked. These protocols
consisted of writers' descriptions, transcribed from tape recordings, of what was going on in their minds while they were carrying out the various tasks associated with writing. Hayes and Flower developed, from a synthesis of the information gained from the writers' descriptions, a model which isolates three major variables in the task of writing. These three major variables are (a) the task environment, (b) the writer's long-term memory, and (c) writing processes.

Figure 2.1
Hayes and Flower Cognitive Process Model for Writing

(Flower & Hayes, 1981)
The Task Environment

The task environment includes all factors outside of writers which affect their writing, e.g., the nature of the writing task set, the text as it evolves, writing tools, and sources of information to be used in writing.

Writer’s Long-Term Memory

The writer's long-term memory includes knowledge about the topic, audience, writing strategies, and writing processes.

Writing Processes

Within the task of writing, Flower & Hayes describe three major processes which they regard as specific to writing: planning, translating, and reviewing. They also believe that a writer’s store of knowledge and her/his interpretation of task demands, guide and control (monitor) these three processes.

Planning

Planning refers to the process of working out preliminary decisions about purpose, major ideas, and organising strategies. Hayes and Flower divide planning into three sub-processes:

Getting ideas. This includes accessing information in the long-term memory or gaining ideas from sources.

Organizing. This involves giving a meaningful structure to the ideas which, in turn, may result in more new ideas.
**Goal setting.** This includes setting a purpose for writing, defining the writing task, and generating and revising goals and sub-goals for the text.

**Translating**

Translating involves turning ideas into written language, and is subject to constraints of linguistic form, e.g., spelling, syntax, and other constraints such as organisation by time and/or logic.

**Reviewing**

Reviewing is the process of going back over the text and involves two sub-processes:

(a) Evaluating. This involves judging outcomes at the planning or translating stage against task requirements.

(b) Revising. This involves making changes to the products of the mental processes of writing, e.g., text, goals, or ideas.

**Monitoring**

Monitoring is the complex executive process that oversees writing processes and allows the writer, for example, to decide when to move from one process to another, e.g., when to stop translating and to start reviewing.

**Differences between Novice and Expert Writers**

According to Hayes and Flower (1983), the chief distinction between novice and expert writers is the kind of prose they produce. Their researches have led them to
conclude that novice writers produce mainly writer-based prose and expert writers produce mainly reader-based prose.

Writer-based prose is produced in a linear non-reflective fashion. The focus of writer-based prose is on the text in isolation. Novice writers tend to be tied to the topic and less concerned with the needs of their audience. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1983; 1985) describe writer-based prose as a "knowledge-telling" strategy which involves the presenting of ideas by recapitulating their development in the mind of the author. However, writer-based prose, whilst it may be a useful step in producing a first draft, does not communicate well with a reader. Writer-based prose is characterised by ambiguous referents, words with special meanings to the writer that are not made precise to the reader, and a lack of a hierarchical organisation.

In contrast, the focus of reader-based prose is on the text in relation to its intended audience. Expert writers are far more concerned than novice writers with finding effective means of conveying their messages to their readers.

Hayes and Flower (1983) suggest that one of the major problems that novice writers experience is difficulty in converting writer-based prose into reader-based prose. Stein (1985) argues that this problem arises because writing for an audience cannot really proceed until
writers have constructed a meaningful representation of the content for themselves. She believes that novice writers not only lack structures for organising writing but also lack structures for organising their thinking which would permit them able to assimilate and understand the content.

As well as differing in the kinds of prose they produce, expert writers differ from novice writers in their composing processes, i.e., they have better and more sound procedures for getting their ideas down on paper. Expert writers differ from novice writers in the three components of the writing process described in the Hayes and Flower model.

Planning. Novice writers have difficulty in finding a focus for their writing. As a consequence, once they have generated their ideas they have problems organizing them. Their texts and text-production processes reveal little evidence of pre-planning. Explicit writing goals are rarely set, and if set, are rarely revised (Perl, 1979). In contrast, the think aloud protocols of skilled writers include reflective statements on goals, anticipations of difficulties, conflicts between alternate schemes and so on (Hayes & Flower, 1983). In their research into the processes used by writers when composing from sources, Spivey and King (1989) found that time spent on planning and the elaborateness of students' written plans were highly correlated with the quality of the written reports they had produced.
Translating. Novices create text in order of recall, paying little attention to their potential effect on the reader. They also overemphasise correcting any spelling, grammatical, or word-choice errors during the text generation process (Hayes & Flower, 1980).

Revising. Novice and expert writers exhibit different revising behaviours. Expert writers focus on content and novice writers focus on surface form. Novice writers have limited understanding of text structure and have difficulty in finding the higher order organisational parts of text when reading. The novice writer’s mental representation of the text is often limited to the text itself, unlike the skilled writer, who thinks in terms of gist, goals, organisational structure, and content. As a consequence of their limited understanding of text structure, novices rarely reorganise higher level text into organisational structures such as paragraphs. They restrict their revisions to local mechanical corrections, e.g., word/phrase substitutions and deletions rather than macrostructural changes (de Beaugrande, 1984; Flower et al., 1986).

Monitoring. Novices have difficulty in assessing their problems, and lack access to techniques and methods for overcoming and managing them. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1985) and Stein (1985) suggest that an important barrier to the development of novice writers’ competence is the lack of an executive structure for applying evaluative, diagnostic and remedial strategies.
The Advantages of Cognitive Process Models

In summary, the work of Hayes and Flower, Bereiter and Scardamalia, and others with cognitive process models of writing have made two important contributions to the understanding of writing. Firstly, cognitive process models show a range of complexities involved in the production of a written text which are not shown by product-oriented models. The relevance of the cognitive process models to the diagnosis and remediation of writing difficulties is that they highlight the areas where problems can occur for students in their writing which can contribute to a breakdown in their texts. A product-oriented approach to writing highlights the symptoms and not the causes of writing failure. The subsequent treatment of symptoms, based on a product approach to the diagnosis and remediation of writing difficulties, may not necessarily attend to the causes of writing failure nor even identify them. Secondly, the think-aloud protocols used by the researchers have highlighted the differences between novice and expert writers in their understanding and control over the processes involved in writing. The latter has important implications for the teaching of writing particularly to students experiencing difficulties. The resolution to some of these difficulties may well lie in teaching students the behaviours of expert writers.
Criticisms of Cognitive Process Models of Writing

In spite of these two important contributions to the development of an understanding of the nature of writing and the nature of writing problems, cognitive models of writing have been criticised on both theoretical and methodological grounds.

Theoretical Criticisms

The theoretical base of cognitive process models of writing has been criticised for underplaying the place of audience and content in the writing process.

Audience. Nystrand (1989, p.70) argues that cognitive models of writing depict writers "as solitary individuals struggling mainly with their thoughts". He believes that, whilst "audience" has been viewed as a relevant constraint by some cognitive composition theorists, audience has not usually been seen as central to the writing process. An important assumption of writing theory is that writing differs significantly from speech as writers, unlike speakers, cannot interact with their audience. Writers do not have access to yawns, raised eyebrows, or other conversational cues. They must rely on the text itself to sustain their intentions. Nystrand (1989) cites two theorists, Kroll and Olson, who argue that learning to write requires learning to produce "autonomous" texts that somehow have meaning independent of the writers' interaction with readers.

However, Nystrand (1989) believes that all language,
including writing, is inherently interactive and social. He argues that writers do not produce texts in isolation but are members of discourse communities which establish parameters within which writers work. He views a text as a communicative event rather than just a logical form. Thus, the structure of any text is open to analysis only insofar as the contexts of its production and reception are taken into consideration. The shape and direction of written discourse are established by writers balancing their own purposes and intentions with the expectations and needs of their readers. Nystrand concludes by postulating that one of the functions of the monitor in Flower and Hayes composing process is to ensure that texts are mediums of communication which take into account writers' purposes and readers' needs and effects.

**Content.** Cognitive process models have also been criticised for underplaying the importance of content. Stein (1985) examines the role of three different kinds of knowledge in the composing process. She identifies these as,

"knowledge about the goals of composing, knowledge about the different discourse forms, and knowledge about the belief systems of different audiences" (p.247).

She also believes that there is a further type of knowledge that has rarely been discussed in the literature. This is the knowledge of specific domains - or discipline or topic knowledge. She argues that a lack
of information in any of these areas might preclude the production of coherent texts. Stein contends that process approaches based on the work of Flower and Hayes have not provided explicit descriptions of how knowledge interacts with processing strategies or exactly what types of knowledge are necessary to construct written texts.

Stein (1985) and Landis (1990) claim that researchers and teachers, adopting a process approach to writing, often believe that writers have acquired most of the necessary topic knowledge needed to complete the writing task. As a result, difficulties in writing have been attributed to the lack of strategies necessary to translate conceptual ideas into verbal form. Stein, however, believes that many writing difficulties arise from a lack of specific content knowledge. Stein (1985) cites her own research and the work of Bransford and others all of which show that differences, amongst writers on a topic, are more likely to arise because of varying degrees of familiarity with the topic rather than differences in strategic or organising processes. Stein believes that content knowledge is probably the most essential knowledge to the production of discourse. Without knowledge about a particular topic and without access to information about specific events, writing "cannot proceed" (p.247).

Whilst content knowledge is important for writing to be able to "proceed", Baker's (1979) research indicates that good writing also requires an understanding of that
content. She reports that adults are not able to either abstract important information or write cogent summaries of texts when they have difficulty in understanding the subject matter described in a text.

Stein and Baker acknowledge that process is important in understanding composing behaviour. However, they show that process is not content free, and access to different content domains changes the type and quality of the process used during both comprehension and composition. Thus, if knowledge acquisition and integration are ignored in favour of teaching isolated skills or generic strategies, there is a danger that the skills and strategies will not transfer. Peters (1990) believes that the acquisition of knowledge ought not be divorced from the process or strategies in the teaching of writing.

**Methodological Criticisms**

The methodology used in the research which gave rise to the cognitive process models for writing has also attracted criticism. The validity of think-aloud protocols, involving subjects self-reporting, has been questioned and the lack of adequate definitions for the components of the cognitive process model have been criticised.

**Think-aloud protocols.** Bereiter and Scardamalia (1985) question the reliability of the self-reporting procedures used by Flower and Hayes for getting at writers' mental
processes during composition. They believe that self-reports give only a limited picture of what goes on in the mind of writers. They also point to evidence which indicates that self-reporting alters the processes it purports to describe.

**Conceptual ambiguities.** Stotsky (1990) levels a general criticism at all cognitive process researchers for the "conceptual ambiguities" contained within their research. She believes that many of the theoretical constructs contained within, for example, the Flower and Hayes model have not been adequately defined. She surveyed the various definitions that researchers have given "plans", "goals", and "strategies" over the last decade and finds that they are "conceptually and practically indistinguishable from each other" (1990, p.43). She argues that the key elements of a particular phenomenon must be distinguishable from each other in a consistent way in order to determine correlations or causal relationships among them. Using the example of planning, Stotsky shows examples from the work of Flower and Hayes, Scardamalia, and others in which the definition of planning moves from concrete artifacts such as notes and outlines to mental constructs. Sometimes aspects, such as notes, are seen as a positive indicator at other times as a hindrance. She believes that inadequate definitions have weakened the explanatory power of cognitive process models of writing. As consequence, she states that research and the development of knowledge in the field of
writing have been hindered as differing definitions have made it difficult to compare results across studies. She also claims that some individual studies may have been invalidated.

Stotsky (1990) believes that one of the reasons that researchers have had problems defining planning is because the nature of planning changes according to the writing task. Thus, while many school-level writing tasks may only require a brief mental plan, a tertiary-level research essay may require extensive searching, finding a focus, notetaking, categorizing, organizing, re-categorising, and reorganizing. Stotsky proposes that a conceptual difference should be made between the writing process and the research process to distinguish between the nature of the planning (largely mental) required by short, impromptu essays and the nature of the search process required by the research-based essays in tertiary institutions. Stotsky suggests that present theories on writing process need to be extended to include, as part of that process, the development of the underlying content understanding, through internal verbal thinking or through notetaking, outlining, scribbling, talking to others and so on.

Cognition and Context: Hayes and Flower Revisited

Flower (1989a) acknowledges that, although the Hayes/Flower Cognitive Process Model suggested places where the social and contextual knowledge operate within the cognitive framework, it failed to account for how the
situation within which the writer operates may shape composing. She posits the notion that cognition and context "may in a sense construct one another" (p. 287) and derives, from this notion, a more interactive model based on two principles: (a) cultural and social context can provide direct cues to cognition, and (b) context is mediated by individual cognition. Therefore, a writer's intent or purpose for writing is shaped by the interaction of individual cognition and the contexts within which the individual is operating.

**Context Cues Cognition**

Past experiences form a context which provide the writer with prior knowledge, assumptions and expectations. Context can cue action by selectively tapping prior knowledge and triggering specific processes which can influence a writer's goals, criteria, and strategies. Context also sets the criteria by which a text or writer's thinking processes are monitored and evaluated. (Flower, 1989a, 1989b)

**Cognition Mediates Context**

Context is a source of signs, not a program for action. Each student's representation of a writing task is, to a certain extent, idiosyncratic. The fact that context is mediated by cognition is evidenced in students' responses to assignment tasks in that a group of students will usually produce a variety of responses to a common writing task (Flower, 1989a, 1989b).
Interaction between Cognition and Context

Purpose in writing according to Flower is always constrained (bounded), whether by cultural assumptions, the demands of the job or the specifications of an assignment. However, writers still have two critical choices: they can choose to make some of the given purposes their own or they can choose to ignore given purposes (Flower, 1989a, 1989b).

The Importance of Context in Developing an Understanding of Student Literacy

The notion of context cuing cognition has important implications for understanding students' writing problems. The discussion, thus far, has focused on the strengths and weaknesses writers bring to the writing process. It has not considered how the context in which writers are operating may be contributing to their writing problems. Various writers (Taylor, 1978; Meyer, 1988; Ballard & Clanchy, 1988; Clanchy, 1985; 1990) have suggested that some of the reasons for students' poor performances in course-related writing tasks may be found in the context in which the students are operating.

One of the aspects of the context in which students operate which can act as an inhibitor to students' literacy development is lecturers' expectations. Donald (1988) and Meyer (1988) point out that many lecturers expect that students, who have been accepted into a
university, have or ought to have the understandings that will enable them to succeed. Three understandings, which lecturers commonly believe students have, are (a) an understanding of the purpose of academic writing (Donald, 1988; Clanchy, 1990), (b) an understanding of the relevant forms of academic writing (Ballard & Clanchy 1988), and (c) an understanding of the language used to frame assignment questions (Clanchy, 1985; Meyer, 1988). However, Donald (1988) and Meyer (1988) argue that there is a serious mismatch between the lecturers' expectations of students' competencies and their actual competencies. According to Donald (1988) and Meyer (1988), students, guided by their high school experiences where writing is used to explore ideas rather than to communicate, enter university with significant misconceptions about the purpose of academic writing. Incoming students are also largely ignorant of the forms of academic writing. The language used to define writing tasks, such as, argue and compare, are often misunderstood by students because their common sense interpretations of these words do not match their meaning in the context of an academic assignment question. The latter problem is compounded, according to Clanchy (1985), as expectations for written assignments are rarely made explicit and the assignment questions themselves are often unclear and ambiguous.

As a consequence of lecturers' expectations of students' competencies, the teaching of understandings that would greatly enhance the students' potential to write successfully in an academic environment is haphazard or
non-existent. The value of cognitive process models, in comparison to product-oriented models, is that they show that an adequate resolution of the problems faced by students in their academic writing may need to deal with the students' understanding of the requirements of context in which they are operating as well as the superficial, mechanical features of written language. The fact that the former is often unclear and not explicitly taught can impede students' literacy development.

A Contemporary Perspective of the Nature of Writing

A synthesis of recent literature pertaining to writing indicates a need to go far beyond a conceptualization which views writing as simply a product. To derive an adequate understanding of the causes of writing problems, as they are manifested in the product, requires an examination of the processes involved in the production of that text. An analysis of a student's written text, may reveal a particular problem, for example, the lack of an appropriate introduction which sets the context for an essay. However, the causes of this problem may be many. The problem may arise from the student's lack of understanding of the structure of an essay, or the student may not have synthesized the relevant background material sufficiently to enable her/him to write an appropriate introduction, or the student may have misinterpreted the nature of the task either by misinterpreting the assignment question or by
misinterpreting the expectations of the marker, and so on.

To overcome the limitations of product oriented models, a model outlining the processes involved in writing essays at university has been developed from the current literature. The development of appropriate writing remediation procedures which meet the needs of students requires a conceptualization of writing which includes the processes involved in writing. Process factors are important because breakdowns in different components of the writing process may manifest themselves as similar problems in students' essays, however, the different causes for these problems are likely to require quite different methods of remediation. A range of possibilities may be inferred from the essay as to where or why the breakdown may have occurred but the reason for breakdown cannot be pinpointed without analysing the processes used by the writer.

The process model for university research assignment writing (see figure 2.2) has been derived from the cognitive process model of writing proposed by Flower and Hayes (1981). However, the derivative model takes into account the criticism advanced by Nystrand (1989), that cognitive process models underplay the importance of context and audience and adopts the later theoretical refinements suggested by Flower (1989a). It also acknowledges the importance, suggested by Stotsky (1990), of the researching process as part of University writing.
Finally, it accepts the view that written language is a means of developing thinking rather than a product (Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley, 1989; McGinley & Tierney, 1989; Stein, 1989b). According to this view, there is no dichotomy between process and product or planning and composing. All these are seen as part of a process where thinking is extended and/or refined by the goal-directed activity of writing. Writing can play a particularly important part in the development of thinking about a topic as writing allows the exploration and re-examination of ideas. The organising process involved in writing also allows writers to make meaningful connections between items of information within the topic through the creation of superordinate/subordinate categories.

The process model for research-assignment writing at Edith Cowan University developed from the literature consists of four major components: (a) the general University environment, (b) the specific task environment, (c) the writer's long-term memory, and (d) the components of searching/writing processes.

General University Environment

The Edith Cowan University assessment system forms a context which affects the way in which University students respond to the writing tasks they are set. Students' performances in research writing tasks are assessed and their performances are scored or quantified.
The score given indicates whether students have passed or failed, and how well students have passed. However, the effect of the University assessment system is mediated by the motivation of individual students towards assessment. Some students are satisfied with just passing their assignments. Other students aspire to achieving A's and B's. The levels of students' aspirations will affect the time and energy they put into the researching/writing process.

Specific Task Environment
There are a number of elements within the specific task environment.

The nature of the assignment. What is the topic of the assignment? What kind of response is the assignment seeking?

The audience. Who is the lecturer marking the topic? What are her/his needs and demands?

The evolving text. The evolving text opens or closes options that control how a text may proceed according to

Letter grades are given as follows:
A (80% - 100% of the total possible mark) indicates a distinction.
B (70% to 79% of the total possible mark) indicates a credit.
C+ (60% - 69% of the total possible mark) indicates a pass.
C (50% - 59% of the total possible mark) indicates a pass.
N (<49% of the total possible mark) indicates a failure.

The letter grades A and B are given to 35% of the students with the proviso that there must be more A's than B's.
a vast array linguistic and rhetorical conventions. For example, a topic sentence serves to limit and refine a paragraph's possibilities.

The resources and tools. This includes the resources that are available to writers, e.g., books and other reference materials, computer databases, lecturers, and other students. It also includes the tools that are available to writers, e.g., example, computers and word processors.

Writer's Long-Term Memory

Within the writer's long term memory, there is information about content, audiences, and discourse forms.

Researching/Writing Processes

There are five major processes (see figure 2.2) within this area:

Researching. This involves the initial interpretation of the task, the preliminary setting of goals, and the retrieval of relevant information from the long-term memory. It also involves the search for information through, viewing, reading, discussion, and questioning. At the same time thinking, diagramming, listing, and notetaking are taking place.

Planning. Planning involves the reinterpretation of the task and goals based on data gathered. Relevant information from the long-term memory together with
externalisations of thought in the form of notes is organised. Organization involves classifying, creating hierarchies, ordering by time and/or logic. Frameworks for composing a response to the assignment are generated.

**Composing.** In composing, data from various sources, such as memory and notes, are turned into meaningful written discourse to meet the purposes set by the assignment specifications and by the writer.

**Reviewing.** Reviewing involves the writer in the systematic examination of the text. The aim of reviewing is to improve the quality of the text. The text is read and evaluated against the standards set by the writers' interpretation of the response required by the assignment and is also evaluated in terms of the achievement of any special goals set by the writers for themselves. Reviewing involves both revision and editing. Revision involves the changing of the text by deleting extraneous material and elaborating on important points that have been addressed too briefly or where the meaning is unclear. It also includes reorganizing text and providing links to enable the writer's message to be communicated clearly to the intended audience. Editing involves changes to the surface structure of the text involving spelling, syntax and word choice.

**Monitoring.** Monitoring is the process by which writers monitor their progress within the overall task, identifying problems and refining goals to meet
exigencies as they develop or become apparent. For example, a writer becomes aware that s/he has insufficient information to justify a particular point of view that is emerging from her/his writing so s/he may decide either to carry out further research to discover the additional information needed or change the emphasis of his/her writing.

Limitations of the Process Model for University Writing

It must be emphasised that the model proposed is not meant to represent a staged view of writing in which writers work through the various components of the researching/writing process in a linear fashion. Expert writers do not apply the five major processes involved writing in a strictly linear fashion. Many good writers employ a recursive, non-linear approach, e.g., writing a draft may be interrupted by more planning, and revision may lead to reformulation, with a great deal of recycling to earlier stages. The manner in which the model has been represented may appear incongruent with a holistic conceptualisation which views writing as an extension and refinement of a writer's thinking. However, it is useful to break the model up into a number of processes to highlight particular needs of writers which would not be shown in a holistic representation of writing. The model shows the components involved in the process of essay writing where breakdowns can occur. If the area where a breakdown has occurred can be identified then it is possible to teach/model to students appropriate
strategies which can improve their writing, e.g., the explicit teaching of strategies for collecting data, planning devices, strategies for revising and editing, and so on. The model also demonstrates how the nature of the task, as perceived by the writer, can influence both the research and the composing processes. The former influences the selection of the materials to be reviewed and the latter involves the writer fulfilling the implicit and the explicit expectations of the audience, i.e., in the case of University assignments, the marker.

The Cognitive Process Model and Content

Stein's (1985) criticism of cognitive process models of writing for underplaying the importance of content has not been addressed within the proposed model. The resolution to Stein's criticism lies largely outside the cognitive models. This can be resolved by determining where the aspects of writing highlighted by the models should be taught. Osland (1986, p. 170) calls for a rejection of a "narrow perception of writing teaching as a separate skills service ... in favour of a programme which makes the teaching of writing central to the learning of each discipline." Osland's argument may be separated into two elements. Firstly, the acquisition of content knowledge ought not be separated from the processes, including writing, by which the content knowledge is acquired. Glaser's (1984) studies of the development of problem solving and critical thinking skills have revealed a distinct need for context. His
studies have shown that process-centred pedagogies which ignore the role of knowledge are less effective than those which embrace it. Glaser's view is supported by Keil (1984, p.96) who concludes that "Humans are capable of engaging in complex chains of processing, but when they do, the processing is embedded in, and done in reference to, a specific knowledge structure". According to Biggs (1989), the process is guided by and is a derivative of the structure of knowledge, rather than being an independent set of "boxes" with patterns of information flow. Secondly, writing is a valuable tool for both acquiring knowledge and developing more sophisticated understandings. More sophisticated understandings are developed because the emphasis of written language on structure, organisation, and syntax forces writers to organise their ideas about a topic and show the relationships among the ideas (Hayes, 1990; Jackson 1991).

Writing shapes knowledge and knowledge shapes writing. In light of the relationship between knowledge structures and cognitive processes, the processes and forms of writing required at a university should be taught in conjunction with the course content in units that are in the centre rather than at the periphery of the academic curriculum (Marshall, n.d.).

The Nature of Writing: The Teaching of Writing

Not only should writing be taught in the context of the various disciplines rather than in isolation, but as
academic writing involves frequent reading-based research, it ought also to be taught in conjunction with reading. This view is supported by the growing body of evidence which points to a strong connection between reading and writing processes. An important outcome of the last fifteen years research into writing is the suggestion that reading and writing are mutually reinforcing and should be taught together. This research also indicates that the conjoining of reading and writing instruction would lead to an improvement in students' thinking and reasoning abilities (Krashen, 1984; Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, & McGinley, 1989; Whyte, 1985).

Another important outcome of the research into writing is to show the limited impact that the teaching of grammar has on writing performance.

The purpose of this section of the chapter is to (a) establish the connection between reading, writing, and thinking, (b) show the limitations of remediation procedures which focus on the mechanical aspects of writing, by providing a brief overview of the literature exploring the relationships between grammar and writing performance, and (c) argue that writing remediation procedures, suitable for University students, should not focus on the mechanical aspects of writing and should encompass the reading/writing/thinking connection.

The Reading, Writing, and Thinking Connection

The genesis of the idea that reading and writing may be
connected began at least as early as 1912 with Baker and Thorndike who believed that reading and writing were symbiotic (Whyte, 1985). Since that date, numerous researchers have tested the relationship between the reading and writing processes. Squire (1983) argued that reading and writing are two complementary, reciprocal processes. Table 2.1 presents an adaptation of Squire's view of the similarities of the processes of reading and writing. Tierney and Pearson (1983) argue that reading and writing are "acts of composing" (p. 568) that share five cognitive and metacognitive subprocesses: planning, drafting, aligning, revising, and monitoring.

Other researchers have tested the notion that proficiency in one of the language modes under consideration often means a proficiency in the other. Stotsky (1983a) synthesized the research carried out on reading/ writing relations. She found that these studies consistently indicated that: (a) better writers tend to be better readers, (b) better writers tend to read more than poorer writers, and (c) better readers tend to produce more syntactically mature writing than poorer readers.

**Writing and Reading for Pleasure**

Krashen (1984) reports on seven studies dealing with high school students and college freshman which indicated that voluntary reading contributes to the development of writing proficiency. Similarly, Whyte (1985) discusses a study by Barbig and La Campagne (1968) which concluded
### Table 2.1

The Relationships between Reading and Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Before</strong></td>
<td><strong>Writing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activating relevant language schemata.</td>
<td>Securing ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activating relevant content schemata.</td>
<td>Organising ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing purpose.</td>
<td>Determining point of view.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activating prediction strategies.</td>
<td>Considering audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>During</strong></td>
<td><strong>During</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active engagement in the construction of a</td>
<td>Active engagement in the construction of a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>representation of meaning.</td>
<td>representation of meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>After</strong></td>
<td><strong>After</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying parts in relation to the whole.</td>
<td>Revising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysing how effects are achieved.</td>
<td>Applying outside standards of correctness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making independent judgements, e.g.,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preferences, ethics, and aesthetics.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that better writers do more voluntary reading.

**Relationship between Reading and Writing Proficiencies**

Whyte (1985) mentions a study by Zeman in 1969 which found that the best readers used more complex written sentence structures. Birnbaum (1982) also relates how a thirteen year study by Loban (n.d.) found that children who were achieving well in one language process were achieving well in the other.

In the 1980s a number of studies were conducted which observed subjects' behaviour during the act of reading and writing. A study by Bissex (Stotsky, 1983a) found that good writers think more about meaning while poor writers concentrate on neatness and avoiding errors. Atwell found similar results in 1981 when she observed that better writers did more re-reading and planning (Stotsky, 1983a). This was confirmed by Birnbaum (1982) who found, in a study of selected fourth and seventh graders, that the best students know just how and what to think during both reading and writing.

The results of the research carried out into reading and writing have not only shown the relationships which exist between reading and writing, but also provide a strong rationale for teaching reading and writing together. The studies, cited above, indicate that appropriate reading instruction/practice can have a positive impact on writing and that appropriate writing instruction/practice can have a positive impact on reading.
Effects of Reading on Writing

Krashen (1984) discusses three studies which compared the effects of reading and writing on the development of writing proficiency. In each case, a group of students who wrote frequently was compared to a group that wrote less (in one case not at all) and spent more time reading. All groups showed improvements in writing proficiency. However, in two studies the reading group out performed the writing group in a post-test essay in all the categories, i.e., content, mechanics, organisation, grammar, wording, and phrasing, used by the researchers to assess their subjects' writing. In the third study there was no significant difference in the performance of the two groups. Not all studies report gains in writing ability with increased reading, however, it appears that increased practice in writing may not be as effective as increased reading.

The Effect of Writing on Reading

Much of the research on the effect of writing on reading comprehension comes from researchers on sentence combining. Sentence combining is the act of combining several short sentences that have been derived by transformational analysis from longer ones (O'Hare 1979; Nugent, 1983). Many studies have shown that sentence combining has a positive effect on reading comprehension (Evans, Venetozzi, Bundrick, & McWilliams, 1988; Neville
& Searls, 1985; Searls & Neville, 1988). These studies have also shown that the greatest gains in reading comprehension appeared to be among poorer and average readers.

Stotsky (1982) also found other types of writing had an impact on reading comprehension. Paraphrase writing, or students putting a subject in their own words, requires them to transform ideas that have been presented to them in a text. Similarly, précis writing involves both comprehension of and attention to importance, at the expense of trivia. According to Hidi and Anderson (1986), there are at least two sets of cognitive operations at work in précis writing: (a) a selection process in which conscious judgements are continuously made, and (b) a reduction process in which propositions are deliberately condensed through a variety of higher order transformations. Both paraphrase and précis writing force students to go beyond a superficial understanding of a text as they require the students to find and demonstrate relationships that are not necessarily explicitly stated the text.

Differing forms of writing have also been found by researchers to have differing effects on comprehension. Studies by Langer and Applebee (1987), Marshall (1987), and Newell and Winograd (1989) indicate that rather than having a general effect on writing, specific writing tasks foster specific kinds of learning. The studies examined the interaction between the nature of the
writing task and the level of recall. They found that students responding to questions and engaging in analytical essay writing were able to recall more of the overall organizing frames of the original passages more often than when they engaged in notetaking or in answering short answer study questions. Studying course content by taking notes or answering short-answer study questions leads students to focus attention on specific pieces of information and to remember them very well for a short period of time. However, these forms of writing also lead to limited engagement with the material. In comparison, analytic writing encourages students to manipulate information in more complex ways. As a result of this manipulation, students are able to demonstrate better understandings and remember that material over time.

Reading, Writing, and Thinking

Research conducted by Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, and McGinley (1989) with undergraduate students indicated that reading and writing in combination are more likely to prompt critical thinking than when reading is separated from writing or when writing is combined with knowledge activation or answering questions. Critical thinking is more likely to occur because the revising stage in the reading writing process leads to students engaging in a higher order synthesis and transformation of the ideas.

However, in the final analysis, the goal is not merely of
writing affecting reading comprehension or reading affecting the quality of writing, but of reading and writing mutually affecting learning. Writing about reading transforms the words of another on a page into the thoughts and words of the active learner. Only when the words of others are translated and transformed through the thoughts, words, and syntax of the individual mind do those first words become truly original thoughts.

Text Structure, and Reading and Writing

The belief that reading and writing should not be viewed as separate, distinct processes, but should be considered as integrated and mutually reinforcing has received further support from studies exploring students' awareness of text structure.

Various studies (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Meyer, Brandt, & Bluth, 1980; Meyer, 1984; Meyer & Rice, 1984) have indicated that the reader's use of text structure is a necessary skill in comprehending text. A study carried out by Hiebert, Englert, and Brennan (1983) supported the previous findings related to reading and extended them to writers and writing. Their study indicated that sensitivity to text structure is related to performance in both reading and writing. In reading, sensitivity to text structure apparently elicits strong reader expectations which contribute to their successful identification and comprehension of textual ideas related to the text topic and structure. In writing, knowledge
of text structure apparently enhances performance by guiding the writer in generating sentences appropriate to the given topics and text structures.

The ability to organise information in their own writing gives students insight into the writing of others. In order to fully comprehend how a text is organised, the student must begin as a writer, trying to organise information into a cohesive whole that is comprehensible to a reader. In attempting to write an expository text, students see the need for organisation and the need for using conventions of writing in order to produce a coherent text. When students do not organise their information, they realise, usually from the teachers' comments, that their audience does not understand them. Students acquire and develop schemata related to the organisation of language through writing, which they can then transfer into reading situations. When they are reading, students, as a result of their experience as writers, will understand that the information contained in the text they are reading will be presented in an organised format (Crismore, 1982; Flood, 1984; Flood & Lapp, 1986; Raphael, Englert & Kirschner, 1989).

**Grammar and Writing Performance**

Meyer, Youga, and Flint-Ferguson (1990) summarised the state of grammar teaching in American schools as follows: "Grammar is often taught but very seldom learned" (p. 66). In Australia, as in America, the teaching of grammar in formal grammar lessons also receives widespread support
particularly amongst those in the community who believe that literacy problems could be overcome by a return to the basics. This support exists in spite of more than eighty years of research which concludes overwhelmingly that the study of formal grammar taught by traditional methods has very little or no effect on students' use of language. Braddock, Lloyd and Schoer (1963), reviewing studies from 1945 to 1962, stated that, "the teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction or practice in actual composition, even a harmful effect on the teaching of writing" (pp. 37-38). Sherwin (1969), reviewing 25 studies carried out between 1906 and 1968, concluded that "after a tally of procedural and other limitations, the research still overwhelmingly supports the contention that instruction in grammar is an ineffective and inefficient way to help students achieve proficiency in writing" (p. 168). More recently, Foster (1983) and Hillock (1986) surveyed the considerable body of research, carried out over the last two decades, which compared the effects of teaching grammar (traditional and transformational) with the effects of not teaching grammar at all on the composition performance. Subjects of the various studies ranged from primary to tertiary students. Both Hillocks and Foster concluded from extensive surveys of the research that there is no convincing empirical evidence which shows a link between knowing grammar, traditional or transformational, and writing performance at any of the age levels researched.
Smith (1983) and Krashen (1984) believe that conscious knowledge of the rules of grammar and usage appears to help only at the editing stage of writing. At the editing stage, writers can apply the rules of convention relating to patterns of language which they already know in order to fine-tune their work.

Sedgewick (1987) calls for a rejection of traditional decontextualised methods of teaching grammar and advises language teachers to teach grammar in context and in conjunction with teaching the writing process. He believes that students could be taught grammar in lessons where there is a context and an authentic purpose for writing. In these lessons students can be taught the conventions of grammar which they require in order to be able to proof-read and edit their own writing.

A Contemporary Perspective on the Teaching of Writing

Research conducted over the last decade has shown that a significant knowledge transfer takes place between reading and writing in both directions, reading -> writing and writing -> reading (Krashen, 1984; Whyte 1985). The work of Braddock, LLoyd and Schoer (1963), Foster (1983) and Hillock (1986) also shows the relative futility of the teaching of grammar in decontextualised, skills-based lessons and suggests that gains in the quality of writing may best be achieved through instructional foci which: (a) exploit the interconnected nature of reading and writing, and (b) emphasize the
development of ideas and structures to organise and sequence them rather than on the correctness of surface features such as, grammar.

The Principles Underlying the Successful Teaching of Academic Writing

There are five principles which underlie the successful teaching of academic writing. They can be derived from the contemporary perspective on writing and the teaching of writing. These are:

1. The requirements for academic writing should be taught in the context of a course and not in decontextualised skills-based lessons.

2. Writing should be taught in units that are a major focus rather than a peripheral element of the academic curriculum.

3. Students need to be taught the processes underlying successful academic writing.

4. Reading and writing should be taught in conjunction as reading provides the content and structures for writing and writing can provide structures for absorbing new information being read.

5. The context in which students write can have an important bearing on their literacy development.

Consequently, within units at university:
(a) Expectations for writing must be made explicit.

(b) The writing tasks set must be clear and unambiguous.

(c) Writing teaching should concentrate on structural and organisational factors rather than surface features.

(d) Assignment tasks should be set which require students to analyse and synthesise rather than simply to recall and list facts.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD AND RESULTS OF PART I OF THE STUDY

The first section in this chapter outlines briefly the nature of the data collected for the first part of this study and how it was collected. The second section in this chapter describes and analyses the information relating to the original purposes of the first part of this study. The third section in this chapter presents and analyses the implications of additional information collected which was not sought when the study was originally conceptualised but which is thought to have a serious effect on the value of the Faculty of Education's current remedial writing programme.

Method

Nature of the Data Collected

The original purpose of the first part of this study was to determine the assumptions about writing which underlie the procedures and practices used by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University to diagnose and remediate the perceived writing problems of its first year students and to compare these assumptions to a current conceptualisation of the nature of writing and writing teaching. However, in the process of collecting data concerning the Faculty’s diagnosis and remediation practices, additional information came to light which has a serious impact on Faculty of Education students’ literacy development. This additional
information, and its impact on student literacy, will be discussed in the latter part of this chapter.

In order to achieve the original purpose, data were collected pertaining to: (a) the current methods of diagnosing writing problems of first year teacher education students, and (b) the current methods of remediating writing problems of those students.

In addition to the above areas, data relating to the structure and organisation of the remedial writing unit were also collected.

**Methods of Data Collection**

Data relating to the selection procedures and remediation practices were collected on the Mount Lawley Campus of Edith Cowan University in second semester 1990. There were two sources for these data: open and semi-structured interviews and document analysis. The first part of the study relied heavily on the information supplied by the lecturers and tutors involved with either the organisation or teaching of COM0101 at Mount Lawley. Numerous discussions were held with the Faculty staff over a period of six months. Discussions were held with: the Dean of the Faculty of Education; the COM0101 course coordinator, who was responsible for administrative aspects of COM0101; and the lecturer and three tutors involved in teaching components of the remedial writing unit. Records of the salient points from the discussions were kept in field work diaries.
Various documents were also collected. The documents collected include copies of the screening test used, copies of unit outlines, weekly breakdowns of the content of classes, and copies of unit exit tests. However, the number of documents collected was limited as some tutors/lecturers kept formal written records such as unit outlines others kept few written records and tended to work on a week-by-week basis, e.g., only one of the three tutors kept extensive written records.

Diagnosis and Remediation Procedures

All students enrolling in early childhood, primary, or secondary teacher education programmes in the Faculty of Education are tested for "acceptable standards of literacy" and if necessary attend regular instruction in areas of weakness established. The vehicle for testing and remediating students' literacy needs is the written communication competence unit COM0101. COM0101 is a non-award unit which is a compulsory co-requisite to study in the Bachelor of Arts Education. Students are expected, on completion of the unit, to be able to: (a) "interpret questions, locate resources, research a variety of topics, and demonstrate comprehension of material; and (b) write expository essays at a level

\[^{1}\text{COM0101 originally included both oral and written communication. These two aspects of communication have now been separated and COM0101 deals with written communication and COM0102 deals with oral communication.}\]
appropriate to tertiary studies" (see COM0101 Unit Description Appendix A) The content outlined in the unit description reflects these objectives and includes both reading and writing skills. However, data collected for the first part of this study, described later in the chapter, reveal a substantial discrepancy between the content described in the outline and the actual content taught in COM0101 courses.

COM0101 must be completed by all students enrolled in a Bachelor of Arts (Education) prior to entering the third year of their course. However, students can complete the unit without attending any formal lectures. The unit COM0101 is unique in the Faculty of Education because students can sit a literacy test prior to the commencement of formal lectures. Any student passing this test is deemed to have met the unit's requirements and need not attend lectures. Taking this situation into account, Communication 0101 consists of the following components: (a) procedures for screening students, (b) procedures for remediating students who have been identified as being at risk because of their performance in the screening test, and (c) procedures for re-testing students at the completion of the remediation procedure.

The nature of the screening test and the three procedures used in establishing and developing written communication competence are discussed below.
An Overview of the Screening Test

All undergraduate students in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University are required to complete the English Skills Assessment test (ACER, 1982a) in the first semester of their first year. The English Skills Assessment test (see Appendix B) is a combination of two tests intended for use with students in Years 11 and 12 of secondary school and the first year of post-secondary education. It was adapted from two American tests: the Sequential Tests of Education Progress Series I, for grades 10-12, and the Descriptive Tests of Language Skills for College Freshman (ACER, 1982b).

The English Skills Assessment test is a standardised test consisting of two parts. Part 1 of the test consists of three timed tests: spelling, punctuation and capitalization, and long comprehension, the last test contains passages of 400-500 words in length. Part 2 consists of five timed tests: paragraph comprehension (short passages), usage, vocabulary, sentence structure and logical relationships. All items are of the multiple choice type. In turn, each of these tests is broken down into diagnostic groupings of items or sub-tests. Each item is classified according to the skill it purports to measure. The sub-tests contained within each test are as follows:

Spelling Test

This test asks students to detect four categories of
spelling errors: (a) initial syllable or sound, (b) medial syllable or sound, (c) final syllable or sound, and (d) consonants (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Punctuation and Capitalisation Test.**

This test asks students to identify, within sentences, errors in the use of capitalisation, apostrophes, commas, semicolons, periods, hyphen, question, and quotation marks (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Comprehension I Test.**

Students are asked to read passages of 400-500 words and answer multiple choice questions. Skills that the questions purport to cover include (a) understanding main ideas and direct statements, (b) translation and inference, and (c) analysis (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Comprehension II Test**

Students are asked to read short passages of 60-70 words and answer multiple choice questions. Skills that this component of the test purports to cover are (a) understanding main ideas, (b) understanding direct statements, and (c) drawing inferences (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Usage Test.**

This test asks students to identify parts of sentences which are incorrect according to the test designers' perception of standard written English. The test is
broken into four sub-tests and contains items testing the use of pronouns, modifiers, diction and idiom, and verb tense and agreement (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Vocabulary Test**

Students are required in this test to choose, from four alternatives for each, the synonyms for twenty given words (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Sentence Structure Test**

This test requires students to find and correct errors in sentences, and to rephrase sentences mentally and to create new, acceptable sentences. The test is broken into three sub-tests and contains items testing students' abilities to (a) use complete sentences, (b) use coordination and subordination appropriately, and (c) place modifiers appropriately (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**Logical Relationships Test**

Students are asked to identify relationships between words, sentences and ideas. The test is broken into three sub-tests and contains items testing students' abilities to (a) use appropriate connectives, (b) draw analogies, and (c) recognise principles of organisation (ACER, 1982a; 1982b).

**The Procedures for Screening Students in 1990**

In 1990, Faculty of Education students at Mount Lawley Campus sat the English Skills Assessment Parts I and II
during their first semester exams in June. Students were obliged to attempt all nine tests. In order to pass, students were required to score 75% or above in each of the tests. The decision to choose 75%\(^2\) as the pass mark for each of the tests was entirely arbitrary as the English Skills Assessment is a standardised test and not a criterion referenced or mastery test. The choice of 75% as a pass mark did, however, create some consternation initially, as more than 90% of the Faculty of Education students at Mount Lawley Campus fell below the 75% mark in one or more of the tests. As a consequence of the large number of students identified as having some deficiency with respect to literacy when using all nine tests, the Faculty of Education decided to consider students' performances in only four of the components of the English Skills Assessment test. The four components chosen by the Faculty to assess its students' writing competency were punctuation and capitalisation, spelling, word usage, and sentence structure. These components of the English Skills Assessment test were chosen because they were felt by the Faculty to represent the skills most directly related to writing. Students achieving a score of 75% or more in each of these tests were deemed to have met the requirements of Communications 0101 and were passed from the unit. Students achieving a score of less than 75% in any of the tests were deemed to have failed that test.

\(^2\)In 1991 the pass mark was set at 65%
Procedures for Remediating Students Identified as Having Weaknesses in an Aspect of Written Language

Students, who were deemed to have failed the test, were required to attend remedial lessons covering that test’s content. For example, a student failing spelling and word usage attended the spelling and the word usage components of the unit Communications 0101.

There were formal classes held dealing with the content of each of the four tests used by the Faculty of Education to assess its students’ writing competence. Thus, remedial classes were held in spelling, word usage, sentence structure, and punctuation and capitalisation.

Procedures for Remediating Students Perceived As having Spelling Weaknesses

The spelling component of COM0101 consisted of one mass lecture, where spelling rules and self-monitoring procedures were outlined. At the completion of the lecture, students were also given handouts (see Appendix C) which outlined some of the common sources of error in students’ writing and provided a list of spelling generalisations which could be of assistance in overcoming some of these errors. For example, doubling the consonant to keep the vowel sound lax when adding suffixes beginning with vowels to words that have a consonant–lax vowel–consonant pattern. The lecture provided the only contact the students had with the lecturer. There were no follow-up workshops. In the
place of workshops, students were given a collection of spelling activities. The collection of spelling activities included a marking key. The students were then left to complete and mark the spelling activities without assistance. The completion of these activities by individual students was not monitored or assessed in any way. Students were also given a list of five hundred common words to learn.

Procedures for Remediating Students Perceived as Having Punctuation and Capitalisation Weaknesses

The punctuation/capitalisation component of COM0101 was run along lines similar to the spelling component of the unit. It also consisted of one mass lecture, where punctuation rules were outlined. At the completion of the lecture, students were also given handouts (see appendix E) which outlined some basic rules relating to the use of full stops, question marks, exclamation marks, apostrophes, commas, colons, and semi-colons. Again, the lecture provided the only contact the students had with the lecturer. There were no follow-up workshops. In the place of workshops, students were given a collection of punctuation activities. The collection of punctuation activities (see Appendix F) included a marking key. The students were then left to complete and mark the punctuation activities without assistance. The punctuation activities involved rewriting sentences and paragraphs inserting appropriate punctuation. Again, as with the spelling component, the completion of the
punctuation activities by individual students was not monitored or assessed in any way.

**Procedures for Remediating Students Perceived as Having Usage Weaknesses**

The usage component of COM0101 consisted of weekly, one hour tutorial workshops lasting for a semester. There were approximately 12 tutorial groups with between 6-15 students in each group. The tutorial groups were split up between three tutors. During the tutorial workshops, students were taught various technical aspects of the written language relating to conventional usage. The approach to teaching used in the workshops and, to a lesser extent the content of the workshops, varied according to the perspective of the tutor taking it. Tutor 1's perspective of how writing should be taught was holistic. In contrast, the perspective of Tutor 2 and Tutor 3 on the teaching of writing was to deal with the elements of language in a discrete fashion in decontextualised skills-based lessons. However, all the tutors were constrained by the fact that the content of the component of Communications 0101 they were taking could not overlap with the content of the other three components as there were some students who had to attend all four components. In other words, the tutors felt that, irrespective of their theoretical perspective, they had to adopt a decontextualised skills-based approach dealing with discrete elements of written language in their workshops because of the way in which the remedial
writing unit was organised into four discrete components. Though she felt constrained by the organisation of the unit, Tutor 1 attempted to apply her perspective of the teaching of writing by trying to create a context for the parts of language she dealt with in her sessions. Instead of dealing with aspects of language at the sentence level, she tried to use larger chunks of language such as paragraphs so her students could see the patterns of language. For example, subject-verb agreement was dealt with by asking students to change all the verbs in paragraphs from the past tense to the present tense and all the subjects in other paragraphs from singular to plural (see appendix G). On the other hand Tutor 2 and Tutor 3 taught aspects of language using examples at the sentence level.

The content of the workshops also varied according to tutor. Where topics were similar, the depth of treatment sometimes varied. The topics dealt with by Tutor 1 in the usage workshops included subject-verb agreement; noun-pronoun agreement; formation of the 13 verb tenses and consistency of tense in writing; the appropriate use of the pronouns I, me, my, mine, he, him, his, she, her, hers, it, its, we, us, our, ours, you, your, yours, they, them, their, theirs, who, whom, and whose; the appropriate use of the relative clause markers that and which; the use of first, second, and third person and consistency of person in writing (see weekly outline of workshop sessions in appendix H).
The topics dealt with by Tutor 2 and 3 in their usage workshops were similar and included identifying parts of speech, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions; subject-verb agreement; formation of the past (simple) tense, future (simple) tense, present (simple) tense, and past perfect tense.

**Procedures for Remediating Students Perceived as Having Weaknesses with Sentence Structure.**

The sentence structure component of COM0101 also consisted of weekly, one hour tutorial workshops lasting for a semester. Again, there were approximately 12 tutorial groups with between 6-15 students in each group. The tutorial groups were split up between the same three tutors who were taking the usage component. During the tutorial sessions, students were taught various technical aspects of the written language relating to sentence structure. As was the case with the usage workshops, the approach to teaching used in the sentence structure workshops and the content of the workshops varied according to the perspective of the tutor taking it.

The topics dealt with by Tutor 1 often went beyond the constraints of sentence structure and dealt with writing at the paragraph and whole text level. Topics dealt with by Tutor 1 included: organisational and linguistic devices contributing to text coherence; simple, compound, and complex sentences; adjectival and adverbial modifiers; coordinating and subordinating conjunctions;
and the use of transitional words and phrases and other linguistic devices to contribute to text cohesion. These aspects of written language were taught and practised in workshops using increasingly more complex sentence combining exercises (see appendix I). The sentence combining exercises moved from combining sentences to make a single sentence, to combining sentences to make paragraphs, and finally, combining sentences to make a number of paragraphs dealing with a topic.

Topics dealt with by Tutors 2 and 3 included identifying the subject and predicate in sentences, the use of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions to combine two sentences into single sentences, correcting ambiguity in sentences through the appropriate placement of modifiers, and correcting ambiguity in sentences through the appropriate placement of transitional words and phrases. Tutors 2 and 3 used editing exercises at the sentence level to teach and provide practice in these aspects of written language for students in their workshops.

Procedures for Re-Testing Students at the Completion of Remediation Courses

In 1990 the assessment procedures for the four components of COM0101 were designed and implemented independently of each other by the individual tutors/lecturers concerned. Different tutors of the same unit also designed different tests to reflect the different content and orientations of their units.
Procedures for Re-Testing Students at the Completion of the Spelling Course

Spelling tests were held at intervals of seven weeks. Students could sit these tests when they judged themselves to be ready. At the test, students were asked to spell 15 words selected from the list of 500 words that had been given to them on the occasion of the mass lecture in spelling (see Appendix D). Students achieving a perfect score would be passed from the spelling component of COM0101. Students failing to achieve a perfect score would re-sit the test until they passed.

Procedures for Re-Testing Students at the Completion of the Punctuation/Capitalisation Course

Students undertaking this course were also tested at intervals of seven weeks. At the test, students were presented with a variety of un-punctuated texts which they were required to punctuate. The test was based on the application of the rules they had been given in the handout and in the mass lecture. Students achieving a perfect score were passed from the punctuation/capitalisation component of COM0101. Students failing to achieve a perfect score had to re-sit the test until they passed.
Procedures for Re-Testing Students at the Completion of Usage Courses

At the completion of the usage courses students were required to complete an editing test which assessed the students' ability to identify and correct the problems relating to conventional usage dealt with in the workshop sessions. The students attending the course run by Tutor 1 were required to complete a two hour test consisting of five sections (see Appendix J). In section 1, students were asked to edit a story correcting any errors in subject-verb agreement and tense shifts. Section 2 required students to identify, from among a number of choices, the correct pronoun required to complete sentences (multiple choice). In section 3, students rewrote ambiguous sentences. Section 4 required students to complete three cloze exercises filling in the spaces with the appropriate tense formation of given verbs. In the final section, students were asked to edit shifts in person and errors in noun-pronoun agreement in a short essay. Sections 1, 3, and 5 of the test used chunks of text rather than sentences. The test was a mastery test requiring students to show that they had mastered the course content. Students scoring 80% or more in at least four of the sections were deemed to have passed the usage component of COM0101.

The students attending the course run by Tutors 2 and 3 were required to sit a 45 minute test consisting of 7 sections worth a total of 100 marks (see appendix K).
The content of each section and the marks assigned to that section were as follows: Section 1 required students to nominate the verbs, adjectives, and adverbs corresponding to a given list of nouns (42 marks). In section 2, students were asked to supply the prepositions that were missing in six sentences (14 marks). Section 3 involved students finding and correcting errors in subject-verb agreement in five given sentences (five marks). In section 4, students were asked to supply the antonyms for a list of adjectives (20 marks). Section 5 required students to list appropriate adjectives to describe five phrases (10 marks). In section 6, students were required to find and correct errors in the placement of adverbial modifiers in five sentences (five marks). Students had to provide the appropriate verb tense formation for verbs in five sentences in section seven (4 Marks). Students achieving a total mark of 80 or more were deemed to have passed the usage component of COM0101.

Procedures for Re-Testing Students at the Completion of Sentence Structure Courses

Procedures for re-testing students at the completion of their sentence structure course also varied according to the tutor taking the course. Tutor 1 required students to complete a sentence combining activity (see Appendix L). Students had to combine the ideas and sentences in a given text using adjectival and adverbial modifiers, coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, transitional
words and phrases, and other cohesive ties, to create a cohesive and coherent text consisting of between four and five paragraphs. Students were allowed three one-hour sessions to draft, revise, and edit their texts. The students' texts were read by the tutor who identified discontinuities in the flow of the text. The discontinuities were then analysed to discover the source of the error. Serious discontinuities were given a score of three and minor discontinuities a score of one. In order to pass the sentence structure component of COM0101, students were required to achieve a score of six or less.

Students attending the sentence structure workshops run by Tutor 2 were required to sit a 45 minute test consisting of four sections (see Appendix M). The four sections were worth a total of 100 marks. In section 1, students were asked to identify the predicates of five sentences (10 marks). In section 2, students were asked to identify errors and correct the placement of modifiers in 8 sentences (36 marks). In section 3, students were given eight examples in which they were asked to use coordinating and subordinating conjunctions to combine two sentences into a single sentence (24 marks). In section 4, students were asked to identify and correct the ambiguities contained in 10 sentences (30 marks). Students achieving a total mark of 80 or more were deemed to have passed the sentence structure component of COM0101.
Discussion

In the following section of this chapter, the Faculty of Education's assumptions about writing and the teaching of writing are derived from its diagnosis and remediation procedures and then compared to the contemporary perspective on writing and the teaching of writing established in the previous chapter.

Assumptions about Writing Underlying the Faculty of Education's Diagnosis and Remediation Procedures

Despite some inconsistencies in remediation practices arising from the idiosyncratic theoretical perspectives of the COM0101 tutors, the Faculty of Education's view of writing is readily apparent from its testing procedures and the manner in which it organises its remedial writing programme.

Assumptions about Writing Underlying Testing Procedures

There are four assumptions about writing underlying the Faculty of Education's use of the English Skills Assessment:

(a) Coherent writing and, therefore, the assessment of coherence in writing is concerned with surface features.

(b) Students' performances in real writing situations can be assessed by extrapolating from their performances in a test involving the application of a limited range of English skills at the sentence level.
(c) Potential problem areas in students' writing can be identified from their performance in such a test.

(d) Competence in reading is not related to competence in writing in spite of the fact that much of academic writing involves reading-based research. The latter view of writing is shown by the exclusion by the Faculty of the comprehension sections of the English Skills Assessment from its assessment of students' literacy competencies.

Assumptions about Writing Underlying Remediation Procedures

There are four assumptions about writing underlying the Faculty of Education's remediation procedures:

(a) The requirements of academic writing can be met by teaching students how to control the surface features of their writing.

(b) The deficiencies identified in students' control over the surface features of writing, can be remedied by directly teaching students about those features in decontextualised skills-based lessons.

(c) The various aspects of writing can be taught independently of each other.

(d) The teaching of writing is concerned with the product of writing and not the processes involved in writing.
Faculty of Education's Assumptions about Writing Compared to a Contemporary Perspective

There is a significant mismatch between the assumptions underlying the Faculty of Education’s writing diagnosis and remediation procedures and the principles underlying a contemporary, informed perspective of writing. This mismatch is evident when each of the major assumptions underlying the Faculty’s procedures is compared to the contemporary perspective.

Writing is Concerned with Surface Features

As the various linguistic and semantic elements contributing to coherence in writing are elaborated in a later chapter, comment will be brief here. This assumption presents superficial aspects of form as the main concern of writing and not meaning. This view, however, is not commensurate with the purpose of academic writing. Academic writing engages in reasoned and substantiated explanation or argument, the purpose of which is to convey meaning to an audience. In order to convey their meaning effectively, writers organise their ideas at both global and local levels. It is important for academic writers to master all the conventions of writing as even surface level errors can divert the readers’ attention away from their messages. However, the global forms of organisation and deep-level semantic structures are more important than the local forms for the successful transmission of meaning. For example, spelling or punctuation errors, or errors in usage or in
the structure of individual sentences are unlikely, in isolation from other problems, to render an entire text incomprehensible. In contrast, writing that lacks a clear focus or an organisational format appropriate to a particular purpose can be incomprehensible to a reader.

Students' Real Writing Performances Match their Performances in Skills-Based English Tests

The extent to which students' performances in the English Skills Assessment in spelling, punctuation and capitalisation, usage, and sentence structure match their performances in the same categories in their assignment writing is dealt with in part two of the study.

The Problems Identified by a Skills-Based English Test Match the Problems that Students' Manifest in Writing

Assessments that deal with the surface features of writing exclusively are ignoring important aspects of writing which often cause problems for novice writers. These aspects of writing are far more important to conveying meaning successfully than the aspects of writing related skills tested by the portions of the English Skills Assessment used by the Faculty for assessing students' writing competencies. The extent to which there is a match between the students, identified as having problems in the technical and mechanical aspects of their writing by the English Skills Assessment test, and the students who also experience more global problems in their real writing is the subject of the
second part of the study.

Competence in Reading is Not Related to Competence Writing

There is no evidence that the aspects of reading performance measured by the two comprehension components of the English Skills Assessment test reflect the aspects of reading required to carry out the reading-based research that underpins much of the academic writing that undergraduates are required to carry out as part of their course assessments. The reading comprehension components of the test, as they are conducted in isolation from writing, also may not be a very accurate measure of the reading-writing relationship. However, the Faculty of Education's elimination of these tests from the procedures it uses to assess its students' literacy competencies for pragmatic reasons rather than because it has evidence to show that the tests are inadequate, indicates that the Faculty does not recognise sufficiently the important part that reading plays in successful academic writing. This lack of recognition persists despite the considerable body of research (Crismore, 1982; Hiebert, Englert & Brennan, 1983; Flood, 1984; Flood & Lapp 1986; Raphael, Englert & Kirschner, 1989) which indicates that reading provides the content and language structures for writing and that writing provides the structures for organising and assimilating information from reading. The Faculty's position also ignores the research evidence (Baker, 1979;
Stein 1985; Landis, 1990; Peters, 1990) which indicates that many of the problems students have with writing arise from an inadequate conceptual base. Students have not understood the content of their reading and, therefore, find it difficult to write about the content in a coherent fashion.

**Teaching Academic Writing Involves Teaching Students Control Over Surface Features**

Surface feature writing errors such as punctuation, grammar, and sentence structure are often manifestations of deeper problems to do with understanding and organising ideas at the global level (Stein, 1985). Students, who lack control over the content of their assignments, tend to fill them with direct quotes and paraphrased text. These students depend heavily on their source materials for their writing as they are unable to synthesise what they have read and apply the understandings derived from that synthesis to their writing in order to meet the needs of an assignment task. Their writing often appears purposeless and lacking in a clear focus. Students lack control over the subject matter and, therefore, lack control over their writing at all levels. Ideas are poorly developed and paragraphs and sentences are poorly structured. Often markers return these assignments to students pointing out a myriad of errors in expression and syntax. However, the students' problems will not be solved by teaching them about the appropriate placement of
modifiers, or about verb tense and agreement. To resolve many of the problems that students are exhibiting at the paragraph and sentence levels, students will need to be taught strategies and organisational structures which will give them control over the content of their writing. Limiting the teaching of writing to the mechanical and technical or surface features of language can cause difficulties particularly when dealing with weaker students. Focusing on these aspects of language can distract students from concentrating on the purpose of writing which is to create and communicate meaning. Teaching students about the mechanical and technical aspects of their writing will help stronger students to fine tune their work in the editing stages. However, the latter will only be of benefit if the underlying coherence of the writing is already established.

Writing Can be Taught in Decontextualised Skills-Based Lessons

Eighty years of research into the teaching of grammar reported earlier shows the relative purposelessness of decontextualised skills-based lessons.

Aspects of Writing can be Taught Independently of Each Other

Even the limited aspects of writing taught by the Faculty of Education in the remedial writing programme are taught independently of each other. The difficulties inherent in this approach are obvious when considering the
relationship between punctuation and sentence structure. Punctuation cannot be dealt with separately from sentence structure as punctuation deals with meaning. When the underlying sentence is intact, it can be punctuated appropriately. Students' sentences are unclear and often ambiguous because they write sentences that are too long, that contain too many ideas which are inadequately explained. There is often also a problem with punctuation as it is difficult to punctuate sentences to enhance their meaning where the meaning does not already possess the potential to be clear.

The Teaching of Writing is Concerned with Products and not Processes

Often problems occur in student's writing because they are unaware of the processes of successful academic writing. Therefore, if the problems are to be rectified, the processes of successful academic writing also need to be taught.

Placing the emphasis on the teaching of the processes of writing also highlights the importance of students understanding the context in which they are operating, for example, the meaning of an assignment question, and of the need of the Faculty to clearly explicate this context.

Deficiencies in the Current Operations of COM0101

In addition to the inadequacies of the assumptions
underlying the present procedures for assessing and remediating writing difficulties, there are also a number of structural and organisational difficulties in the operations of COM0101 which affect its ability to make a positive contribution to the literacy development of students.

These problems, elaborated on below, relate to: (a) inadequate staffing, (b) limited student commitment, and (c) the limited relationship of COM0101 to other units.

**Staffing**

Problems with respect to the staffing of COM0101 relate to: (a) continuity of staffing, (a) expertise of staff, and (c) the lack of common direction and purpose.

**Continuity of Staff**

COM0101 has traditionally been staffed in two ways: Firstly, staff who have a low lecturing load may be asked to assist by taking workshops or lecturing in the unit. Secondly, sessional staff are employed on a semester-by-semester basis to tutor and run workshops in the unit. The system, by which the unit is staffed, leads to a lack of staff continuity as lecturers who are taking the unit in one semester because of low lecture loads, may not be available in another semester. Similarly, sessional staff may also vary from semester to semester. The lack of staff continuity leads to a lack of planning which in turn is reflected in haphazard and inconsistent programmes.
**Expertise**

Generally, staff taking components of COM0101 lack an understanding of the students' writing needs and the best way to meet them. Permanent employees of the University are allocated teaching responsibilities in COM0101 because of their availability rather than because they have a particular expertise in the area of tertiary literacy. Sessional staff are also selected largely on the basis of their availability. The Faculty of Education, in general, and the Department of Communications Education, specifically, have been experiencing problems with finding suitably trained staff to run all their courses. All the sessional staff involved in the teaching of COM0101 are primary-trained teachers. With the exception of one tutor who was carrying out post-graduate study in an area of tertiary literacy, none of the sessional staff had any particular expertise or understanding of the writing needs of tertiary level students. The lack of expertise of staff was revealed in the opinion that was often expressed by two of the three tutors involved in the teaching of COM0101, and the course coordinator, that these students had missed out on a "few rules" whilst at school and any deficiencies in their writing would be overcome by teaching them those rules.

**Common Aims and Objectives**

Staff in the unit also lacked common goals and direction
with respect to the content and objectives of the unit. Sessional staff were given no guidance as to what content they should teach, how they should teach it, and how they should assess the students' progress. The only information given to staff was the names of the students and the area(s) of writing in which the students were identified as being deficient by the English Skills Assessment test. There was also very little coordination between staff regarding the content and delivery of programmes. Tutors were employed on an hourly basis to take a set number of classes. They were not paid to take part in planning and organisation. Consequently, most planning occurred on an individual and on a weekly basis without regard to over-arching aims and long-term goals. The lack of coordination and planning led to large variations in content and expectations for the same components of COM0101 from different tutors. For example, in the usage component of COM0101, Tutor 2 passed all but six of her 51 students, whereas Tutor 1 passed only 13 of her 79 students.

**Student Commitment**

A number of factors also affected the seriousness with which students applied themselves towards meeting the requirements of COM0101. These relate to the process used to select the students for the remedial classes and the fact that COM0101 is a non-award unit.
Selection by Failure

The present selection process used for COM0101 relies on selection by failure. This process engenders a high degree of antagonism among students selected to participate in COM0101. Students, who have passed 12 years of schooling and who in some cases have received high marks in English and English Literature, suddenly find that their competencies in one or more aspect of writing are judged as deficient. All tutors and lecturers in COM0101 have reported antagonism and hostility from a significant number of students attending their classes.

Non-Award Status of COM0101

Not only do teaching staff have to contend with antagonism from students, but as COM0101 is a non-award unit, lecturers and tutors also find it very difficult to engender any serious commitment to learning from many of the participants. Staff report sporadic attendance at classes particularly as the pressure for students to meet assignment deadlines in other units builds up over the semester. As there are no marks or graded compulsory assignments involved, usually the first unit to be neglected is COM0101. As has been previously stated, students are expected to pass COM0101 prior to being admitted to the third year of their course. However, this extended time frame contributes to the lackadaisical approach taken by some students towards COM0101. Students repeatedly ignore notices from the course
coordinator because they believe they have a year and a half before they have to pass COM0101. Many students do not contact their lecturers or tutors until almost the end of second semester in the second year of the course. This causes more antagonism and arguments between staff and students. Students claim that they were not informed that their attendance at classes was compulsory. However, sessional staff do not have sufficient time to deal adequately with these students' perceived problems as their contracts are, by this stage, almost finished. Students become agitated because they are faced with the prospect of not being able to enrol in the third year of their course.

**Relationship to Other Units**

The antagonism towards the unit is further exacerbated by the fact that often the expectations set for passing COM0101 bear very little relationship to the expectations set in other units. This is evidenced by students who are not only passing assignments in other units but in some cases they are receiving credit grades although they have not yet passed COM0101. This situation causes frustration among students and contributes to their perception of COM0101 as a unit which seems to serve no relevant purpose.

**Summary**

This chapter described and analysed, from a contemporary perspective, the procedures used by the Faculty of
Education at Edith Cowan University to assess and remediate the writing needs of its first year Bachelor of Arts (Education) students. The results of the analysis show the assumptions underlying the procedures used by the Faculty to assess and remediate its students' writing difficulties are seriously flawed when compared with the principles of the successful teaching of academic writing derived from a contemporary conceptualisation of writing and the teaching of writing. The main assumptions about writing and the teaching of writing underlying the Faculty's procedures are that writing is concerned with surface features and that the teaching of writing involves giving students control over those surface features. However, the Faculty has ignored, or is unaware of, the considerable body of evidence which shows the strong interconnections between the surface correctness of writing and the writers' control over meaning. This evidence shows further that students' writing cannot be assessed adequately using decontextualised, skills-based tests and that the development of students' writing will be limited if writing is taught in decontextualised skills-based lessons.

The procedures used at present by the Faculty of Education to remediate perceived difficulties in students' writing may be hampering its students' literacy development. Writing is presented in COM0101 as a set of facts to be learned and mechanical processes to
be applied instead of as the development, refinement and the communication of thought. It was established in chapter 2 that one of the features which distinguishes novice writers from expert writers is their behaviour when revising. Novices make few alterations to the semantic content of their text and spend most of their time attending to technical aspects of their work such as spelling and punctuation. Experts on the other hand will make substantial changes to the content of their text to achieve better their own goals for writing and/or to produce a better effect on their audiences. Rather than showing students the relationships that exist in written language, and developing the reading/writing/thinking connection, the current model for the remediation of writing difficulties in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University, reinforces the writing behaviours of novices and hampers students' development into expert writers.

It has been established that the Faculty of Education's remedial writing unit COM0101 is limited because of the flawed assumptions upon which it is based. In this chapter a number of problems arising from the manner in which COM0101 is currently organised have been described. These problems include the way in which the unit is staffed, the attitudes of students towards the unit, and the relationship of COM0101 to other units. These factors further limit the usefulness of COM0101.
CHAPTER 4

REVIEW OF LITERATURE: THE CHARACTERISTICS OF COHERENT WRITING

This chapter has three major purposes. The first purpose is to examine linguistic and semantic elements in writing which contribute to writing quality and text coherence. In particular, the relationship between cohesion, coherence, and writing quality are explored. The reason for exploring this relationship is to establish the difference between the textual properties of cohesion and coherence. These terms are often used interchangeably in the literature rendering their application to the analysis of discourse difficult.

The second purpose is to establish the characteristics of academic writing which may differ from other forms of writing.

The third purpose is to develop a model portraying the major factors contributing to the writing of coherent academic essays. In a subsequent chapter, the components of the model are used to develop a marking key. The marking key is applied in an analysis of students' responses to a research essay assignment in order to identify areas where students are experiencing difficulty with their writing. The areas of difficulty identified in students' essay writing are then compared to the areas of writing difficulty identified by the English Skills Assessment test.
Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion

Cohesion is an intersentential property of text and is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as the linguistic features that help make a sequence of sentences a text. Linguistic devices, called cohesive ties, help link ideas within and across sentences (Chapman, 1983; Speigel & Fitzgerald, 1990). Cohesion is achieved through the use of referential relationships in which the interpretation of one idea in the text depends on the successful interpretation of another (Halliday & Hassan, 1976; Fahnestock, 1983). Consider the following sentences:

Mary went to school. She took her lunch with her.

In the second sentence the pronouns "she" and "her" have been substituted for the noun "Mary". The successful interpretation of the meaning of "she" and "her" in the second sentence requires the reader to refer back to the previous sentence. The use of pronominal substitutions in the second sentence has provided links back to the first sentence.

Cohesion may also be viewed as a redundancy which links one sentence or part of the sentence to another (Moe and Irwin, 1986; Cox, Shanahan, & Sulzby, 1990). Cohesive ties are devices in the text which writers can use to exploit the potential of readers to be able to render repeated visual information redundant. For example, a
writer may in a subsequent sentence group a number of related concepts into one superordinate category instead of repeating the same information contained in a previous sentence. This is illustrated in the following two sentences, where the substitution of "these factors" acts as a superordinate category which subsumes the concepts of soil, temperature, rainfall and humidity.

The nature of the soil, temperature, rainfall, and humidity were all important in determining the success of the project. These factors led to the plant's spectacular growth.

Cohesive ties are one of the devices, signalling relationships within a text, which writers use to provide their writing with texture, i.e., a sense of connectedness. These devices are important writing tools that can help change a collection of sentences, loosely related by topic, into flowing discourse. Two sentences cohere if some element in one sentence cannot be understood without recourse to another; such reference is usually anaphoric, looking back to the previous sentence, but occasionally it can be cataphoric, looking forward. Halliday and Hassan (1976) identify five basic sources of cohesion (a) reference, which includes many types of pronouns, (b) substitution, which involves the replacement of one word with another, (c) ellipsis, which involves the omission of a repeated word or phrase, (d) conjunction, which includes additive, adversative, and temporal links, and (e) lexical cohesion, which includes
reiteration, i.e., the repetition of words and phrases, and collocation, i.e., co-occurrences of words which regularly co-occur in the language or a specific semantic domain (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Sources of Cohesion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>The results of the study were significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They indicate a strong positive relationship between the age of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>questionnaire respondents and their understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Dogs and cats showed similar reactions when tested. Both animals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reacted to the light.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>There were three important factors contributing to the development of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the shearers' strike in 1891.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The first... was the leadership of William Lane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>War broke out before either side had consolidated their positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Reiteration</td>
<td>Neither of the two interpretations were supported by the text. The</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>first interpretation... The second interpretation...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Collocation</td>
<td>Each unit cost 49 cents to produce. The units were subsequently sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for two dollars.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coherence

In contrast to cohesion which operates within and between
sentences, coherence is perceived as a global property of text (Bamberg, 1984; van Dijk, 1980; Hasan 1984). It is the overall discourse property of unity, or how well a text holds together (Fahnestock, 1983; Spiegel & Fitzgerald 1990). A text holds together because the concepts in the text are subsumed within a global meaning reflecting the writer’s purposes for writing (van Dijk, 1980). Van Dijk (1980) argues that to be coherent a text’s propositions (microstructures) must be linked together into a network that establishes the global meaning (macrostructure) of the text. The coherence of a text is a reflection of how well the author has been able to achieve both a unity and sequence of ideas. Any writing that lacks coherence will almost certainly fail to communicate its intended message to the reader. The importance to coherence of overall plan, structure, or schema is emphasised by many theorists and researchers (Bamberg, 1984; Mosenthal & Tierney, 1984; McKenna, 1988; van Dijk, 1980). In addition, many theorists view coherence as partly residing in the reader’s mind. That is, coherence does not arise solely from textual factors but also from the reader’s own schemata and expectations (Bamberg, 1984; Mosenthal & Tierney, 1984; Spiegel and Fitzgerald, 1990).

The Relationship Between Cohesion and Coherence

Both the nature of the relationship between coherence and cohesion, and the usefulness of cohesion analysis as an
index of textual coherence have been the subject of considerable debate among reading and writing researchers. Views vary between those who believe that cohesion is the basis for coherence (Hasan, 1984) and those who believe that cohesion is the linguistic consequence of coherence (Carrell, 1982).

This section of the chapter: (a) explores the relationship between the level of use of cohesive ties and text coherency, (b) examines the contribution of different cohesive devices to cohesion, (c) considers the debate concerning the relationship between cohesion and coherence from the perspective of schema theory, and (d) concludes with a redefinition of the terms cohesion and coherence.

Cohesive Ties: Level of Use and Text Coherency

Tierney and Mosenthal (1983) examined the essays of grade twelve students and found that cohesive ties are pervasive in all texts, ranging from coherent to incoherent. Their study showed that a simple statistical accounting of cohesive ties can not be used as an index or predictor of a text's coherence. Some of the incoherent essays contained many cohesive ties and some contained relatively few. Similarly, some highly coherent essays contained many cohesive ties and others relatively few. Consequently, they were unable to establish a pattern in the number of cohesive ties used and text coherency.
The findings from Tierney and Mosenthal's study are supported by studies conducted by Roen and Piché (1984) and Neuner (1987). Neuner (1987) found that cohesive ties could not be used to distinguish good and poor writing among college freshmen. Roen and Piché (1984) found that micro-level cohesive devices did not enhance the discourse coherence of college students. Both studies were unable again to demonstrate a direct relationship between the level of use of cohesive ties and text coherency.

The findings of these three studies were unable to prove the assertion that cohesive ties facilitate comprehension. Instead they give support to a view, expressed by Carrell (1982), that, rather than surface-level linking structures being the cause of coherence, they are a symptom of the underlying coherence of the writers' text knowledge and topic knowledge. Thus, it may be reasonable to suggest that overall text/topic comprehension may be the cause of the recognition of cohesive ties by readers rather than the cohesive ties being the primary factor in the level of text comprehension.

Types of Cohesive Devices and Text Coherence

Counting of the number of cohesive devices used by writers does not provide a useful means of predicting text coherence. However, some cohesive devices are believed to be more important to cohesion and ultimately
Fahnestock (1983) believes that Halliday and Hasan's fifth category, that of conjunctions, is more important to cohesion than the other categories because of their importance to the making of meaning. Rather than deriving cohesion from lexical items in the surface structure of sentences, conjunctions relate meaning over several sentences. Fahnestock equates Halliday and Hasan's use of the term conjunctions to the term transitions. There are numerous systems (see table 4.2 for one of the systems) used to categorise transitional words and phrases and there is also, within each system, a considerable overlap between the categories. Transitional words and phrases signal relationships between sentences where semantic relationships already exist.

Cohesive ties, in the form of transitional words and phrases, not only operate at the sentence but also at the paragraph and inter-paragraph levels. At the inter-paragraph level, cohesive ties are often used in conjunction with paraphrased reiterations of the main idea of the previous paragraph.

McCulley (1985) investigated the relationship among features of textual cohesion and the writing quality and coherence of 17 year old students. McCulley reports that his study supports the conclusions of a previous study conducted by Witte and Faigley (1981) in which it was
Table 4.2

Transitional Words and Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affirmation</td>
<td>in fact, actually, indeed, certainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negation</td>
<td>nevertheless, on the contrary, notwithstanding, on the other hand, despite still, however, but, conversely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td>although, though, granted that, no doubt, to be sure, whereas, of course, doubtless, certainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illustration</td>
<td>for example, for instance, to illustrate, in particular, specifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>and, also, moreover, or (nor), furthermore, next, again, too, second, third, etc., another, finally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>frequently, often, usually, in general, in case, occasionally, provided, unless, when, because, since, for, if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summation</td>
<td>therefore, thus, in conclusion, to sum up, so, consequently, all in all, in short, on the whole, in other words, then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>then, after, since, before, when, whenever, until, as soon as, as long as, in (1989), at (the end of term)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note  Classifications for transitional words and phrases derived from Neman (1983).

found that three cohesive features: lexical synonyms,
hyponyms\textsuperscript{1}, and collocations\textsuperscript{2} contribute most to judgements of writing quality and coherence.

**Writing for Readers**

Fulcher (1989) believes that the disagreement among the researchers is fundamentally theoretical and not empirical. He states that critics of Halliday and Hasan are "upset" not because of the suggestion that cohesion exists or that it is related to coherence, but that Halliday and Hasan have claimed that cohesion is the basis for coherence.

Schema-theoretic or concept-driven explanations of the reading process view a reader's mental representation as the emergent product of the interaction between text-based information and pre-existing knowledge (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Rumelhart, 1984). Schema theorists believe that the coherence of a text comes first, and cohesion is a linguistic consequence. In their view, readers assume coherence and so make sense of cohesion.

\textsuperscript{1}Hyponymy refers to two entities belonging to the same semantic set within the context of a particular text. For example, bird and dog may be viewed as hyponymous because they belong to the same set animals within the context of a text.

\textsuperscript{2}Collocation: a type of cohesion in which one lexical element is related to a previous one through frequent co-occurrence in similar contexts by:
1. Association with a particular topic (e.g., Goodman, whole language, psycholinguistics, meaning)
2. Opposition or contrast (e.g., influence/counter-influence)
3. Membership in ordered sets
4. Membership in unordered sets
Halliday and Hassan have been, by implication, characterised as belonging to the data driven camp because they believe "cohesion to be the foundation of coherence" (Hasan, 1984, p.181).

However, in the interactive view of reading comprehension, readers vary their focus along a continuum from primarily text-based processing, concentrating on getting the writer's message straight, to primarily reader-based processing, concentrating on what the author's message ought to be. This variation in focus is determined by a number of interconnected factors: reader purpose, topic familiarity, interest and motivation, and discourse type and complexity (Stanovich, 1980). Meaning arises from a reader's effort to construct meaning and to integrate the details in the text into a coherent whole.

Coherence is an aspect not only of texts as written, but also of texts as read. Readers fill in any gaps in the text with inferences and combine the textual elements into a coherent representation. Irwin (1986) argues that the degree to which a reader will have to engage in text-based processing will depend on a reader's expectations and prior knowledge. The reader's prior knowledge will, in turn, determine the importance of textual cues.

Bamberg (1983) believes that failures in coherence are contributed to by writers undercuing i.e., providing too few cues for readers to be able to perceive relationships between the text or because they miscue, thus, giving
the reader conflicting or misleading cues.

Cohesion and Coherence Redefined

The importance of the work of Tierney and others considered in previous sections is not that it negates the work of Halliday and Hasan but rather that it shows that the relationship between cohesion and coherence is complex and coherence cannot be arrived at simply by a simple statistical accounting of ties within a single text.

A synthesis of the research to date seems to indicate that cohesion and coherence are related but different properties of text. The research shows that although cohesion is not a sufficient condition for coherence, cohesive ties do contribute to the coherence of a text, and that some forms of cohesive ties, particularly those which embody semantic relations in a text, are more important than others. However, whilst it appears that the use of cohesive ties at the local level contribute to readers being able to construct a coherent representation of a text particularly in the case of texts where the reader's background knowledge is limited, coherence is a much more global function of the text.

It appears from the literature that the fundamental prerequisite for a coherent text is that the writer has an adequate conceptual or content base for his/her writing.

A second prerequisite for a coherent text is that the
writer has a clear purpose for writing. The view that textual coherence is largely the function of the clarity of authors' purpose and a strong organisational structure to carry out that purpose is supported by Mckenna's (1988) study examining some of the variables involved in the production of coherent text by incoming college freshman. The coherence of students' texts was determined using Bamberg's (1984) scale of text coherence. Six variables which McKenna believed would determine the presence of coherence in a text were also rated and the results correlated with the ratings for text coherence. The six variables and their definitions appear in Appendix N. She found that intent, context, structure, and focus have similar and high correlations with coherence. In contrast, cohesion was found to have the lowest correlation with coherence.

A third prerequisite for a coherent text is that writers are able to generate structures for systematically organising the content of their writing such that it meets their communicative purpose and the needs of their audience. This systematic organisation will contain a macrostructure which equates to a superordinate framework for the overall text. The superordinate framework organises the content of the writing into major divisions. Within each of the major divisions other macrostructures organise the content at the paragraph cluster and paragraph level.

In summary, coherence in writing is a global quality
which arises from the writer's understanding of the content and her/his systematic communication of that content to an audience using organisational formats which meet her/his purpose for writing and the needs of her/his audience. At the local level, writers provide textual cues as to the relationships that exist between the ideas contained in their texts through the use of cohesive devices. The relationships between these ideas are available and useful to the reader because they have already been established by the way in which the text has been structured and organised to present these ideas. Thus, whilst textual cues can assist readers in reconstructing the main ideas of the text, texts which lack adequate conceptual or content bases cannot be made coherent through the use of textual cues. That is, semantic relationships cannot be expressed where they do not exist.

The Characteristics of Academic Writing

The main feature of academic writing which separates it from other forms of writing is that it consists of reasoned and substantiated explanation or argument. The substantiation for statements or propositions made can take two forms: (a) data which have been collected by the writer and offered as evidence, and (b) the use of references to show that the idea being proposed has some currency in the general community or in the specialist community to which the writer belongs (Burdess, 1991; Osland et. al. 1991).
Academic writing differs from high school writing in its purpose (Donald, 1988; Meyer 1988). The purpose of high school writing is to explore ideas. The purpose of academic writing is to communicate a message. The focus of the former involves writers using their writing to make connections between various ideas and to develop a synthesized conclusion. The focus of the latter is to take the synthesized conclusion and to argue or explain it to an audience (Flower, 1989b; Flower, 1989c). Therefore, academic writing must be more structured towards meeting the needs of an audience.

**The Characteristics of Successful Academic Writing**

Successful academic writers organise their writing at a global and a local level to help convey their meaning. At the global level, data are presented in a sequence governed by logic and/or time in a manner which is consistent with the writers' purposes as well as the needs of their audiences. At the local level, writers provide textual cues to guide readers in their construction of text meaning. The less explicit the cues in the written text, the greater the demands placed upon the reader. Consequently, skilled writers provide textual cues to guide the reader in constructing a meaning which reflects the authors' purposes.

Successful academic writing exhibits two main features (a) the purposeful structuring and organising of content at the whole text, paragraph cluster, and paragraph levels, i.e., coherence, and (b) the
deliberate use of linguistic devices to signal the relationships between ideas contained in the text, i.e., cohesion.

The Structural and Organisational Features of Coherent Academic Writing

The content of coherent, academic writing is organised at three levels (a) superordinate, (b) the paragraph cluster, and (c) the paragraph.

Organisation at the superordinate level. The superordinate level of text organisation is the level that can most readily be identified with the notion of global coherence. At the overall discourse level an appropriate organisational framework, reflecting the author's purpose for writing, is used. The organisational framework will help the writer categorise and organise the information into an appropriate sequence reflecting logic and/or time order. Different purposes will generate different organisational frameworks. At most universities, students are required to respond to written assignment tasks using one of two organisational frameworks: the academic essay or the report. An academic essay may be distinguished from a report in that the ideas contained in an essay are integrated through the use of continuous prose. In contrast, the ideas contained in a report are presented under a series of discrete headings and sub-headings. Whereas the relationships between ideas in an academic essay are
clearly signalled, the relationship between ideas across the headings and sub-headings in a report need not necessarily be signalled.

As well as choosing between the report and essay frameworks, students may also have to select a form from within those frameworks which is appropriate to the task set and which is appropriate to their purposes for writing. For example, three different forms of reports undergraduate students are asked to write at Edith Cowan University appear in Appendix O, P, and Q. The forms vary according to whether the purpose of the report is to investigate a situation, describe and analyse a situation, or to outline some form of action to be taken in response to a problem.

In the case of an academic essay, the overall organising framework remains the same irrespective of whether the task set is to argue, discuss, contrast, and so on. The framework (see Figure 4.1) of an academic essay consists of:

1. An introduction which sets the broad context for the essay and leads to the focus, theme, or thesis of the essay. The introduction contains relevant background material which establishes the importance of the topic.

2. A focus statement which, given the context established by the introduction, clarifies the particular purpose for writing. The focus statement outlines the scope of the essay and delineates the main segments of the discussion, explanation, or argument.
Figure 4.1

The Framework of an Academic Essay

INTRODUCTION

• Sets the broad context for the essay.
• Contains relevant background information.
• Establishes the importance of the topic.
• Leads to the focus statement.

FOCUS STATEMENT

• Clarifies the purpose for writing.
• Outlines the scope of the essay.
• Delineates the main segments of the discussion, explanation, or argument.

ELABORATION

Main Point 1

Main Point 2

Main Point 3

• Series of paragraphs and/or paragraph clusters which elaborate on the main points contained in the focus statement.

CONCLUSION

• Purpose is to tie ideas contained in the essay together.
• Should not contain new material.
• Most often contain a summary of the main ideas linked back to the focus statement or an evaluation statement.
3. A main body, consisting of an orderly sequence of paragraph clusters and paragraphs which elaborate on the main points contained in the focus statement.

4. A conclusion which ties the ideas contained in an essay together. The conclusion usually contains a summary of the main ideas linked back to the focus statement or an evaluation statement.

An academic essay can be thought of as a hierarchy of main ideas. At the uppermost level is an overall main idea which reflects the writer's purpose for writing. Support for the overall main idea or an explanation of the overall main idea is then expressed in a number of sub-ideas which are explored in paragraphs or paragraph clusters. Within each paragraph or paragraph cluster a sub-idea is further developed, explained, refined, and illustrated.

Organisation at the paragraph cluster level. A paragraph cluster consists of a number of paragraphs dealing with a single idea. The purpose of a paragraph cluster is to elaborate on a main idea that is too complex to be dealt with in a single paragraph. The main idea or topic of the paragraph cluster is usually expressed in general terms in the first paragraph. The subsequent paragraphs then either deal with the topic in increasingly more specific terms or each of the subsequent paragraphs deals with a part of the main idea expressed as sub-main idea (see Figure 4.2).
Figure 4.2

Two Types of Paragraph Clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC PARAGRAPH</th>
<th>TOPIC PARAGRAPH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General statements used to outline main idea.</td>
<td>General statements used to segment main idea into a number of sub-main points.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELABORATIONS</th>
<th>SUB-POINT 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main idea explained in detail.</td>
<td>Explained and illustrated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATION(S)</th>
<th>SUB-POINT 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example(s) of the practical application of the main idea are outlined.</td>
<td>Explained and illustrated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUB-POINT 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explained and illustrated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organisation at the paragraph level. A paragraph consists of an idea which is explained or supported and sometimes illustrated. Well organised paragraphs in academic writing should contain the following (see figure 4.3):

1. A topic sentence in which the main idea of the sentence is expressed as a generalisation. The place of the topic sentence can vary, but in paragraphs that are not introductory, the topic sentence ordinarily occurs at or near the beginning. In the case of introductory paragraphs, subsidiary sentences are often used to lead the reader to the main idea or topic.

2. Explanatory sentences in which the meaning of the generalisation expressed in the topic sentence is elaborated on, explained, and/or supported.

3. An illustration in which the practical application of the generalisation is shown by reference to an example.

Paragraphs in expository writing are characterised by increasing specificity. That is, they move from the general to the specific thus increasingly refining the reader's understanding.

The Features of Cohesive Academic Writing

As well as providing readers with an underlying coherent framework, writers provide readers with cues that help them connect the ideas expressed in the major divisions,
Three Elements of a Good Expository Paragraph

A TOPIC SENTENCE
A main idea expressed as a generalisation.

AN EXPLANATION
The meaning of the generalisation is elaborated on and explained.

AN ILLUSTRATION
The application of the generalisation is shown by example.

i.e., paragraphs and paragraph clusters, of the essay.

Sequencing ideas across paragraphs. Interparagraph cohesion is achieved through the writers' use of restatement and transitional devices. Sentences beginning a new paragraph in expository writing can often include old material as well as new material. The old material is necessary to provide continuity of thought and to prevent confusion. The new material is needed to develop ideas and to avoid monotony. The old ideas and new ideas are related through the use of transitional words and phrases. Transitional devices help writers not only tie ideas together but also point to particular relationships between the writer's ideas thereby cuing the reader to expect certain kinds of information to
follow. For example, the following paragraph beginning mentions not only the content of a previous paragraph, but also signals that the information contained in the present paragraph will provide an alternate point of view.

Although the economic arguments favouring mining at Coronation Hill are numerous, they are far outweighed by the social and environmental costs that would be incurred should mining proceed.

Although is the signalling word which indicates that a different point of view is about to be presented and the economic arguments favouring mining at Coronation Hill are numerous represents a paraphrased reiteration of the content of the previous paragraph(s).

**Sequencing ideas within paragraphs.** Relationships between ideas within paragraphs, between sentences, and within sentences are established through the use of transitional words and phrases, and through the use of cohesive devices such as, reference, substitution, and ellipsis. The set of transitional words that can be used within sentences to show relationships is greater than the set that can be used across sentences or across paragraphs because the set includes conjunctions such as, because, but, and, and so on, which, by convention, cannot be used at the beginning of sentences.

**Summary**

The purpose of this chapter has been to outline some of
the characteristics of successful writing. The definitions and roles of cohesion and coherence in successful writing have been considered and the relationships between these two aspects of text have been explored. As there is much confusion surrounding the use of these terms, coherence and cohesion have been redefined. Coherence is seen to be the global property of unity of a text which arises out of the purposeful structuring and organising of content successively at the whole text, paragraph cluster, and paragraph level. In contrast, cohesion is seen to be a property of text operating at the sentence and inter-sentence levels arising out of the deliberate use of various linguistic devices to indicate relationships between ideas between and within sentences.

The features of coherent and cohesive essays have also been discussed. The structural and organisational features of coherent essays have been outlined. The structure of a coherent essay is described as a hierarchy of main ideas. To achieve this hierarchy, it has been argued that the content of coherent essays is organised at three levels (a) the overall text, (b) the paragraph cluster, and (c) the paragraph. At the uppermost level is an overall main idea which reflects the writer's purpose. Support for the main idea or an explanation of the overall main idea is then expressed in a number of sub-ideas which are organised into paragraph clusters and paragraphs.
The cues that writers provide to help readers connect the ideas in essays together have also been outlined. In particular, the writer's use of restatement and transitional words and phrases are felt to make an important contribution towards a cohesive essay.
The second part of this study involved a comparison of students' performances in an assignment requiring an essay response, carried out by students as a normal part of their course work, with their performances in the English Skills Assessment test. The purpose of the second part of the study was twofold: Firstly, to investigate the usefulness of the English Skills Assessment as a screening test for writing difficulties by establishing whether it (a) identified the students who are likely to experience problems in their essay writing, and (b) identified all the areas in which students experienced problems in their essay writing. Secondly, if the English Skills Assessment test proved to be inadequate, to establish if the evaluation of an assignment essay, carried out by students as a normal part of their course work, provided an alternative means by which students could be screened for writing difficulties.

Population

The sample was derived from the population comprised of first year students enrolled in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University in the first semester of 1991. The sample initially was to be comprised of all the first year primary and secondary teacher education students attending the Mount Lawley Campus of the Edith
Cowan University. However, there was a mismatch between the number of people sitting the English Skills Assessment Test: 460 and the number who completed the assignment: 492. Even though the total number of students who completed the assignment was greater than the number completing the English Skills Assessment, the final sample did not include all the 460 students. Some students were repeating first year and had sat the English Skills Assessment test the previous year. These students were included in the assignment numbers and not the English Skills Assessment numbers. Other students were enrolled in second year but were taking the English Skills Assessment test for the first time. The latter students were included in the English Skills Assessment totals but not in the assignment totals. The final sample, used for comparison, included 426 first year primary and secondary teacher education students enrolled at Mount Lawley Campus.

Research Instruments

**English Skills Assessment Test**

The English Skills Assessment test, Part 1 and Part 2 (A.C.E.R, 1982), is a standardised test, which purports to measure competency in identifying logical relationships, correcting spelling errors, correcting punctuation and capitalisation errors, reading comprehension, word usage, and command of sentence structure. A detailed examination of this test appears in chapter 3 which outlines the methodology used and the
results of the first part of this study.

Research-Essay Assignment Writing Task

Validity

The purpose of the investigation carried out in part II of the study was to compare students' performances in the English Skills Assessment test with their performances in real, academic writing situations. The possibility of asking students to participate in a separate essay writing exercise and using their performance in this task as a basis for comparison, was considered and rejected. It was considered that the artificiality of the task and the consequent lack of student motivation would affect the validity of using the task as a measure of students' writing ability in an academic context. Therefore, it was decided to measure students' writing performances in an assignment requiring an essay response. An assignment requiring an essay response was chosen as most Faculty of Education staff prefer students to use an essay format for assignments requiring extended writing. As the essay was assessable and already part of students' coursework, problems involving motivation and application to the task were minimised. An assignment common to all first year primary and secondary teacher education students was identified in the first semester core unit Education 1100. An assessment of students' performances in the second assignment (see Appendix R) in the unit Education 1100, due 13/5/91, was considered to be a
suitable writing task to use in this investigation.

The task was considered suitable because: (a) It involved various attributes of academic writing such as, research and extended writing, (b) the task was common to all students in the sample investigated, and (c) students had a real purpose for carrying out the task since it constituted an assessable part of their course work.

The Research Assignment Marking-Key

The researcher worked with the fourteen members of the Education 1100 lecturing team to develop a suitable marking key (see Appendix S) for the assignment. The marking key was broken down into a number of categories and sub-categories including aspects of structure, organisation, cohesion, grammar, writing conventions, and content. As well as marking the content of the assignments, lecturers were asked to rate as excellent, satisfactory, borderline, or unsatisfactory the level at which the students were operating in each of the writing sub-categories.

Lengthy discussions were held with the marking team about the nature of writing and academic writing. Specific definitions and meanings were established for the various items on the marking key and a marking guide developed to help ensure consistency among markers. The marking guide included: (a) a general description of the ratings, and (b) a description of each item on the marking key and an explanation of how the ratings would be applied to those
Ratings

The general definitions for the four ratings were as follows:

Excellent. Excellent did not equal good but instead equated to perfect or near perfect, e.g., 1 minor mistake was allowed.

Satisfactory. Satisfactory meant a few minor problems in an area of writing. Minor problems in turn were defined as problems which did not interfere with the coherence and cohesion of an essay.

Borderline. Borderline was defined as a generally cohesive and coherent essay with a few larger problems which on occasion interfered with a marker's ability to make sense easily of an essay.

Unsatisfactory. Unsatisfactory meant that it was difficult for the marker to make sense of the essay in terms of the question. An unsatisfactory score in the essay structure category of the marking key could include cohesive and coherent sub-sections, i.e., listings or explanations, which were internally cohesive, dealing with content relevant to the assignment question which however, appear to have no purpose. In other words, the connection between the listings and explanations, and the assignment question was not made explicit in the student's essay.
Items Included in Marking Key

The marking key consisted of 12 variables. The nature of the variables included in the marking key was determined through a process of negotiation between the researcher and the lecturing/marketing team. The researcher wished to include two types of variables in the marking key: (a) those variables, derived from the literature, which appear to contribute significantly to the cohesion and coherence of a text; and (b) those variables which correspond to the variables in the English Skills Assessment test.

The first three variables: essay structure, paragraph sequence, and paragraph structure were felt by the researcher to contribute significantly to the cohesion and coherence of a text and were, therefore, included in the marking key. The four variables sentence structure, usage, spelling, and punctuation were included in the marking key because they correspond to sub-tests in the English Skills Assessment test. These variables needed to be included in the marking key to enable the study to establish if students identified by the English Skills Assessment test as having problems in the areas measured by these variables also manifested the same problems in authentic writing situations. The five variables, consistency of person, consistency in tense, agreement, referencing, and essay length, were included because the lecturers/markers thought that they represented important aspects of academic writing in which students often
display deficiencies.

A description of the variables in the marking key and an explanation of the application of the ratings\(^1\) to each variable follows.

**Essay Structure.** There is an overall organisational framework which directs the student's writing towards meeting the tasks set by the assignment questions. The manner in which responses are constructed focuses on answering the assignment questions in a clear and efficient manner. In the response to each question, the main ideas are introduced, logically developed and concluded.

**Paragraph Sequence.** The paragraphs contained in the response to each question are sequenced by time and/or logic. The student facilitates the marker's integration of her/his ideas across paragraphs through the use of devices such as paraphrased restatements and transitional words and phrases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>= relationships between ideas always clearly signalled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>= on more than 90% of the occasions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borderline</td>
<td>= on more than 75% of the occasions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>= less than 75% of the occasions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) In the grammatical features and technical conventions all repetitions of the same error were treated as a single error when determining a rating except for where otherwise indicated.
**Paragraph Structure.** Students structure their paragraphs around a main idea expressed as a general statement. The rest of the paragraph explains or supports the general statement. Where appropriate, ideas are illustrated through the use of examples. Paragraphs deal with only one main idea and within paragraphs, ideas are sequenced by time and/or logic.

**Excellent**
- Paragraphs dealt with one main idea.
- Main points always clearly stated, explained, and illustrated when required.

**Satisfactory**
- Paragraphs almost always dealt with one main idea. Main points almost always (i.e., >90%) clearly stated, explained, and illustrated when required.

**Borderline**
- Some problems with the clarity and organisation of paragraphs (i.e., 75% - 90%).

**Unsatisfactory**
- A number of problems relating to the clarity and organisation of paragraphs (i.e., <75%).

**Sentence Structure.** Students' writing indicates that they have a good sentence concept. Sentence meanings are clear and unambiguous. Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions are used appropriately. Modifiers are placed appropriately.

**Excellent**
- 0-1 errors
Satisfactory  =  2-4 errors
Borderline   =  5-8 errors
Unsatisfactory = >8 errors

*Usage.* Students are able to follow the conventions of standard written English.

Excellent     =  0-1 errors
Satisfactory  =  2-4 errors
Borderline    =  5-8 errors
Unsatisfactory = >8 errors

*Consistency of Person.* Academic essays should be written in the third person. A rating of excellent is, therefore, given only to students who write consistently in the third person.

Excellent     =  third person, 0-1 shifts in person
Satisfactory  =  third person, 3-4 shifts in person
Borderline    =  third person, 5-8 shifts in person
Unsatisfactory = first person, second person, third person with more than 8 shifts in person

*Consistency of Tense.*

Excellent     =  0-1 inappropriate shifts in tense
Satisfactory  =  2-4 inappropriate shifts in tense
Borderline    =  4-8 inappropriate shifts in tense
Unsatisfactory = more than 8 inappropriate shifts in tense

*Agreement.* Two forms of agreement were examined: (a) subject/verb agreement, and (b) noun/pronoun agreement.
Excellent $= 0-1$ errors in agreement.
Satisfactory $= 2-4$ errors in agreement.
Borderline $= 4-8$ errors in agreement.
Unsatisfactory $= more than 8$ errors in agreement.

**Spelling.**

Excellent $= 0-1$ errors.
Satisfactory $= 2-4$ errors.
Borderline $= 4-8$.
Unsatisfactory $= more than 8$ errors.

**Punctuation.** The accuracy of students' use of capitalisation, fullstops, commas, colons, semicolons, and question and quotation marks was assessed.

Excellent $= 0-1$ errors.
Satisfactory $= 2-4$ errors.
Borderline $= 4-8$.
Unsatisfactory $= more than 8$ errors.

**Referencing.** The accuracy of students' use of appropriate "in text" and "end of text" referencing conventions was assessed.

Excellent $= 0-1$ errors.
Satisfactory $= 2-4$ errors.
Borderline $= 4-8$.
Unsatisfactory $= more than 8$ errors or a majority wrong.

**Marker Consistency**

Structured samples of essays were taken from each marker
after they had completed their marking. These were used to establish the degree of inter-rater reliability. The sample consisted of 84 essays: two high, two medium, and two low scoring essays from each marker. Comments were removed and photocopies were made of each essay. Instruction was given on the use of the marking key to an expert in the field of writing. The expert then independently re-marked each of the essays and completed a second marking key for each essay.

**Intra-Rater Reliability**

The consistency of the expert’s ratings was assessed by obtaining two independent ratings of a sample of six of the essays. The procedure used to obtain the independent ratings involved randomly selecting two essays from each of the following categories: the first ten papers marked, between the 37th and 47th papers marked, and last ten papers marked, after the expert completed his initial marking of the 84 essays. The six papers were then randomly ordered and remarked by the expert. The total score for the first rating of the sample, calculated by adding together the ratings for eleven components of the marking key for the six essays, was then compared to the total score obtained for the sample in the second rating. The correlation between the two independent ratings shows a high degree of intra-rater consistency, $r = .99121$, $p = .001$. 
Inter-Rater Reliability

Table 5.1 shows the correlation of the markers' rating of the essays with the rating given to the essays by the expert. Correlations between the markers' ratings and the expert's ratings range from $r = .34195$, $p > .6577$ to $r = 1.000$, $p < .001$. The ratings of 10 of the 14 markers showed a significant ($p = .05$) and moderate or high positive relationship with the ratings of the expert.

The ratings of all the markers were also totalled to compute an overall estimate of the correlation between the markers' ratings and the ratings given by the independent expert. The result of this computation indicates a statistically significant ($r = .76291$, $p =$
.0001) moderate positive association between the markers' ratings and the ratings of the independent expert.

**Limitations**

The methodology employed to gather data for the second part of the study had three major limitations. These limitations related to: (a) the design of the marking key, (b) the lecturers' understanding of some of the variables contained in the marking key, and (c) the nature of the assignment task.

**Design of the Marking Key**

Some of the variables of the marking key did not match exactly the equivalent tests in the English Skills Assessment. Lecturers wanted to highlight some aspects of writing which they regarded as being deficient in students' assignment writing such as; consistency of tense, consistency of person, and agreement, by treating them as separate variables. However, consistency of tense, consistency of person and agreement were all components of the usage test in the English Skills Assessment. Therefore, it was necessary to collapse the students' essay performances in these variables into one variable for usage prior to its comparison with the students' performances in the usage component of the English Skills Assessment test.

**Lecturers' Understanding of the Variables**

Table 5.1 shows that there were some differences between
the lecturers in their application of the marking key. These differences arose in spite of the considerable time devoted to the discussion and development of a common marking procedure.

Table 5.2 compares the expert's ratings of the various writing components in the sample of essays with the ratings of the markers. The biggest source of discrepancies between the ratings occurred with the marking key components essay structure, paragraph structure, and sentence structure. Lecturers tended to over-estimate the performance of the students in their structuring of their essays.

In the discussions, prior to the marking of the assignments, some lecturers indicated that they look only for content when they are marking essays. These lecturers were concerned only that the content, relevant to the assignment question, was included in students' responses. The fact that the manner in which the content was presented may not meet the requirements of a specific assignment question was not considered relevant by the lecturers. They felt that the purpose of an assignment was for students to demonstrate their mastery of the content, not of "English". The same lecturers also displayed a reluctance to mark students down because of poor essay organisation.

In the case of the ratings for sentence structure, some lecturers tended to wrongly diagnose the source of the
Table 5.2

Correlation Between the Markers' and the Expert's Ratings of Components of the Marking Key

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay Structure</td>
<td>0.54505</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph Sequence</td>
<td>0.73096</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph Structure</td>
<td>0.59966</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Structure</td>
<td>0.61812</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage</td>
<td>0.76132</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>0.85478</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>0.78304</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referencing</td>
<td>0.83885</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ n = 84 \text{ for each component} \]

Some of the problems that were attributed by some lecturers to sentence structure were a manifestation of a much larger problem. It was clear that some of these students lacked control over meaning. It is hard to organise and express ideas that have not been understood in the first place. The writing of these students lacked structure and focus. This lack of structure and focus was, in turn, reflected in inadequate sentences and paragraphs. However, since the most obvious problem was the large number of poorly structured and meaningless sentences, lecturers sometimes identified the problem at the sentence level but not the larger
structural and organisational problems at the essay and paragraph level.

**Nature of the Assignment Task**

The task set by the assignment did not require students to write a single coherent and cohesive essay. The assignment was based on a general question framed by the assignment writer. However, the assignment question itself was expressed as a number of specific questions.

A general question requires research-writers to survey the literature relevant to a topic and to generate a structure for writing which will enable the writers to answer the assignment question. As the question set for the second assignment in EDU1100 was divided into a number of specific questions, some of the overall structure that would normally have been generated by research-writers themselves was provided for them. As a consequence of this, the competency with which students are able to carry out this task may not equate students' performances in an assignment requiring them to generate a structure for a single, integrated essay.

The manner in which the essay writing performance of students would normally be assessed, e.g., context, focus statement, supporting statements, and conclusion, needed some modification. Nevertheless, a good response to this assignment still required that the ideas contained in each section (question) were organised in a hierarchical fashion. That is, in which a logical sequence of main
ideas expressed as general statements, were explained and illustrated in a format that met the purpose set by the assignment sub-question. The response to each section was required to have a communicative purpose, this purpose should have been readily apparent to the reader, and the manner in which the ideas were conveyed should have been clear and precise.

Discussion

The purpose of the second part of the study was to evaluate the usefulness or otherwise of the English Skills Assessment test and a proposed assignment essay alternative as means of screening students for writing difficulties. However, in the process of setting up the study, two important issues surfaced which could impact on the literacy development of students undertaking the first year of their course in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University. These issues relate to: (a) the type of assignments set for students undertaking education units in their first year, and (b) the lack of consistency among lecturers in their expectations of students' writing. Chapter 2 considered, among other factors, the impact that context can have on students' writing performances. Both these issues affect the clarity of the context in which students' are operating.

Nature of Assignment Tasks Set

In order to carry out the second part of the study, it was necessary to identify an appropriate essay assignment
so that students' performances in the English Skills Assessment test could be compared to their performances in authentic writing situations. This procedure proved to be more difficult than originally anticipated particularly for students enrolled in the primary focused Bachelor of Arts (Education) course. A full first semester load for a primary-focused course consists of five units. Four of these units are compulsory units and are undertaken by all students. The fifth unit is in one of twelve areas of general studies (Edith Cowan University Handbook 1991). All primary teacher education students undertake units in one area of general studies in the first two years of their course. Students are usually required to complete two assignments and one exam for each of the five units. Only four of the 12 general studies units require an essay response to any of the assignments set. Of the eight assignments set for the four compulsory units only one of the assignments, the second assignment in EDU1100 approached the required format for the study. Many of the assignment tasks set involved the mechanical application of formats outlined for lesson plans or required students to respond to low level assignment tasks which required students to regurgitate and list information rather than to synthesise information and to apply the understandings derived from this synthesis in new and unique ways.

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) show that educational practices orientated towards a low form of literacy
produce self-fulfilling prophecies, i.e. students exhibiting low-levels of literacy attainment. They also demonstrate how the benefits of high literacy can be brought to students who do not come from highly literate backgrounds. Many of the assignment tasks examined in the initial phase of this study were orientated towards students demonstrating only low forms of literacy. These tasks were structured in such a way as to drive students away from synthesis and critical evaluation. Most assignment tasks examined required only a recall and listing of facts with, on occasion, some minor interpretation and application. The processes involved in identifying and developing an appropriate instrument for comparison with the English Skills Assessment have highlighted the fact that context is an issue that the Faculty of Education must confront when examining the ways in which to encourage the literacy development of its students. An issue which must be confronted is the aspects of the context in which students are operating which tend to encourage only low-levels of literacy attainment. The low-levels of literacy encouraged, in turn, prevent students from developing control over the content and processes required for them to become independent learners.

Lecturers’ Expectations

The researcher’s interactions with the lecturing/marking staff in the unit EDU1100 showed also how confusion is inherent in the context in which students are now
operating. In particular, the requirements of the context are unclear because of mixed messages conveyed to students. The results of the procedures used to establish the degree of inter-rater reliability demonstrate that lecturers' expectations vary even within the same course. These expectations are communicated to the students in the lecturers' comments and in the marks they award. However, because the expectations are inconsistent across lecturers, students may find it difficult to generalise, for example, the requirements of academic writing.

Similarly, in the course of developing the assignment marking key with EDU1100 staff, it was observed that lecturers varied widely in their interpretation of the assignment task. In some cases, there was a clear mismatch between the lecturers interpretation of the task and the meaning of the words used to frame the assignment.

The differing interpretations and expectations cause confusion and inhibit students' literacy development because the mixed messages they receive make it difficult for students to be able to deduce the requirements of the context in which they are operating.

Summary

The inter-rater reliability measures obtained indicate that overall there was a moderate level of consistency among the assignment markers. It is believed that the
level of consistency was sufficient for the comparison of the students' performances in the essay with their English Skills Assessment test performances to yield useful data.

However, though not an issue when the study was originally planned, it became apparent during the study that many aspects of the context in which the students' are operating have important consequences for students' literacy development. In particular, the low-level assignment tasks set and the variability of expectations and interpretations of assignment questions indicates that the context in which students are operating, insofar as it affects their literacy development, is problematic.
CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF PART II OF THE STUDY

Procedures used to Analyse Data

Grouping of Data

The data collected from the English Skills Assessment test and the Essay marking key were categorised into four groups prior to the carrying out of any analyses. Students’ were placed in remedial and non-remedial groups for each measure based on their performances. The manner in which the classifications were arrived at are outlined below.

Essay Categories

Remedial group. Students, who had been rated by the assignment markers as unsatisfactory in any of the aspects of writing included in the essay marking key, were considered to require remediation in that aspect and were placed in a remedial group.

Non-remedial group. Students, who were rated by the assignment markers as borderline, satisfactory, or excellent in all the aspects of writing included in the essay marking key, were placed into a non-remedial group.

English Skills Assessment Test Categories

The classifications used to group students’ on their test performances were based on the procedures used by the Faculty of Education to identify students requiring
remediation.

**Remedial group.** Students achieving less than 65%\(^1\) in any component of the English Skills Assessment test were also considered to require remediation in that component of writing and were placed in a remedial group.

**Non-remedial group.** Students achieving 65% or more in the various components of the English Skills Assessment were placed into a non-remedial group.

**Data Analysis**

After the data were grouped, four comparisons were carried out:

1. The deficiencies in students' writing skills identified by the English Skills Assessment test were compared with those deficiencies identified by the assignment markers in their assessment of students' written essays. The purpose of the first comparison was to establish the deficiencies in students' essay writing which were identified by the markers but were not identified by the Faculty of Education's testing procedure.

2. The students identified as requiring remediation by the English Skills Assessment test were compared to the students identified as requiring remediation by the assignment markers. The purpose of the second comparison

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\(^1\)Cut off point used by the Faculty of Education in 1991
was to determine if the students identified by the English Skills Assessment test as having specific writing deficiencies in the areas of spelling, punctuation, usage and sentence structure displayed the same deficiencies in their assignment writing.

3. The students' overall performances in the English Skills Assessment test, as measured by their total scores, were compared to the students' overall performances in their assignments, as measured by their final grades. The purpose of the third comparison was to determine if the students, who experienced problems in their assignment writing, could be identified from the total score\(^2\) they achieved in the English Skills Assessment test.

4. The students' performances in all the components of the English Skills Assessment test and all the variables in essay marking key were compared with the students' assignment scores. The purpose of the fourth comparison was to determine the items in the test and marking key in which the students' performances showed the strongest relationship to their overall assignment performances.

Results

**Writing Deficiencies Compared**

The numbers of students identified by the two measures as

\(^{2}\text{This included all eight components of the English Skills Assessment test.}\)
requiring remediation and the areas in which students' writing were considered deficient are shown in Table 6.1. Deficiencies in usage, sentence structure, spelling, and punctuation were identified by both the essay markers and by the English Skills Assessment test.

Table 6.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Identified</th>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>ESA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essay Structure</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph Relationships</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph Structure</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Structure</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referencing</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay Length</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total number of students assessed = 426.

as areas in which students required remediation. In addition to these four areas, the assignment markers identified students experiencing problems with their essay writing in five other areas which were not assessed by the English Skills Assessment test. Three of
these areas can have an important impact on the cohesion and coherence of an essay. These areas relate to: (a) students' abilities to provide suitable frameworks for their essays to enable them to meet the requirements of the task set by the assignment, (b) students' abilities to show relationships between ideas across paragraphs in their essays, and (c) students' abilities to paragraph correctly. The other two areas identified by the assignment markers, the appropriate use of referencing conventions and essay length, relate to technical requirements for writing essays in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University.

Discussion

The English Skills Assessment test did not identify three areas, which are important to good essay writing and which were deficient in students' essay writing: essay structure, paragraph sequencing, and paragraph structure. Two less important areas which relate to the Faculty's technical requirements for writing, i.e., referencing and essay length, were also not assessed. As the English Skills Assessment test did not identify all the areas of deficiency in student's writing, a remediation programme based solely on the areas identified by the test would have limited impact on students' assignment writing needs.

Students with Writing Deficiencies Compared

Two analyses were carried out to determine if there was
some relationship between the students' performances in the items that were measured by both the English Skills Assessment test and the essay marking key. Students' spelling, punctuation, usage, and sentence structure performances in their essays were compared with their performances in the equivalent components of the English Skills Assessment test.

The students were divided into two sub-groups based on their test and two sub-groups based on their assignment performances in each of the previously mentioned components of writing. Then a chi-square test (Everitt, 1988) was applied, using the IBM statistical package SAS, to generate 2x2 contingency tables for each component. The chi-square procedure was used to test the association between the two variables "student performance in the English Skills Assessment test" and "student performance in the essay assignment" for each of the writing components. A chi-square test compares the observed cell frequencies and those frequencies that would be expected when the variables forming the table are assumed to be independent. A statistically significant chi-square value would indicate that students' performances across the two measures were dependent and, therefore, related.

Coefficients of contingency for each component were also derived from the chi-squares. These were used to establish the degree of correlation between the

3remedial and non-remedial
students' performances in each component across the two measures. The contingency tables were then examined to establish the level of match/mismatch between the students' performances in the test and assignment for each of the four writing components. The level of match/mismatch was, in turn, used to determine the usefulness of the English Skills Assessment as a screening test for identifying students who were likely to experience particular problems in their assignment writing.

The procedure used to establish the level of match/mismatch between the students' test and essay writing performances involved identifying the following categories of students for each of the four writing components displayed in the contingency tables: (a) the number of students identified by each measure as having failed to meet the prescribed level of competency, (b) the number of students identified by both measures as having failed to meet the prescribed levels of competency, (c) the percentage of students identified as having problems in their essay writing who were also identified by the English Skills Assessment test, (d) the percentage of students identified by the English Skills Assessment test who were not identified as having problems in their assignment writing, and (e) the percentage of students identified as having problems in their essay writing who were not identified by the English Skills Assessment test.
A chi-square test showed that students' spelling performances in the English Skills Assessment test and in their essay were not related. At a five percent level of confidence, the calculated value of the chi-square, $X^2(1, N = 426) = 2.813, p = .094$, is not significant. From the chi-square test results, it is possible to conclude that the students' spelling performances were independent of each other and thus, were dependent on the kind of measuring instrument being used. The contingency coefficient derived from the chi-square supported this conclusion. The contingency coefficient showed that the correlation ($r = .081, p = .094$) between the students' performances in the spelling component of the English Skills Assessment and the students' spelling performances in their assignment was low and not statistically significant.

The mismatch between the students' spelling performances in the English Skills Assessment test and in their essay writing is readily apparent in the contingency table. Table 6.2 shows that the English Skills Assessment test identified 61 students requiring remediation in spelling while the assignment markers identified 91 students requiring remediation. However, only 18 students were identified by both forms of assessment as requiring remediation. That is, only 19.78% of the students identified from their assignment performances as requiring remediation were also identified by the English
Skills Assessment test. Conversely, 70.49% of the students identified by the English Skills Assessment Test as requiring remediation in spelling did not appear to have problems with spelling in their assignment writing. In addition, the English Skills Assessment test did not identify 80.22% of the students whose essay writing performances indicated that their spelling was below the prescribed level of competence.

Table 6.2
Spelling: English Skills Assessment Test Performances and Essay Performances Compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>Non-R</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>14.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial % of ESA</td>
<td>29.51</td>
<td>70.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Essay</td>
<td>19.78</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Remedial % of ESA</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>68.54</td>
<td>85.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Essay</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial % of Essay</td>
<td>80.22</td>
<td>87.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>21.36</td>
<td>78.64</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Punctuation Performances Compared.

A chi-square test showed that, at a 5 percent level of confidence, students' punctuation performances in the English Skills Assessment test and their essay writing were not independent, \( x^2(1, \, N = 426) = 6.670, \, p = .010. \) The contingency coefficient, derived from the chi-square also showed a low but positive and statistically significant correlation (\( \rho = .125, \, p = .010 \)) between the students' performances in the punctuation component of the English Skills Assessment and the students' punctuation performances in their assignment.

In spite of the fact that the two analyses showed statistically significant results, table 6.3 shows that the level of the association between the students' punctuation performances across the two measures was too low for the English Skills Assessment test to be able to provide a useful means of identifying students with punctuation problems in their assignment writing. The English Skills Assessment test identified 164 students requiring remediation in punctuation whilst the assignment markers identified only 71 students requiring remediation. Thirty-seven students were identified by both forms of assessment. Despite the statistically significant correlation between the two scores, only 52.11% of the students identified from their assignment performances as requiring remediation in punctuation were also identified by the English Skills Assessment test. Conversely, 77.44% of the students,
identified by the English Skills Assessment test as requiring remediation in punctuation, did not appear to have problems with punctuation in their assignment writing. The English Skills Assessment test also did not identify 47.89% of the students whose punctuation performances were below the prescribed level of competency in their essay writing.

Table 6.3

Punctuation: English Skills Assessment Test Performances and Essay Performances Compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESSAY</th>
<th>Non-Remedial</th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>8.69</td>
<td>29.81</td>
<td>38.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLISH SKILLS ASSESSMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Remedial % of Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial % of ESA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Essay</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total | 71 | 355 | 426 |

% | 16.37 | 83.33 | 100.00 |
Usage Performances Compared.

A chi-square test showed that students' usage performances in the English Skills assessment test and in their essay writing were independent. At a five percent level of confidence, the calculated value of the chi-square, $\chi^2(1, N = 426) = 2.956$, was not significant. The contingency coefficient derived from the chi-square also shows that there was little relationship between the students' performances across the two measures. The contingency coefficient shows that the correlation between the students' performances in the usage component of the English Skills Assessment and the students' usage performances in their assignment was low and not statistically significant, $C = 0.083$, $p = 0.086$. That is, the students' writing performances varied again in accordance with the measuring instrument being used.

The mismatch between the students' usage performances across the two measures is also readily apparent from the contingency table. Table 6.4 shows that the English Skills Assessment test identified 114 students requiring remediation in usage and that the assignment markers identified 102 students requiring remediation. However, only 34 students were identified by both forms of assessment. That is, only 33.33% of the students, identified from their assignment performances as requiring remediation, were also identified by the English Skills Assessment test. Only 29.82% of the students identified by the English Skills Assessment test
as requiring remediation in usage were also identified by the assignment markers. Conversely, 70.18% of the students identified by the English Skills Assessment test as requiring remediation in usage did not appear to have problems with usage in their assignment writing. The English Skills Assessment test also did not identify 66.67% of the students whose usage performances were below the prescribed level of competency in their essay writing.

Table 6.4

Usage: English Skills Assessment Test Performances and Essay Performances Compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESSAY</th>
<th>Non-Remedial</th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>18.78</td>
<td>26.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENGLISH SKILLS ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>% of Essay</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>24.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Remedial</th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>15.96</td>
<td>57.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of ESA</td>
<td>21.79</td>
<td>78.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of ESSAY</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>75.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>23.94</td>
<td>76.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Sentence Structure Performances Compared**

A chi-square analysis, testing the association between students' sentence structure performances in the English Skills Assessment test and their assignment writing, indicated that their performances in these variables were independent. At a five percent level of confidence the calculated value of the chi-square, \( X^2(1, N = 426) = 2.442, \, p = .118 \), was not significant. The contingency coefficient derived from the chi-square also showed that the level of competency shown by students' in sentence structure varied according to the kind of measuring instrument being used. The contingency coefficient showed that the correlation (\( \rho = .083, \, \rho' = .086 \)) between the students' performances in the sentence structure component of the English Skills Assessment and their sentence structure performances in their assignment writing was very low and not statistically significant at a 5% level of confidence.

The mismatch between the students' performances in the English Skills Assessment test and the students' performances in their assignment essays is clearly demonstrated in the contingency table. Table 6.5 shows that the English Skills Assessment test identified 73 students requiring remediation in sentence structure. The assignment markers identified 88 students requiring remediation. However, only twenty students were identified by both forms of assessment as requiring remediation in sentence structure. That is, only 22.73%
of the students identified from their assignment performances as requiring remediation were also identified by the English Skills Assessment Test. Twenty-seven percent of the students identified by the English Skills Assessment Test as requiring remediation in sentence structure were also identified by the assignment markers. Conversely, 72.6% of the students identified by the English Skills Assessment Test as requiring

Table 6.5

Sentence Structure: English Skills Assessment Test Performances and Essay Performances Compared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Remedial</th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ESSAY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of Total</strong></td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>12.44</td>
<td>17.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remedial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of ESA</strong></td>
<td>27.40</td>
<td>72.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ENGLISH SKILLS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of Essay</strong></td>
<td>22.73</td>
<td>15.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ASSESSMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non-Remedial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of Total</strong></td>
<td>15.96</td>
<td>66.90</td>
<td>82.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Remedial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of ESA</strong></td>
<td>19.26</td>
<td>80.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% of ESSAY</strong></td>
<td>77.27</td>
<td>84.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>79.34</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
remediation in sentence structure did not appear to have problems with sentence structure in their assignment writing. In addition, the English Skills Assessment test did not identify 77.27% of the students whose sentence structure performances were below the prescribed level of competency in their essay writing.

Discussion

The comparisons showed that the students identified by the English Skills Assessment test as having deficiencies in the areas of spelling, punctuation, usage, or sentence structure, did not necessarily display the same deficiencies in their assignment writing. At a 5 percent level of confidence, there was no association between the students' performances in spelling, usage, and sentence structure across the two measures and only a low correlation between the students' punctuation performances. The significant mismatch between the students' test and essay performances places in serious doubt the value of using the English Skills Assessment test as a means of identifying the students who are likely to experience difficulties with spelling, punctuation, usage, or sentence structure in an authentic writing task such as essay writing.

Students' Overall Performances Compared

Two analyses were carried out in order to try to establish if there was any relationship between students' essay marks and their total score for all the components
of the English Skills Assessment test.

The first analysis involved the calculation of a Pearson product-moment coefficient. The maximum score that could be allocated to students for their assignment-essay was 40. The scores received by the 426 students included in the sample for their essays ranged from 6 to 36. The mean score for the students' essays was 23.46 with a standard deviation of 4.92. The maximum score that could be achieved by totalling all eight components of the English Skills Assessment test was 188. The scores, expressed as a percentage, achieved by the students ranged from 38.82% (73) to 95.74% (180). The mean total score was 74.66% (140.36) with a standard deviation of 10.46% (19.67). The correlation between the marks achieved by students for their essays and the total score achieved by the students in the English Skills Assessment test was low but positive and statistically significant, \( r = .189, \ p = .0001 \). This indicates that there is a relationship between students' performances across the two measures and that students achieving high or low scores in their essays show a tendency to achieve similar scores in the English Skills Assessment test.

The second analysis involved a chi-square test of independence. The students were divided into five sub-groups based on their total test scores and essay marks. The five test sub-groups were based on the cut-off point used by the Faculty of Education to identify those students whom the Faculty perceived as requiring
remediation in writing. The first test sub-group therefore, included all those who scored less than 65% in the English Skills Assessment test. There were four other test sub-groups: (a) those who scored 65% or more but less than 70%, (b) those who scored 70% or more but less than 75%, (c) those who scored 75% or more but less than 85%, (d) those who scored 85% or more. The cut-off points between the sub-groups are arbitrary. However, the sub-group categories were chosen in an attempt to find a pattern where the students' essay and test performances might match sufficiently for the English Skills Assessment test to provide a useful screening device for identifying which students were likely to experience problems in their assignment writing.

The five essay sub-groups represented the system of categories used by the University to grade students' assignment, exam, and overall unit performances. The grades used equate to the following scores: (a) N is equivalent to a score of between 0% to 49%, (b) C is equivalent to a score of between 50% to 59%, (c) C+ is equivalent to a score of between 60% and 69%, (d) B is equivalent to a score of between 70% and 79%, and (e) A is equivalent to a score of between 80% and 100%.

A chi-square test was applied, again using the IBM statistical package SAS, to generate a 5x5 contingency table. The chi-square procedure was used to test the association between overall performance in the English Skills Assessment test and overall performance in the
assignment essay. A coefficient of contingency was also derived from the chi-square. The coefficient was used to establish the degree of correlation between the students' overall performances across the two measures. The contingency tables were then used to establish the level of match/mismatch between the students' performances in the test and assignment.

The chi-square test showed that, at a 5 percent level of confidence, students' overall performances in the test and essay were not independent, $x^2(16, N = 426) = 40.029, p = .001$. The contingency coefficient derived from the chi-square also showed a statistically significant low to moderate correlation between the students' overall performances in the two measures, $\phi = .293, p = .001$.

In spite of the fact that three analyses showed statistically significant relationships between the students' performances, an analysis of the contingency table shows that the level of the association between the students' overall performances across the two measures was too low for the English Skills Assessment test to be able to provide a useful means of identifying students who are likely to experience problems in their assignment writing. Table 6.6 shows that there were 64 students who received a fail grade for their assignments. Seventy-eight students failed to achieve the standard set by the Faculty of Education in the English Skills Assessment test. However, despite three separate analyses which showed a statistically
significant relationship between the students' scores in the two measures, only 22 students were identified as failing by both measures. That is, only 34.38% of the students who failed their assignments also failed to meet the standard set for the Faculty's screening test.

Table 6.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Skills Assessment Total Score (%)</th>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;65%</td>
<td>65- &lt;70%</td>
<td>70- &lt;75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;50%</td>
<td>34.38</td>
<td>9.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>28.21</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;50%</td>
<td>34.38</td>
<td>9.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;60%</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>38.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60%</td>
<td>16.95</td>
<td>17.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;70%</td>
<td>25.64</td>
<td>40.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C+</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70%</td>
<td>16.95</td>
<td>17.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;80%</td>
<td>25.64</td>
<td>40.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60%</td>
<td>16.95</td>
<td>17.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;70%</td>
<td>25.64</td>
<td>40.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70%</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;80%</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80%+</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.S.A. Total</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.31</td>
<td>12.21</td>
<td>15.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The following description for cell 1 applies to all cells in the contingency table: 1= Frequency  
2= Percent  
3= Row Percent  
4= Column Percent
Conversely, only 28.21% of the students who failed to meet the standard set for the test also failed their assignment-essays. Four of the 20 students who received A grades for their essays did not meet the 65% cut-off point for the test. Nine of the 68 students, who achieved 85% or better in the test, failed their assignment-essays.

An examination of the contingency table demonstrates clearly that students' overall performances in English Skills Assessment test and overall essay performances are not sufficiently related for the test to provide a useful means of identifying students who are likely to experience problems in essay writing if the current cut-off point for students' test performances is applied to the total score.

The contingency table was examined further to establish if there were any other cut-off points which could be applied that would identify a greater number of the students experiencing problems in their assignment essays. As previously stated, the mean total score for the test was 140.36 and the mean score for the essays was 23.46. There were 194 students who achieved a total score of 140 or less, i.e., less than 75%, in the test. There were 215 students who received a mark of 23 or less for their essays, i.e., received C or F grades. However, the mismatch between the students' performances over the two measures is too great for the English Skills Assessment test to be used to identify the students who
were likely to perform poorly in their assignment writing. Only 108 students performed below average in both measures. That is, 50.23% of students who received below average marks for their essays and 55.67% of the students who achieved below average scores in the English Skills Assessment test. Seven of the 20 students, who received A grades for their essays, performed below average in the test. Similarly, 28 of the 68 students, who achieved 85% or more in the test, received below average marks for their essays.

Discussion

A comparison of the scores received by students for their assignment essays and their total scores in the English Assessment test showed that the potential usefulness of using students' total test scores as a means of identifying students who were likely to perform poorly in their assignment essay-writing was limited. This limitation was particularly apparent when the cut-off point currently applied by the Faculty of Education was used. A more useful cut-off point for the test seems to be a score of less than 75 percent. However, even at this point, there are considerable numbers of students who experienced problems in their assignment writing and were not identified by the test, and conversely, considerable numbers of students identified by the test who do not seem to have problems in their assignment.
Measurement Variables and Overall Essay Performance

Chi-square tests of independence were carried out and contingency coefficients were calculated in order to determine if the students' performances in some essay marking key and English Skills Assessment test items showed stronger relationships to their overall assignment performances than in others.

Students were again divided into five sub-groups based on the grades they received for their essays. Two sub-groups, a remedial and a non-remedial group, were also created for each item of the essay marking key and component of the English Assessment test. Five by two contingency tables were generated for each item and component in the key and the test. The chi-square values and contingency coefficients for each of the items appear in Table 6.7.

At a five percent level of confidence, there were only two components in the English Skills Assessment test where the students' performances showed a significant relationship to their overall essay performances. Chi-square analyses showed that, students' overall performances in the test components vocabulary $x^2(4, N = 426) = 10.493, p = .033$; and comprehension I $x^2(4, N = 426) = 12.893, p = .012$; were not independent of their essay grades. Contingency coefficients derived from the chi-squares also showed statistically significant positive but low correlations between the students' overall performances and their performances in the

Table 6.7  
Relationships Between Performances in Measurement Items and Essay Performances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
<th>$C$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Sentence Structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.202</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.013</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Logical Relations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.557</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.590</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Usage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.135</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.493</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Comprehension II</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.975*</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Comprehension I</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.893</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33.664</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Length</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>37.402</td>
<td>0.284</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>43.488</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Paragraph Sequence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47.633</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Referencing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50.368</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Usage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>76.377</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Paragraph Structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>82.052</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Sentence Structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>92.728</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Essay Structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>99.400</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *50% of the cells had expected counts of 5 or less.
The chi-square analysis also indicated that, at a five percent level of confidence, the students' performances in the test component comprehension II may be related to their overall essay performances, $x^2(4, \ N = 426) = 10.975, p = .027$. However, a chi-square may not have been a valid test for this component as 50% of the cells in the contingency table had expected counts of less than five.

In contrast to the test, students' performances in all 9 items assessed by the essay marking key showed significant ($p < .001$) relationships with their overall assignment performances. Correlations between essay items and overall essay scores ranged from punctuation which showed the lowest correlation $\rho = .271, p < .001$; to essay structure which showed the highest correlation; $\rho = .435, p < .001$.

**Discussion**

An important motivational influence for this study was the view among some Faculty of Education lecturers, supported by recent research into students' academic writing performances, that students' major writing problems are to do with the production of meaningful coherent text rather than with surface features such as, grammar, spelling, and punctuation. The link between the underlying structural and organisational aspects of writing and the production of coherent text was established in chapter 4. The view that the underlying structural and organisational aspects of writing play a
greater role in the production of meaningful text than surface features is given some support by the relationships shown between the various components of the test and the marking key, and students' overall assignment performances. Support for this view is shown by three findings of the second part of the study:

1. The three items shown to have the highest correlation with students' overall assignment performances were: essay structure, sentence structure, and paragraph structure. It can also be inferred from the procedure used to establish inter-rater reliability, that, given the tendency of the markers to over-emphasise problems at the sentence level and under-emphasise problems at the essay and paragraph structure level, the association between overall essay performance and essay structure is probably stronger than suggested by these results.

2. There was only either a low or a statistically non-significant correlation between students' overall essay performances and their performances in the various components of a decontextualised skills-based test which concentrates on assessing the students' competencies with the surface features of writing.

3. It is interesting to note also that the two components of the English Skills test which show a statistically significant correlation with the students' overall essay performances are based on meaning, and students' understanding and ability to make meaning.
Limitation. It could probably be expected that the students' performances in the areas assessed by the marking key would show a closer relationship to students' overall essay writing performances than the English Skills Assessment test. Markers could have been influenced by the students' good or bad performances in particular items and these influences could have been reflected in the final mark allocated to the essays.

Essay Performance: A suitable Alternative?

A second important purpose of the second part of the study was to assess whether analysing students' assignment essay performances provides a suitable alternative to the English Skills Assessment test which could be used by the Faculty of Education to identify students who are likely to experience difficulties in their writing.

Advantages from a Theoretical Perspective

From a standpoint of writing assessment theory, assessing students' writing by measuring their performances in authentic writing contexts is more valuable than either an artificial task which seeks to approximate writing behaviours, or a procedure which makes judgements about students' potential performances in writing by assessing their performances in skills believed to be related to that task. In both the second and third forms of assessment mentioned above there will be some mismatch between the students' performances in these tasks and
their performances in authentic writing tasks.

**Limitations from a Theoretical Perspective**

Assessments of students' writing competency based on their performance in a single writing task may also not be entirely reliable. Students' performances may vary considerably between different writing tasks. The factors which impact on students' writing performances were considered in the first chapters of both part I and part II of this study. In these chapters, it was established that students' writing performances, at all levels of their texts, reflect their underlying understanding of the content about which they are writing. Hence, a student's writing performance in any one essay writing task may not be an accurate reflection necessarily of her/his performance in other essay writing tasks dealing with different content. However, the assessment task is still considered valid as writing at academic institutions is part of a learning process which involves students in researching areas with which they may not be familiar. The success with which they have been able to learn about and understand a topic is demonstrated in their writing.

**Practical Advantages**

The great attraction of a test like the English Skills Assessment test is that it is easily administered to large groups of students relatively quickly and is easy to mark using optical scanning equipment. Similarly, the
assignment-essay has some attractions. Its authenticity makes it a valid test and, as it is part of students' normal assignment loads, there is no additional burden imposed on them. Markers are not required to mark a task in addition to their existing workloads, but can make the writing assessment part of their normal marking load.

**Practical Limitations**

The biggest drawback of using an essay assignment as an alternative to the English Skills Assessment test is the inconsistency of the marking. The English Skills Assessment test has a great advantage in that the marking of the test is objective. The analyses carried out to assess the degree of marker consistency demonstrated that the manner in which the marking key was applied varied according to the attitudes and understandings of the markers. It is possible to design systems which can ensure a greater degree of consistency across markers. However, these systems add to the time and effort that is required to use an assignment as a means of diagnosing students' with writing needs thus making the procedure less attractive in comparison to a test like the English Skills Assessment.

**Summary**

The purpose of the second part of the study was to establish the variables which contributed to successful academic writing and ascertain whether the English Skills Assessment test adequately measured these
variables or identified the students who were likely to experience problems with their writing. A second important purpose of this part of the study was to determine if the evaluation of an assignment provided a suitable alternative means of screening students for writing difficulties.

All the analyses carried out in this study with respect to the English Skills Assessment test showed that it is not a useful instrument for screening students for writing difficulties.

Firstly, the data pertaining to student’s performances in the English Skills Assessment test and their assignment-essays were analysed to determine if the test measured all the variables in which students’ essay writing broke down. The results of this analysis showed that variables which were important to good academic writing and which represented deficiencies in students’ essay writing were not assessed by the test.

Secondly, the data were analysed to establish if the students identified by the English Skills Assessment test as having particular deficiencies, manifested the same deficiencies in their essay writing. The results of this analysis showed that in three out of the four areas used by the Faculty of Education to assess students, there was no significant association between students’ test and assignment performances. In the fourth area there was a low positive correlation but the association was too low
for the test to provide a useful means of identifying the students who were likely to experience problems in this area of their essay writing.

Thirdly, given the limitations of the English Skills Assessment test in being able to identify either all the variables of writing in which students are likely to manifest difficulties or the students who are likely to manifest particular difficulties in their essay writing, the data were analysed to establish if there were some overall association between students' test and essay performances which would enable the test to be used as a means of identifying students who were likely to perform poorly in their essay writing. Again, the results indicated that the English Skills Assessment test was not a useful test for this purpose particularly when the current cut-off point of 65% used by the Faculty of Education was applied.

Fourthly, the data were analysed to discover the relative importance of the variables assessed by the English Skills Assessment test and the marking key to essay writing. These analyses were carried out to ascertain if the variables identified by the test, upon which the Faculty of Education's current remediation programme is based, are the most useful components to have in a programme aimed at developing students' writing proficiencies. The results of these analyses indicate the aspects of writing that are currently considered by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University when
assessing and remediating students' writing contribute little to their writing development.

In view of the above four points, this study is important because it highlights the limitations of using the English Skills Assessment test as a means of identifying students with potential writing difficulties and the limitations of basing a writing remediation programme on the areas assessed by the English Skills Assessment test. The findings of the study confirm the findings of a study carried out earlier by Holbrook and Bourke (1989). They reported that the skills tested by the English Skills Assessment did not identify all the areas in which students experienced problems in authentic writing contexts and that the types of errors made by students in the categories measured by the English Skills Assessment test did not necessarily equate to the kinds of errors made by students in the same categories when writing. This study extends the findings of Holbrook and Bourke's study by showing that findings about the lack of association between students' performances in the English test and their ability to write narrative texts also applies when they write expository texts.

Unfortunately, the study also shows that diagnosis based on an assignment essay may not be a practical alternative to the English Skills Assessment test because of difficulties with marker consistency.
CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Students' performances in tertiary entrance examinations indicate that there may be a larger gap between the literacy requirements of an academic culture and the knowledge, skills, and understandings of its newly enrolling students, in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University than at other faculties of Education in other Western Australian Universities. This situation makes it necessary for the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University to undertake a programme aimed at developing the literacy standards of its students to a level perceived by the Faculty as being satisfactory. However, despite the fact that the Faculty of Education has an active literacy development programme to which it devotes time and financial resources, in reality, the context into which the students are entering does little to bridge the gap between the student's existing culture and an academic culture. The present diagnostic and remediation procedures used by the Faculty fail to have a real impact on students' literacy development for two reasons: (a) the theoretical and organisational inadequacies of these procedures, and (b) the concentration of these procedures on the perceived inadequacies of the students. With regard to the latter, the faculty neglects to address the inadequacies in the ways in which its other units are organised and
delivered. These inadequacies also impede the students' literacy development.

Theoretical and Organisational Inadequacies

The results of this study show that the procedures used by the Faculty of Education to diagnose and remediate the writing needs of its first year student intake are not effective. The English Skills Assessment test, used by the Faculty to screen its incoming students, fails to identify adequately either the range of writing difficulties experienced by students or the students who are likely to experience problems in their writing. As a consequence, the Faculty's remediation programme is also inadequate because it relies on the English Skills Assessment test to select students for the remedial programmes and to determine the content to be dealt with in those programmes.

The remedial programme itself is ineffective because the underlying theoretical assumptions on which the programme is based are flawed. Instead of teaching students the underlying structural and organisational formats for writing and efficient processes for writing, the programme is aimed at teaching students about the surface features of writing. The former will assist students to understand the content of their course by (a) helping to structure and organise their thinking, (b) focusing their reading, and (c) giving them control over their writing. The latter may be of use during the
editing stage of the writing process, however, concentrating on the surface features of writing can also impede students' literacy development by directing their attention away from the purpose of writing which is the communication of meaning. The remedial programme is also theoretically flawed because it attempts to teach students writing outside of the context in which the writing is used.

Not only is the remediation programme's effectiveness limited by its theoretical flaws and its reliance on the English Skills Assessment test, but also its effectiveness is severely affected by the priority given to the programme by the Faculty of Education. COM0101 is poorly planned, poorly organised, poorly staffed, and exists at the periphery of the academic programme. The peripheral status accorded to COM0101 by the Faculty is mirrored in the low status accorded to the unit by students.

In summary, the Faculty of Education has made a time and financial commitment to its diagnosis and remediation programme and many students are forced to make a time commitment to the programme. However, it would appear from this study that neither the Faculty nor the students can expect to receive any benefit from the continued existence of COM0101 in its present form.

Other Factors Affecting Students' Literacy Development

The manner in which the Faculty of Education is
attempting to meet the literacy needs of its students shows a limited awareness of how context can affect students' literacy development. Literacy is contextual. A person is literate in a particular context if s/he is able to read and understand the context, and is able to operate successfully within that context. The extent to which students are literate in an academic context is determined by their ability to read and respond appropriately to this context. However, students' ability to read and respond appropriately to an academic context can be hampered if the messages transmitted by the context in which they are operating are unclear or contradictory. Many lecturers believe that the knowledge, skills, and understandings of an academic culture are a prerequisite to gaining a place at university and, therefore, do not explicitly teach these to incoming students. As a consequence, many students have to learn the requirements and expectations of an academic context through trial and error. However, their ability to learn through trial and error is affected by the mixed messages they receive. Although, this study did not seek to explore the misunderstandings and misconceptions that arise from the context in which students are operating, the important effect context can have on students' writing was considered in chapter 2. The importance of context was also highlighted for the writer in his interactions with the 14 Faculty of Education lecturers involved in the second part of the study.
In order to collect the data relating to students' assignment performances, the writer was required to (a) work with the Faculty of Education lecturers to identify an appropriate assignment, (b) develop an appropriate marking key, and (c) establish procedures which would ensure a reasonable degree of inter-marker reliability. During the process of developing the marking key and in the process of collecting the data, issues surfaced which could have an important impact on the development of students' academic literacy. These issues include: the setting of low-level assignment tasks which require students to list rather than synthesize and apply information, a mismatch between lecturers' expectations of how students ought to respond to an assignment task and the requirements of the assignment task as stated in the unit outline, and the different expectations by different lecturers for the same assignment. The differing expectations for essay writing among lecturers were shown in the analysis of the data relating to inter-rater reliability which revealed inconsistencies between lecturers in their rating of students' writing performances.

The manner in which marks were allocated for the assignments indicated some disturbing trends. Even though the independent-marker did not allocate final marks to the assignments, he pointed out some examples of what he believed to be very good work and some examples of very poor work. In some cases, students had
obviously created over-arching questions which subsumed the four parts of the assignment question. Many of these students wrote well and demonstrated that they had been able to synthesise the information from the texts they had read and were able to apply the information in a structured and organised fashion to meet the assignment requirements. However, these students tended to receive lower marks particularly from some assignment markers who appeared to favour listings of information. At the opposite extreme were two students whose work the independent-marker was unable to rate because their writing consisted almost entirely of quotes. Both these students received credit grades.

Thus, it would appear from this study that, not only are there problems with the procedures used by the School of Education to diagnose and remediate student writing difficulties, but also the environment or context in which the students are operating could be inhibiting their literacy development. Students' literacy development may be inhibited because of (a) the setting of low level tasks (b) the confusion caused by the

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1 One of the students' essays, which consisted of approximately 1850 words, contained three original sentences. However, the student could not be accused of plagiarism as all the quotes were acknowledged and referenced according to the requirements of the University's referencing convention.
conflict between the messages transmitted by the unit materials and the messages transmitted by lecturers, and (c) the conflicting messages sent by different lecturers of the same unit. The students' confusion is compounded further if the expectations of the other units in which the students are enrolled, also vary.

A positive result arising out of the interactions between the researcher and EDU1100 lecturing team is a realisation by some members of the team that there are inadequacies in their present practices. Lecturers have accepted that the low-level nature of the tasks which they have been setting for students' assignments have been driving the students away from understanding the content and have instead been encouraging students to list and rote learn. Lecturers have realised that the teaching of content without structure and processes also encourages rote learning. Rote learning is encouraged as the internalised structures and processes which could be used to develop understanding have not been developed. Previously, lecturers felt that there is already too little time for the teaching of the content of units without having to take on an additional burden of teaching structures and processes. They now recognise that concurrent teaching of content and the structures and processes required to understand and absorb that content will enhance the learning of the content and will also provide the framework by which further content may be learnt. As a consequence of these new understandings, the members of the lecturing team have taken action to
modify their practices by (a) changing the nature of the assignment tasks they set, (b) making explicit their expectations for students' essay writing, and (c) incorporating the explicit teaching of the processes and structures which are a pre-requisite to successful academic learning in their units.

The first-year, first-semester education unit EDU1100 is followed by EDU1200 in second semester. The unit outline for EDU1200 in 1990 appears in Appendix T. A description for the major assignment for this unit appears in pages 12-17 of the unit outline. Students had to carry out two tasks in order to meet the requirements of the assignment. Students were given a choice of six assignment topics. Each assignment question consisted of a number of sub-questions. Students nominated a topic and were required to give a tutorial presentation on one of the sub-questions for that topic and write a tutorial paper answering all the questions set for that topic. The manner in which the assignment was set discouraged students from synthesising information gained from references and encouraged students to list information relevant to aspects of the topic. As result of the interactions that occurred in EDU1100 during the study, the course coordinator asked the researcher to rewrite the assignment questions for EDU1200 so there would be one over-arching question for each topic which required students to give a synthesised answer. The unit outline for EDU1200 for semester 2,
1991 appears in Appendix U. The assignment questions appear on pages 12-19 of the unit outline. The course coordinator asked the researcher to make explicit the requirements of the assignment to guide both the lecturers and the students. A statement outlining the requirements for each topic question is included after the question. An outline of the structure to be used to write the assignment appear on page 10 of the unit outline and the criteria for marking the assignment appear on page 11. The marking key for the assignment can be found in Appendix V.

The lecturing team has included in the course content for EDU1100 for semester 1, 1992 the explicit teaching of the processes and structures required for students to learn successfully in an academic context.

In spite of the inroads that have been made in the manner in which the first year core education studies units are organised and delivered, the general context in which students are operating remains largely unaffected as the changes have occurred in only two of the 25 units undertaken by students during their undergraduate course. Whilst these changes are welcome, the changes made in these two units will need to be formalised by the Faculty of Education and extended into the other units within the course and other campuses of the University if the some of the factors inhibiting students' literacy development are to be overcome. Recommendations on the implementation of these changes are set out below.
Recommendations for Change

The value of continuing with COM0101 in its present format is questionable given the inadequacies of the English Skills Assessment test as a means of screening students for writing problems, the inappropriate unit content, the peripheral nature of the course, the lack of student motivation, and inadequacies with staffing. As a consequence of these problems, the current COM0101 testing and remediation programmes ought to be abandoned by the Faculty of Education. The Faculty also needs to re-think the way in which it views the literacy needs of its students. A change in emphasis is required from diagnosis and remediation procedures which attempt to identify specific students with specific difficulties in superficial aspects of their writing to developmental programmes which are designed to assist all students to develop literacy skills essential for success in an academic context. A programme which encompasses all students is justified because of the comparatively low entry scores of many of the newly enrolling students in the Bachelor of Arts (Education) course at Edith Cowan University. These entry scores suggest that there may be a substantial gulf between the understandings of newly enrolling students in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University and those required to succeed in an academic context.

Therefore, it is recommended that the present COM0101 writing diagnosis and remediation unit be replaced by a
a compulsory orientation or foundation unit to be undertaken by all students in the first semester of the first year of their course. The foundation unit would deal with content relevant to the education course but would focus on providing a bridge between students' existing understandings and the requirements of studying at university by: (a) transmitting the Faculty of Education's requirements and expectations of students, and (b) teaching the structures and processes (reading, writing, and thinking) required for successful learning in the Bachelor of Arts (Education) course.

The substitution of a compulsory award unit in place of COM0101 would address the first four deficiencies of the present system summarised in table 7.1. However, if the Faculty of Education wishes to improve its students' standards of written literacy, it will need to address not only the needs of its students but also attend to some of the deficiencies that exist in the context in which the students are operating as these are also impeding their literacy development. In particular, the Faculty must develop and enforce uniform expectations for the setting and marking of students' assignments across all units within the Faculty to overcome an existing problem where the information being transmitted in one unit or by one lecturer has little or no relationship to what is being taught or expected by other lecturers or in other units. All units offered by the faculty should also be changed to incorporate, in the first year of the course, the explicit teaching of the skills, knowledge,
Table 7.1

Deficiencies in the present operations of COM0101

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staffing</td>
<td>Staff generally lack direction, skills, and understanding of what the problem is and how best to resolve them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection Process</td>
<td>The selection process relies on selection by failure. The test used to screen students for writing difficulties neither accurately identifies the nature of the students' writing difficulties nor the students experiencing the difficulties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>The current remediation programme generally deals with surface features only and does not attend to major the structural and organisational problems faced by students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Commitment</td>
<td>As COM0101 is a non-award unit, it is very difficult to engender any serious commitment to learning from participants in the unit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship To Other Units</td>
<td>The expectations set in COM0101 bear little relationship to the expectations set in other units. This is shown by students passing written assignments in other units in their course yet not passing COM0101.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited Impact of COM0101</td>
<td>COM0101 deals with students and not the problems arising from the context in which students are operating.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and understandings that are a necessary prerequisite for learning in an academic setting. The consistency of expectations across units will assist in overcoming an important impediment to the development of students' academic literacy because the skills, knowledge, and understandings being developed in a foundation unit would be reinforced in all the other units taken by those students.

The establishment of a foundation unit, the standardisation of expectations and marking practices, and the explicit teaching in all education units of the skills, knowledge and understandings needed to bridge the gap between the culture of the incoming students and an academic culture will ultimately produce graduate teachers who are better equipped with the literacy skills needed for personal empowerment in a complex society and who are also better equipped to cater for the literacy needs of their own students.

Summary of Recommendations

As a consequence of the problems being experienced with COM0101, it is recommended that the Faculty of Education:

1. Abandon the present COM0101 testing and remediation programme.

2. Establish an orientation or foundation unit in the first year of the teacher education course. The unit should contain content relevant to the education course
but focus on providing a bridge between the understandings of incoming students and studying at University by:

2.1 Transmitting the Faculty of Education's requirements and expectations of students, and
2.2 Teaching the structures and processes (reading, writing, and thinking) required for successful learning in the Bachelor of Arts (Education) course.

3. Appoint, in the interim period between the cessation of COM0101 and the commencement of a foundation unit, two Literacy Development Officers, one at Churchlands Campus and one at Mount Lawley Campus, to assist students with their literacy development and to assist in the transition to the foundation unit. The suggested duties of the Literacy Development Officers are:

3.1 To identify students experiencing difficulties attaining appropriate standards of academic literacy.

3.2 To assist students experiencing difficulties to attain appropriate standards of academic literacy.

3.3 To develop a uniform set of expectations for student writing in the Faculty of Education for each year of the undergraduate course.

3.4 To develop criteria, derived from the
expectations for writing, for the setting and marking of assignments in Faculty of Education units for each year of the undergraduate course.

3.5 To assist academic staff in the implementation of new policies and practices pertaining to student literacy.

3.6 To develop and apply means of evaluating the development of students' academic literacy.

3.7 To develop and apply means of evaluating lecturers' achievement of objectives set by the Faculty of Education for the implementation of uniform criteria for the setting and marking of assignments.

3.8 To develop and write a foundation unit, using content relevant to education, which aims to teach the skills, knowledge, and understandings required to perform successfully in an academic setting.

An alternative but less favoured recommendation is that the Faculty of Education:

4. Modify the existing structure and organisation of COM0101 by:

4.1 Finding an alternative means, from the English Skills Assessment test, of evaluating students' writing needs.
4.2 Altering the content of COM0101 to include the structural and organisational aspects of writing.

4.3 Improve the staffing of COM0101 by:

4.3.1 Selecting staff with specific skills in the area of tertiary literacy to plan, organise and teach COM0101 courses.

4.3.2 Providing for greater staff stability by offering longer-term contracts.

Recommendations for Further Research

There are two important aspects of the findings of this research project which require further examination. The first finding relates to the lack of an adequate instrument for screening students for literacy difficulties. The second finding relates to the important part that context can play in students' literacy development.

Research to Develop an Adequate Screening Instrument

The necessity for this research would arise if the Faculty of Education decides to continue with its present emphasis on diagnosis and remediation procedures. In this circumstance, there is a need to develop an instrument which (a) is relatively easy to administer and score, (b) accurately identifies all the variables of
writing in which students are likely to experience problems or contains items in which the students' test performances can be used to predict their performances in real writing situations, and (c) accurately identifies the students likely to experience problems in real writing situations.

The challenge of this research would be to develop and trial an instrument which can be used to predict students' performances in real writing situations but which is not rendered too unwieldy because of problems with marker reliability.

Research Exploring the Interrelationships Between Context and Students' Literacy Development

This study would explore the content and all facets of the organisation and delivery of courses in the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University in order to identify all the factors which contribute to or impede students' literacy development. The purpose of the study would be to theorise and facilitate the development of alternative curricula and alternative ways of organising and delivering courses to maximise literacy development of teacher-education students.

It is envisaged that this study would employ an ethnographic approach involving: direct observation; participant observation; and the use of open-ended, focused and formal interviews. Regular contact, for extended periods time, would be maintained with a sample
of students and lecturers selected for the study. Relevant documentary information, e.g., unit outlines and unit handouts, would also be collected and analysed.

Concluding Statement

Initially, this study was concerned with evaluating the procedures used to diagnose and remediate the perceived writing difficulties of first-year undergraduate students by the Faculty of Education at Edith Cowan University. However, during the conduct of the study, it became increasingly clear that it was not possible to evaluate the impact of the Faculty's diagnosis and remediation practices in isolation from the other factors which impact on students' literacy development. The first part of the study showed the inadequacies of the assumptions underlying both the Faculty's diagnosis and its remediation practices from a perspective derived from a synthesis of a large body of literature relating to writing and the teaching of writing. The second part of the study investigated the English Skills Assessment test, used by the Faculty of Education to screen its first year students for writing difficulties, and concluded that the test did not achieve the purpose for which it was used. In addition, the study showed there were many factors relating to the general environment or context in which students were operating which (a) limited further, the impact of the Faculty's remediation practices, and (b) had serious consequences for students' literacy development.
Some of the conclusions arrived at in this study particularly in relation to the importance of various aspects of the context for literacy development or performance have been documented by others, notably, Taylor (1978), Meyer (1988), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), and Ballard and Clanchy (1988). However, the study has made a unique contribution in that:

1. It has caused some lecturers to reassess their practices in light of the potential impact of these practices on students' literacy.

2. It has exposed the inadequacies of the Faculty of Education's response to a perceived literacy problem among its undergraduate students.

3. It has highlighted some of the Faculty's practices which are inhibiting the literacy development of its students.

4. It has produced detailed recommendations which, if implemented, have the potential to enhance the literacy development of all students enrolled in teacher education courses, both undergraduate and, ultimately, graduate.
REFERENCES


Marshal, L. (n.d.). Learning skills at Murdoch University: The integration of process and content. Unpublished manuscript, Murdoch University, Learning Skills Programme, Western Australia.


Appendix A

Com0101 Unit Description
TITLE OF UNIT: COM101 Communication Competence

PREREQUISITE: Nil

STATUS: Bachelor of Arts (Education)
Graduate Diploma of Education

HOURS/WEEK: One/Two

DESCRIPTION:

The unit introduces students to necessary communication skills which will be employed throughout their course. The first six weeks will be attended by all students. A diagnostic written test and an oral screening test will be taken. Students failing to meet acceptable literary standards will then continue in a needs-oriented part-unit.

OBJECTIVES:

On completion of this unit students should be able to:

1. interpret questions; locate resources; research a variety of topics; demonstrate comprehension of material;

2. write expository essays at a level appropriate to tertiary studies;

3. demonstrate non-verbal and verbal communication skills appropriate to the teaching profession.

UNIT CONTENT:

1. LITERACY SKILLS

1.1 Reading Skills

Comprehension; vocabulary recognition; inference; prediction; and critical evaluation of texts.

Use of features of texts and knowledge of library resource organisation to identify and locate needed materials.

Skim reading; competence in Cloze procedure; summarizing and notetaking.

Varying reading strategies and speed according to purpose and type of material.

1.2 Writing Skills

Production of samples of expository writing to demonstrate the ability to organise materials and ideas.

Essay-writing methodology: brainstorming, drafting, sequencing, logical development, paragraphing.

Referencing and footnoting.
Usage: vocabulary, handwriting, punctuation, spelling, grammar, fluency.

Recognition: ability to proof-read and edit.

2. **ORACY SKILLS**

Clarity and usage: articulation, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar.

Vocal Tone: pitch, pace, tone, volume, intonation.

Connected Speech: pause, phrasing, emphasis, stress

Communication theory.

Non verbal communication: paralinguistics, proxemics, orientation, gaze, kinesics

Oral interpretation of prose: fiction and non-fiction.

Use of voice for teaching.

TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES:

Lectures
Tutorial Groups
Workshops

ASSESSMENT:

Essay
Diagnostic Test: Oral
Diagnostic Test: Written

TEXTS

Murphy, Eamon (1985) *You Can Write*, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.

SIGNIFICANT REFERENCES

Bailey Ambrose, *Audio Tape and Materials*, Curtin University, Western Australia.


Sadler, B. (1981), Spelling Matters, Jacaranda, Milton, Queensland


Appendix B

English Skills Assessment
### Directions to Students

**DO NOT TURN TO THE FIRST PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.**

**English Skills Assessment — Part I** consists of three separately timed multiple-choice tests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>A test which asks you to detect spelling errors</td>
<td>12 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation and Capitalization</td>
<td>A test which asks you to detect errors in punctuation and capitalization in the context of given sentences</td>
<td>20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension I</td>
<td>A test of how well you understand what you read</td>
<td>18 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total time allowed for English Skills Assessment — Part I:** 50 minutes

For each question, there are four possible answers marked A, B, C, or D. You must choose the answer you think correct and circle it on the answer sheet. There is only ONE correct answer to each question.

When you are told to begin, turn to the first test and read the directions printed at the beginning of that test. Then go on immediately to answer the questions. If you finish before time is up, go back and check your work but do NOT go on to the next test in the test booklet until you are told to do so.

Do not waste too much time on any one question. If you find a question difficult to answer, go on to the next one. You may have time to return to the difficult question before you are told to move on to the next test.

If you think you know an answer, write it down even if you are not certain it is correct. Your score will be the number of correct answers. No marks will be deducted for incorrect answers.

If you decide to change your answer, cross it out clearly and circle your new answer like this:

```
X B C D
```

All answers must be marked in pencil on the separate answer sheet.

**DO NOT MARK THE TEST BOOKLET.**
Spelling

Time: 12 minutes

Directions
In each group of words, find the mis-spelt word if there is one and circle the corresponding letter on the answer sheet. If there is no mis-spelt word, circle the letter corresponding to the answer "no error".

Example

A money Answer
B funny
C sunny
D no error

Questions 1-48

3 A accident
   B eccentric
   C acrobatic
   D no error

4 A academic
   B exacerbate
   C acrobatic
   D no error

5 A asleep
   B dishonest
   C upholsterers
   D no error

6 A expensive
   B defiance
   C resistance
   D no error

7 A compartment
   B equipment
   C achievement
   D no error

22 A theoretical
    B rhapsody
    C theatrical
    D no error

23 A apology
    B approach
    C apprehensive
    D no error

24 A calm
    B current
    C employment
    D no error

25 A pyjama
    B feminine
    C engage
    D no error

26 A tolerate
    B Queensland
    C seaplane
    D no error

27 A river
    B soil
    C great
    D no error

28 A imaginative
    B immediately
    C immature
    D no error

29 A conversant
    B obedience
    C brusque
    D no error

30 A acquaint
    B accumulation
    C accurate
    D no error

31 A bushel
    B struggle
    C thieved
    D no error

32 A diadem
    B diaper
    C dial
    D no error

33 A hospitable
    B flexible
    C indispensable
    D no error

34 A suspicion
    B police
    C magician
    D no error

35 A omnipotence
    B maintenance
    C impertinence
    D no error

36 A disagreeable
    B responsible
    C excusable
    D no error

STOP! If you finish before time is up, check your work. Do NOT turn over the page until you are told.
Punctuation and Capitalization

Time: 20 minutes

Directions
The following sentences contain problems in capitalization and punctuation. If there is an error, select the one underlined part that must be changed to make the sentence correct and circle the corresponding letter on the answer sheet. If there is no error, the answer is D.

Example

John Harris and Pam are joining the Boy Scouts.

I. Mr. Brown is going to Europe next week.

III. The maximum recorded away of the Empire State Building, the world's tallest skyscraper, is about three inches.

IV. The footnotes read: "The Day fell on June 6, 1944, the day of the Normandy invasion."

V. Because film is used both to re-create history in documentaries and to record current events in news films, people are now aware that today's news is tomorrow's history.

VI. A dramatic incident occurred during the Second World War when the Graf Spee, a German Battleship, was scuttled off the coast of South America.

VII. Joe consumed the typical breakfast of a hungry football player: a half-loaf of orange juice, two pieces of cereal, a plate of ham, and eggs, and a litre of milk.

VIII. The Argo and the mythology sailed with a fair wind away from Lefkas, past Mount Pelion, and past the wooded hills of Athens.

IX. Overwhelmed by the variety of ice cream flavours, Wally asked: "Whether he could have plain vanilla?"

X. Along the southern frontier of Europe rise the French Alps, a mighty barrier that provides some of the most spectacular scenery in Europe.

XI. The North American opussum, a member of the Biological order Marsupialia, has a broad pouch in which its young develop after birth.

XII. Professor Clark said: "Please bring to class your copy of Sandburg's poem "Jazz Fantasia.""

XIII. 'Ladies' and gentlemen, we now stand before Michelangelo's 'David,' which testifies to the supremacy of the human spirit, striving for freedom,' explained the tour guide.

XIV. Alphonse, who is a real gardener, enthusiastically starts planning his crops for the following year even before the autumn harvest is in.

XV. "Because film has been used to re-create history in documentaries and to record current events in news films, people are now aware that today's news is tomorrow's history," explained Wally.

Go on to the next page

The text's ASV 02 License 215

225
17 Firecrackers, rice cakes, and watermelons are all parts of the celebration of Tet, the Vietnamese New Year's Day.

18 Mrs Roberts asked the township commissioners if their planning board could meet again before the end of the month to settle the dispute?

19 In the 1790s the British colonies in America had a population of over one million people. At the same time, the French numbered less than a tenth of that.

20 King Ethelred tried to put a stop to the endless wars between England and Denmark by giving in to Danish demands for land and ransom.

21 The Nile River, as it winds through the southern part of the Sudan, is primitive and hostile, with crocodiles thrashing about and vegetation floating in tidal channels as large as islands.

22 Samuel E. Morison, the venerable historian, won the Pulitzer Prize for his biography of John Paul Jones.

23 'It's not necessary to rush you're type of this report,' Jennifer said her employer.

24 The address by Senator Throckmorton will be printed in tomorrow's newspaper.

25 The Pythons foreign invaders who ruled more than three millennia ago, introduced the horse to Egypt.

26 From its inception, the Forest Service has been concerned with the development of our nation's woodlands.

27 Levi's First Stepover attempts to paint in the three main characters of Homer's celebrated drama, Iliaden: Achilles, Hector, and Paris himself.

28 India's hottest and most important river, the Ganges, flows in a southeasterly direction, parallel to the Himalaya Mountains.

29 The magnificent frescoes by Giotto that adorn the East walls of Santa Croce in Florence, Italy, were damaged in 1966 by heavy floods.

30 'In times of danger,' emphasized the biologist, 'vertebrates will respond instinctively by fleeing or by fighting, in order to preserve themselves from harm.'

31 The curator said, 'that many of these murals are worthy or a place in the best of our modern galleries.'

32 Judy asked, ‘What are the words to that pretty ode to nature that begins “Flies to thee the blithe sparrow”?’

33 For the luncheon, Mrs Gold used an Irish linen tablecloth, getting silver from England, and her favourite china teapot.

34 The delicately balanced mobile on the terrace of the New York penthouse was called 'The Image of Eternity.'

35 More than any other art, perhaps, wrote H.L. Mencken, 'Music demands brains.'

36 Some scientists think that there is little chance of life on other planets, however, feel that life in some form may exist in space.

37 Although easily trained when young, chimpanzees are difficult to handle after the age of eight. Gentilas, on the other hand, are mistakenly believed to be difficult at any age.

38 Opeh the Dane is not as familiar as other legendary heroes of early Medieval romance, but his exploits are no less marvellous.

39 At the turn of the century, the gracefully curving white plumes of the gents frequently ornamented lady's hats.

40 Most Andrews said, ‘Avoid overworked expressions such as a flash in the pan...’

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Comprehension I
Time: 18 minutes

Directions
Each passage below is followed by questions based on it. Answer all questions following a passage on the basis of what is stated or implied in that passage. Indicate your choice of answer by drawing a circle around the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Questions 1-5

What kind of man do you think the medallion knights really were? If you have always seen them in a romantic light, then you are not alone. But the knights were real people, and the symbols they carried are also real, even if we can no longer see them in such a way. The symbols of the Order of the Garter, for example, are a powerful reminder of the medieval world. They were not just symbols of chivalry, but also of power and authority. The knights were not just knights, but also men of the church. As such, they were part of a complex web of relationships that included the king, the pope, and other powerful men. The symbols they carried were not just decorations, but also powerful tools for communication.

1. According to the author, which of the following was most likely to be elected to the future government?
   A) a son of a knight
   B) a member of the royal family
   C) a younger son of a knight
   D) a member of the clergy

2. According to the author, which of the following was most likely to be elected to the future government?
   A) a son of a knight
   B) a member of the royal family
   C) a younger son of a knight
   D) a member of the clergy

3. The symbol drawn by the hand between medieval knights and modern monarchs is based on part...
   A) three shared ideals: for one, Paris; for two, the times; for three, their love of fighting and violence
   B) the times in which it was, since their excesses
   C) their lack of fighting and violence
   D) their use of fighting and violence

4. According to the author, which of the following knights are people likely to be drawn?
   A) aggressors
   B) physical strength
   C) nobility
   D) wealth

5. The symbol is drawn from...
   A) losing monarchies against their enemies
   B) losing their right to their knights
   C) losing strength against other knights
   D) losing their right to their arms

Questions 6-10

Signs and symbols, sometimes simple and sometimes complicated, were considered necessary to almost every magical incantation or prophecy from prehistoric times down through the Middle Ages, and were almost indispensable in communicating with demons and spirits. The oldest diagram in use is the simple circle — the shape of the all-powerful sun, the egg, the wheel, the laurel tree, the encircling horizon, and the all-seeing eye's iris. The idea of eternity was often symbolized by a serpent coiled into a perfect circle, biting its own tail. Probably the next oldest sign was the triangle. It was thought to be magical because it has three points that had so many meanings. They could stand for earth, sky, and water; father, mother, and child; body, soul, and mind; past, present, and future; infinity of time. In the Christian religion it came to represent the Holy Trinity of God the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost. The many beliefs among some people that there is a magic number, and for the saying that "good things come in threes." The fear of breaking the mystic triangle is also the reason why so many superstitions people refuse to walk under a ladder.

Several of our present-day religious symbols were used in magical incantations ages ago before they achieved a high significance. The cross or the cross, which became the Christian cross, was one of the oldest magic signs. It represented man standing as the center of nature — the whole universe stretching out before and behind him and on every side. The magicians used the cross mark to "pin down" a spirit or a witch or a thought at the intersection of the two lines. This is why someone may still cross his fingers when making a wish and cross his heart when making a promise.

The diagram of two interlocking triangles, now known as the Star of David, has been the symbol of the Jewish religion since the time of the Greeks and Romans. But long before it had been a mystical diagram in a great many societies — from early Judaism adopted it. The sign was still a sign, for magicians and alchemists. The two sides were believed to represent the footprints of a special kind of demon called a grand and used in incantations both by demons and to keep them away. In alchemical formulas the Star of David magically combined two opposite elements: the symbol for fire (a triangle pointing up) and the symbol for water (a triangle pointing down).

But the most powerful and respected of all magical symbols was the pentagram — the figure of five equal sides and angles. Scholars claim that the Star of David, which heralded Israel's birth, was a pentagram. The belief that if these figures were drawn with a single angle pointing up, the symbol stood for God and could be used in consulting the god; pointing down, the sign represented Satan and was thus used for invoking evil spirits.

From Mark Van Doren, "By Gary Jennings Copyright 1964 by Gary Jennings Used by permission of the publisher. The Dial Press Inc.

6. The author's main purpose is to...
   A) discuss the significance of magic in religious ceremonies.
   B) explain the magical significance of various geometric figures.
   C) question the historical background of some prescient-day superstitions.
   D) emphasize the important role that magic played in ancient times.

7. According to the passage, the Star of David was used by alchemists because of...
   A) giving incantations to the spirits of the earth, sky, and water
   B) giving incantations to the spirits of the earth, sky, and water
   C) giving incantations to the spirits of the earth, sky, and water
   D) giving incantations to the spirits of the earth, sky, and water

8. It can be inferred that the circle was the first magical sign because...
   A) primitive man was not able to draw more complicated figures.
   B) primitive man was not able to draw more complicated figures.
   C) primitive man was not able to draw more complicated figures.
   D) primitive man was not able to draw more complicated figures.

9. The author's attitude towards his subject can be best described as...
   A) apologetic
   B) critical
   C) objective
   D) disinterested

10. According to the information in the passage, a person wishing to ensure immortality for himself would be most likely to invoke the power of the...
    A) circle
    B) triangle
    C) cross
    D) pentagram

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Questions 11-15

(The scene is a drawing room. Lady Rutledge and Mr. Oriley come in. They are in Louis XV costume.)

LADY RUTLEDGE: My dear Mr. Oriley, it is sweet of you to come at so short notice. Dorechester's dropping out at the last moment, so Lord Rutledge is in a state of despair.

MRS. RUTLEDGE: Since I arrived last night, it's taken all my time to fit myself into my costume and learn my lines.

LADY RUTLEDGE: I don't know what we should have done without your goddaughter. Our poor aunt, the Duchess, was the most fantastic creature. This idea of leaving us, I am afraid, means that we spend a month here every spring was. I must say, rather touching. The place is deserted where she could never bear to live longer than a week. She spent all winter sitting up, and when the first snow appeared she fled to the Continent. When she returned to Paris for the winter, she always said that the very next April would see her at Breely. When death came, she left us to look after her broken pledges.

MRS. RUTLEDGE: Very defensive, I suppose.

LADY RUTLEDGE: Most certainly a month in the country, with a ball or two, to break the tension, re-examine, and plan as for the clause obliging us to select seven orphans in the next ten years——I mean, of course, the Duke's will. She had a facade, Mr. Oriley, whose duty it was to present her in polite society and clear the streets of them.

MRS. RUTLEDGE: A legacy of remorse perhaps.

LADY RUTLEDGE: As an orphan, I suppose. No Oriley, in my day, can explain the extravagance she chose to pay a young girl's practical joke on her father. I must say, Lord Rutledge took it very well. He adhered to squabbling with my aunt, you know, when the Duchess had finished reading the will. She died in a swimming accident. It is said, in her last weeks, she was sick. She drank twenty little white wines—saw men. I'm sure when I heard her, she turned in her tombstone.

MRS. RUTLEDGE: Yet you shall have the whores I thought I heard — voices that I passed through the garden one night.

LADY RUTLEDGE: Yes, I understand the will stipulated orphans. The world may be blemished even with orphans. That is a tidy reason, Mr. Oriley, to support twenty people with twenty swells and two dozen orphans, retracted ten years, and a thousand and twenty little white wines. The place is deserted where she could never bear to live longer than a week. She spent all winter sitting up, and when the first snow appeared she fled to the Continent. When she returned to Paris for the winter, she always said that the very next April would see her at Breely. When death came, she left us to look after her broken pledges.

MRS. RUTLEDGE: She adhered to squabbling with my aunt, you know, when the Duchess had finished reading the will. She died in a swimming accident. It is said, in her last weeks, she was sick. She drank twenty little white wines—saw them. I am sure when I heard her, she turned in her tombstone.

LADY RUTLEDGE: It's as good a hobby as any other. I suppose. Personally, I prefer my own. This shanty amusement.

STOP: If you finish before time is up, check your work.

11 According to Lady Rutledge, the Duchess made out her will in a manner calculated to
A save her own conscience.
B be of the most benefit to the most people.
C cause friction between Lord Rutledge and his wife.
D cause her beneficiares discomfort.

12 It can be inferred that Briefly is a
A miser.
B small farm.
C large country house.
D luxurious apartment house.

13 It can be inferred that Oriley has come to Briefly in order to
A act in a play.
B help take care of the orphans.
C act as executor for the Duchess's will.
D help to prepare the house for the Charity Ball.

14 According to Lady Rutledge, the feelings for
A Briefly expressed by her aunt were
B similar to her feelings about children.
C in accordance with her actions.
D disapproved of by Lord and Lady Rutledge.

15 Lady Rutledge tells the anecdote about Jules the footman in order to
A illustrate the way in which the Duchess treated her servants.
B gain Oriley's support in her campaign to overthrow her aunt's will.
C support her theory about the inclusion of the orphan in her aunt's will.
D emphasize a difference between her own character and that of her aunt.
**Directions to Students**

*DO NOT TURN TO THE FIRST PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.*

English Skills Assessment — Part II consists of five separately timed multiple-choice tests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension II</td>
<td>A test of how well you understand what you read</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage</td>
<td>A test which asks you to show how familiar you are with standard written English by identifying problems in sentences</td>
<td>15 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>A test which asks you to show that you know what various words mean</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Structure</td>
<td>A test which measures your knowledge of the ways in which parts of a sentence are put together and of what makes a sentence complete</td>
<td>15 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Relationships</td>
<td>A test which measures your ability to relate ideas to each other logically</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total time allowed for English Skills Assessment — Part II: 60 minutes

For each question, there are four possible answers marked A, B, C, or D. You must choose the answer you think correct and circle it on the answer sheet. There is only ONE correct answer to each question.

When you are told to begin, turn to the first test and read the directions printed at the beginning of that test. Then go on immediately to answer the questions. If you finish before time is up, go back and check your work but do NOT go on to the next test in the test booklet until you are told to do so.

Do not waste too much time on any one question. If you find a question difficult to answer, go on to the next one. You may have time to return to the difficult question before you are told to move on to the next test.

If you think you know an answer, write it down even if you are not certain it is correct. Your score will be the number of correct answers. No marks will be deducted for incorrect answers. If you decide to change your answer, cross it out clearly and circle your new answer like this:

```
[ ] B [ ] C [ ] D
```

All answers must be marked in pencil on the separate answer sheet.

**DO NOT MARK THE TEST BOOKLET.**
Comprehension II

Time: 10 minutes

Directions

Each passage below is followed by questions based on its content. Answer all questions following a passage on the basis of what is stated or implied in that passage. Indicate your choice of answer by drawing a circle around the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Questions 1-3

The king is a has never really died. King Kong is killed again and again in the movies and on late night television, as the film itself continues to survive. Its one of the most popular ever made. King Kong has survived the competition of dozens of other monsters — whether Godzilla, our giant spiders, ants, or superheroes — that have come close to losing popularity. More than forty years after his cinematic birth, King Kong is still very much alive.

1. The main subject of the passage is
   A. why giant films are frightening
   B. the difficulties of making good monster movies
   C. the death of Kong Kong
   D. the lingering aspect of Kong Kong

2. Which of the following points does the passage make about Godzillisa?
   A. It battled with Kong Kong in a film.
   B. It continued to make Kong Kong seem that big.
   C. It was made in 1956 and Kong Kong was hugely popular.
   D. It appeared on the screen about the same time as Kong Kong.

3. Which of the following is not explained in the passage?
   A. why people want to see Kong Kong
   B. how Kong Kong dies in the film
   C. in what way Kong Kong is still alive
   D. why movie monsters are created

Questions 4-6

Although more people than ever are gardening today, there could well be a decline in gardening in the near future. Studies show that a large number of younger gardeners, most of them people whose hopes for large savings on food were frustrated by their lack of gardening know-how.

4. According to the passage, the main reason that many people turned to gardening was to
   A. return to the soil
   B. spend less money on food
   C. gain experience in gardening
   D. have supplies of fresh food

5. Many gardeners become discouraged because
   A. they work too little on gardening
   B. they can't afford to buy too much
   C. it takes too long to learn about gardening.
   D. gardening is too much work.

6. The main idea of the passage is that
   A. gardening is a part of the future
   B. people have discovered themselves from nature
   C. gardening dreams are people who give up
   D. gardening is not as simple as many people think.

Questions 7-9

Yosemite Park was taken over by the Federal Government of the United States of America under the National Park Service, in 1890. For several years, however, it continued to be exploited by private mining and livestock interests. In addition, uncontrolled hunting caused the disappearance of the grizzly bear and the big horn sheep by early as 1930. Lacking Federal funds, the Park Service was powerless to prevent each exploitation.

7. Basically, the passage describes
   A. the history of the National Park Service
   B. abuses of Yosemite Park
   C. the ruthlessness of humans
   D. efforts in maintaining the ecology of the national parks.

8. The use of the terms 'exploited' and 'depletion' suggests that the author feels that
   A. private business interests and humans used the park
   B. the land belongs to the public
   C. there is a conflict in nature
   D. efforts in maintaining the ecology of the national parks

9. The passage indicates that, with regard to the Park Service, the Federal Government
   A. gave mining and livestock interests more power than it had given prior to 1890
   B. gave the Park Service only enough funds to limit mining and livestock interests
   C. failed to provide the money necessary to protect the park properly.
   D. should have allowed the Park Service to take over the park.

Questions 10-12

No example of human pride could be more outstanding than that of the male Zulu. These South African tribesmen are one of the world's most beautiful peoples, and they possess an unusual pride in their physical beauty. For the Zulu, a malformed or any visible part of the body is unnatural and hideous. A Second World War hero tells of a wounded Zulu soldier who begged a doctor to shoot him rather than let him live with a torn body.

10. The primary purpose of the passage is to
   A. imply that all people have their idiosyncracies
   B. celebrate the nobility of tribal customs
   C. provide an illustration of unusual pride
   D. show that soldiers as a group are inherently proud.

11. Physical beauty is vital to the male Zulu's
   A. personality
   B. self-esteem
   C. quest for self-esteem
   D. conscientiousness.

12. The information given in the passage suggests that the Zulu considered a
   A. wounded soldier to be a coward
   B. proud man to be unaman
   C. beautiful body to be beneficial
   D. marked body to be offensive.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Characters in fantasies written for children differ significantly from one hundred years to another. Each fantasy in some way holds up a mirror to the culture in which it is produced. When we examine literary fantasy, we look upon a reflection of the social pressures of the period, problems of sex role and personal identity, and the changing role of the artist. What all of these changing patterns mean is the subject of an interesting sociological study.

13 Which sentence best summarizes the passage?
A. Literary fantasies reveal the social realities of their time.
B. What applies to the writer of fantasy applies to other artists as well.
C. Fantasies communicate social pressures to children at an unconscious level.
D. Literature and the field of sociology have much in common.

14 As used in the passage, what is the following word or phrase an example of a metaphor?
A. Fantasies children
B. Mirror, reflection
C. Role, identity
D. Pressures, patterns

15 Which of the following statements would most clearly be supported by the passage?
A. Twentieth-century writers are free-spirited and therefore are not likely to write fantasies.
B. History is taught best through the use of fantasies.
C. Nineteenth-century fantasies are likely to have common features not found in twentieth-century fantasies.
D. A magical character reveals a writer's longing for power.

Do NOT turn over the page until you are told to do so.
Usage

Time: 15 minutes

Directions

Read each of the sentences below and find the error in standard written English in each. On your answer sheet, circle the letter that marks where the error appears. There is no more than one error in each sentence.

Example

I He spoke bluntly and directly to the spectators.
A B C D

II She works every day so that she would become financially independent in her old age.
A B C D

Questions 1-20

1. Local police officers had anticipated some trouble, but there was not hardly an incident during the long rally.
A B C D

2. By the end of the trial, which was more lengthy than any previous held in the state, the jury had listened attentively to evidence from thirty-seven witnesses.
A B C D

3. During the 1920s, huge herds of wild cattle were the sole source of wealth for the entire valley.
A B C D

4. The newspaper learned the thief that the Robinsons had closed their house while they traveled in Jamaica.
A B C D

5. Isolating a virus is usually the first step towards finding a way to combat them.
A B C D

6. Before describing your observations in your notebook, you should be sure to complete the experiment.
A B C D

7. Because Maya Angelou writes so intimately about her own experiences, some readers have become as interested in her life as in her poems.
A B C D

8. Tutankhamen was a capable husband for the Pharaoh's daughter, for he alone had shown a reckless courage and a vitality equal to her.
A B C D

9. Pip is not remembered nearly as vividly as the legendary Miss Havisham, for we remember her those Dickens characters that are unusual in some way.
A B C D

10. If the fame of a classical author depended on the television versions of his work, that fame would not last barely a week.
A B C D

11. Ibadan, in Nigeria, is strikingly different from the kind of city familiar to most Australians and Europeans.
A B C D

12. However carefully we may be in approaching the subject, we cannot claim that our analysis of the results is the only possible interpretation.
A B C D

13. Even though Marieette knew that opportunities for female civil engineers were limited, she accepted the challenge and worked hard to obtain an engineering degree.
A B C D

14. In his lectures, television appearances, and newspaper articles, he serves to impress people about the importance of energy conservation.
A B C D

15. Happily, an accidental meeting in the hotel gave us the opportunity for asking Mr. Fosse for tickets to his current Broadway show.
A B C D

16. As the new president, Mr. Montez demanded that our advertising policy returns to the traditional strategy of emphasizing the durability of the company's products.
A B C D

17. The action of the enzymes assure that the hydrogen peroxide formed in the plant will be changed immediately into water and oxygen.
A B C D

18. Even today, the cultivation of sugar cane on large plantations provide jobs and income for a great many people on the island.
A B C D

19. From all the actors in the play, Floyd Ramsey as a cowardly musician is the most believable.
A B C D

20. The enormous popularity of The Wizard suggests that its audience thoroughly enjoys the high spirits that characterizes this musical.
A B C D

STOP! If you finish before time is up, check your work. Do NOT turn over the page until you are told to do so.
Vocabulary
Time: 10 minutes

Directions
Choose the word or phrase that is closest in meaning to the word in capital letters and circle the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Example
CROSS
A shaky    C powerful
B angry    D proof

Question 1-20

1 SIGN
A revision    C coercion
B indication  D persuasion

2 CONTENTED
A satisfied    C wise
B useful      D smart

3 BREAK
A chafe    C stumble
B fracture  D groan

4 STEAL
A parsley    C peddle
B polite     D petty

5 SUDDENLY
A suddenly    C breath
B abruptly    D breath

6 IMPERVIOUS
A reckless    C responsible
B cautious    D cautious

7 EASE
A oblige      C alleviate
B contribute  D reinforce

8 ABIDE
A lamenation C remain
B dwelling    D corpse

9 REIMBURSE
A repay      C remit
B reinforce   D repair

10 COMPLAINT
A grievance  C admonish
B doit      D contention

11 COMFORT
A unused    C fervor
B equity    D prowess

12 WANE
A decrease    C conceit
B travel      D reconcile

13 AMITY
A friendship C poverty
B indigence  D impudence

14 WINSOME
A done    C charming
B generous    D may

15 INTIMATE
A superfluous C general
B congruent  D familiar

16 AFFRONTE
A pugnacity  C response
B impudence  D insult

17 Languid
A impetus    C listless
B romantic   D magnific

18 ENSUING
A following C foreboding
B pressing    D impending

19 SPURN
A purply    C dispute
B reject    D good

20 INEBRIATED
A loosened  C canceled
B inhibited   D inebriated

STOP. If you finish before time is up, check your work. Do NOT turn over the page until you are told to do so.
Sentence Structure

Time: 15 minutes

Directions
From the four alternatives, select the best version of the part of the sentence printed in bold type and circle the corresponding letter on the answer sheet. Choice A is the same as the original sentence. If you think the original sentence is best, choose answer A.

Example
Ancient Greeks ate with their fingers, wiped them on pieces of bread, and tossed them in the dogs lying under the table.

A tossed them
B tossing them
C tossed the bread
D they tossed

Questions 1-8

1 Now that he is eighteen, he is still afraid of the dark.
A Now that he is eighteen
B Although he is now eighteen
C Because he is eighteen
D Because he is eighteen

2 It was dark, and the child was not home, which caused the mother to become desperate.
A It was dark, and the child was not home, which caused the mother to become desperate.
B When dark arrived and the child was not home, the mother became desperate.
C When dark arrived, the mother became desperate; this was because the child was not home.
D It was dark when the child was not home, and this made the mother become desperate.

3 Made by the experts in the craft, you can be sure that in this furniture only the finest hardwoods have been used.
A Made by the experts in the craft, you can be sure that in this furniture only the finest hardwoods have been used.
B Made by the experts in the craft, only the finest hardwoods have been used in this furniture, and you can be sure that.
C You can be sure that this furniture, made by the experts in the craft, contains only the finest hardwoods.
D You can be sure that this furniture made by the experts in the craft and containing only the finest hardwoods

4 After failing three examinations, Mr. Peters warned Margaret that she might not graduate.
A Mr. Peters warned Margaret that she might not graduate.
B Mr. Peters was warning Margaret that she might not graduate.
C Margaret receives warning from Mr. Peters that she might not graduate.
D Margaret was warned by Mr. Peters that she might not graduate.

5 Standing near the door was a tall man, who had closed it noiselessly behind him, with a red beard.
A door was a tall man, who had closed it noiselessly behind him.
B door, who had closed it noiselessly behind him, was a tall man.
C door, which he had closed noiselessly behind him, was a tall man.
D door was a tall man, who had closed it noiselessly behind him.

6 Soon after beginning the chemical analysis, ten patients were discovered by the scientist to have a high content of sugar in their blood.
A beginning the chemical analysis, ten patients were discovered by the scientist to have a high content of sugar in their blood.
B he began the chemical analysis, the scientist discovered that ten patients had a high content of sugar in their blood.
C beginning the chemical analysis, the scientist discovered that ten patients had a high content of sugar in their blood.
D he began the chemical analysis, ten patients were discovered by the scientist who had a high content of sugar in their blood.

7 That play, A Doll’s House, shocked audiences when it was first produced because it made an issue of women’s social position when few people even thought of the subject.
A produced because it made
B produced, it made
C produced and it made
D produced, because of making

8 Detergents have polluted the water on Long Island, experts predict a water shortage there within ten years.
A polluted the water on Long Island, experts predict a water shortage there within ten years.
B polluted the water on Long Island, experts predict a water shortage there within ten years.
C polluted the water on Long Island, experts predict a water shortage there within ten years.
D polluted the water on Long Island that experts predict a water shortage there within ten years.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Directions
In Questions 9-18, you are asked to arrange sentences in your head. The beginning of each new sentence is printed in bold type. Keep in mind that your new sentence should have the same meaning as the sentence given to you, and indicate your choice of answer by drawing a circle around the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Example

Being a female jockey, she was often ridiculed. A B C D

Rewrite, beginning with
She was often ridiculed...

The next words will be
A. on account of her sex
B. by her being
C. because she was
D. being as she was

Questions 9-18

9 George saw no familiar faces when he looked around the room.
Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. and seeing no familiar faces
B. no familiar faces could be seen
C. George saw no familiar faces
D. then George saw no familiar faces

11 Displaying a sense of responsibility as well as increased bargaining strength, the unions won legal recognition in Great Britain in 1871.
Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. which won them
B. they won
C. and they won
D. as to win

13 Although Leonardo da Vinci is remembered primarily as a gifted painter, he is also recognized as a brilliant inventor.
Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. Leonardo da Vinci is also recognized
B. Leonardo da Vinci's brilliance is also recognized
C. the world also recognizes
D. he is also recognized

14 The Great Gatsby by F. Scott Fitzgerald shows Nick finally returning to his native area. Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. showing Nick finally returning
B. Nick's finally returning
C. which shows Nick's final return
D. Nick finally returns

15 If he had enough money, Fred would go to the movies tonight.
Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. when looking
B. because he
C. although there
D. without enough

18 Ralph Ellison added to modern literature by masterfully portraying the problems of the black man in a white-dominated society.
Rewrite, beginning with

The next words will be
A. a masterful portrayal
B. which was a masterful portrayal
C. in which he masterfully portrayed
D. was by masterfully portraying

STOP! If you finish before time is up, check your work. Do NOT turn over the page until you are told to do so.
Logical Relationships

Time: 10 minutes

Directions

Choose the word or phrase that best completes the meaning of each of the following sentences and circle the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Example:

Mrs. Brown wanted to cook a turkey... she found she did not have the time.

A. but
B. while
C. or
D. consequently

Questions 1-8

1. The public calender has been modernized and enlarged... even in the four-thousand library is being renovated.
   A. but
   B. and
   C. in that
   D. because

2. The Rangers have lost two of their best players because of injuries... they are expected to win the playoffs.
   A. whereas
   B. therefore
   C. even so
   D. afterward

3. The east of China has no peninsulas... wiring has not appealed to the Chinese as it has to people of countries with centuries more appropriate for walking.
   A. When
   B. While
   C. The fact that
   D. Because

4. The shortage of servants... nineteenth-century houses were not designed to be convenient or easily cared for.
   A. Despite
   B. Because
   C. Because of
   D. With

5. Both had enjoyed the novel... she felt uneasy about the test on it.
   A. and so
   B. despite that
   C. until
   D. and yet

6. The name's stem is very simple in its construction... easy to erect and dismantle.
   A. because of it
   B. even though
   C. and therefore
   D. while also being

7. The raccoon is a skilful climber... spends much of its time in trees.
   A. but
   B. and
   C. or
   D. than

8. The professor's definition of art... it is no means now is not one that is commonly used.
   A. which
   B. being
   C. whereas
   D. while

Questions 9-13

9. Disease can damage your health just as... can damage your reputation.
   A. scandal
   B. grief
   C. modesty
   D. truth

10. Lighthouses are to ships just as... is to car.
    A. farm is to tractor
    B. caution sign is to car
    C. skyscraper is to city
    D. chimney is to roof

11. Books are to brains just as candle is to...
    A. chimney
    B. draw
    C. purposefully
    D. character

12. Merry-go-round is to revolve just as... is to pedal.
    A. bicycle is to pedal
    B. pendulum is to swing
    C. scooter is to steer
    D. sailboat is to navigate

13. A command calls for obedience just as a request asks for...
    A. improvement
    B. submission
    C. obligation
    D. compliance

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Directions
In questions 14-20, two or three sentences in bold type are followed by a question or statement about them. Read each group of sentences and then choose the best answer to the question or the best completion of the statement. Indicate your choice of answer by drawing a circle around the corresponding letter on the answer sheet.

Example
The Mallee is experiencing its worst drought in fifteen years.
Wheat prices are expected to be very high this year.

What does the second sentence do?
A It restates the idea found in the first.
B It states an effect.
C It gives an example.
D It analyzes the statement made in the first.

Questions 14-20

14 A blanket of thick fog covered the area.
Visibility there was almost zero.
How are the two sentences related?
A The two sentences establish a comparison.
B The second sentence contradicts the first.
C The first sentence explains the meaning of visibility.
D The second sentence indicates a direct result of the first.

15 Sidney Pollock was neat and clean in the movie.
In reality, villains always need a shave.
What does the second sentence do?
A It follows logically from the first.
B It proves the first to be false.
C It shows that the way an actor looks in a movie is of no significance.

16 That German automobile costs as much as the Italian one.
The Italian automobile is much better looking.
What does the second sentence do?
A They compare the appearance of equally priced automobiles.
B They make a statement about German and Italian motives of style.
C They imply German and Italian automotive engineering.
D They make a judgment about the quality of the German automobile.

17 Rafel does not like water.
He does not like to drink it, swim in it, or wash in it.
What does the second sentence do?
A It states the cause of the first.
B It compares the three things that Rafel does not like about water.
C It emphasizes what is stated in the first.
D It draws a conclusion about Rafel.

18 Horoscopes forecast certain events in a person’s life.
Most scientists do not believe in astrological predictions.
What does the second sentence do?
A It is an example of the first.
B It gives a scientific explanation of what is stated in the first.
C It analyzes the value of what is stated in the first.
D It comments on the validity of what is stated in the first.

19 Whenever the weather gets cold, I want to move to a warmer climate.
Ice skating is fun, however, and you can’t blame me when it’s hot.
What does the second sentence do?
A It describes the reason for the first.
B It implies that the first is illogical.
C It provides an exception in the first.
D It draws a conclusion from the first.

20 At the Museum of African Art the educational program is bold and varied.
Once young visitors enter the museum there are immediately confronted with masks, ritual figures, and ceremonial objects.
What does the second sentence do?
A It gives an example of what is stated in the first.
B It repeats the meaning of the first.
C It draws a conclusion.
D It analyses the first.

STOP! If you finish before time is up, check your work.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE
Appendix C

Com0101 Spelling Handouts
A systematic approach to the teaching and learning of spelling is essential.

In responding to errors in student writing be aware of the:

1. need to distinguish between auditory and visual errors;
2. need to encourage students - they know how to spell most of the word so focus their attention on the part that is difficult;
3. fact that errors are more common in unstressed syllables;
4. fact that most errors can be grouped into categories:
   (a) consonants - to double or not to double
       e.g. occurred, committee, beginning, travelled, offered, difference
   (b) silent letters
       e.g. parliament
   (c) homophones
       e.g. they're, there, their.
       stationery, stationary
   (d) words that look alike and/or are somewhat similar in sound
       e.g. legible/eligible/legal
   (e) unstressed syllable - mute 'e'
       e.g. definite, relevant, privilege, existence, defensible
   (f) improper joining of words
       e.g. alot; infact, incase
   (g) auditory errors - poor pronunciation
       could of, secretary, somethink
2.

SPELLING GENERALIZATIONS

1. In root words such as ERECT and ACCURATE, normally one consonant follows a long vowel, two follow a short vowel.

2. In compounds, double L usually becomes single L.
   e.g. fulfil

3. 'CEED' or 'CEDE'?  
   All words are ' - CEDE'  
   except exceed, proceed, succeed and supersede.

4. 'ICE' or 'ISE'  
   Remember 'nice nouns'. or 'ice is a noun'  
   music practice  
   I practised ...  
   Are you licensed ...  
   Driver's Licence

5. "When it sounds 'ee'  
   'i' before 'e'  
   except after 'c'"
   e.g. believe, chief, deceive, conceit.
   NOTE exceptions : seize, weir, weird, counterfeit, forfeit.
   for other sounds use 'ei'  
   e.g. height, weight, sleigh, rein, reign, leisure  
   neither.
6. **Diacritic final 'e'**

(a) Omit final 'e' before suffix commencing with a vowel

- share + ing
- surprise + ed
- accuse + action
- virtue + ous
- picture + esque
- vice + ious
- grace + ious
  [note: dyeing, canoeing]

(b) Keep final 'e' before suffix commencing with consonant.

- amaze + ment
- hope + ful
- tune + less
- safe + ty
- exact + ly
  [note: argument, truly]

(c) Keep final 'e' before 'a' 'o' 'u' after 'ce' and 'ge'

- courage + ous
- notice + able
- manage + able

7. Final consonant – guidelines as to when to double final consonant when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel.

(a) When words end with CVC (consonant, vowel, consonant) pattern and the vowel is a short vowel, the final consonant is doubled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CVC</th>
<th>example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hop</td>
<td>hopping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trap</td>
<td>trapping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(b) When words of more than one syllable end in the CVC pattern we have to look at the stress pattern to determine whether to double the final consonant. If the stress is on the syllable with the CVC pattern the final consonant is doubled. If the final syllable is not stressed the final consonant is not doubled.

CVC

begin - beginning
occur - occurred
defer - deferred
differ - difference
develop - developed

(c) Do not double final consonants when:

(i) A VVC pattern ends the word

VVC

preen - preening
beam - beaming
shoot - shooting

(ii) a VCC pattern ends the word

VCC

rent - renting
last - lasting

(d) When words of more than one syllable end in 'L' preceded by a single vowel, the final 'L' is doubled when a single syllable suffix beginning with a vowel is added. This pattern ignores the rule of stress.

VC

rebel - rebellion, rebelling
reveal - revelling
fulfil - fulfilled
instil - instilled
distil - distilling, distillation
travel - travelling
5.

[NOTE: parallel - paralleled]

**EXCEPT** with 'ic', 'ish', 'ism', 'ity', 'ise', 'ize'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>formal</th>
<th>formality</th>
<th>formalise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moral</td>
<td>morality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angel</td>
<td>angelic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** medallist, medallion
metallic

crystallize

8. Words ending in 'Y'.

(a) retain the final 'y' if it follows a vowel.

**VC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>guy</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>guys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trolley</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>trolleys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portray</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>portrayal (but portrait)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** pay-paid; lay-laid; gay-gaily, gaiety.

5.

(b) change 'y' to 'i' if it follows a consonant.

**CC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>shady</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>shadier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lady</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ladies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cry</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>cries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tarry</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>tarries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baby</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>babies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXCEPT** with 'ing', 'ist', 'ish' and 'ism'
marry-ing, lobby-ist, boy-ish,
trendy-ism, cry-ing

**NOTE:**
(i) the role the sounds of the words play in determining exceptions

(ii) ladyship, dryness, shyness, slyness

(iii) dryer/drier, flyer/flier
Appendix D

Spelling List
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<th>Academic</th>
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<td>Neighbour</td>
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<td>Emigrant (leaves a country)</td>
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Appendix E

Com0101 Punctuation Handouts
1. **FULL STOPS**

   Full stops are used to mark the end of a sentence.

   They are also used after abbreviations except when the abbreviation ends in the final letter of the word, and as a marker or decimal point in certain numerical measures such as time and money.

   Mr T.J. McArthur       Supt M. Evans

   7.15 a.m.  25 Dec., 1990. $3.50  2.5%

   In abbreviations for organisations the practice is increasingly one of not using fullstops so you will see UWA, WACAE and UNESCO written without fullstops.

   Currently there is a trend to extend this usage so you will see NSW and 7pm written without the full stops. Find out the policy of your organisation/department and use it.

2. **QUESTION MARKS**

   Question marks are used to end a direct question but not an indirect or reported question.

   Did you win the game of tennis?

   "Do you know what happens to little boys on the streets?"

   but not

   One student asked if he could write on another topic.

3. **EXCLAMATION MARKS**

   Exclamation marks are used to add emphasis to emotional statements or interjections. They should be used sparingly.

   What a pain!

   Please!

4. **APOSTROPHES**

   Apostrophes are frequently misused and irritate readers. They serve two functions so learn how to use them correctly.
a. **Contractions**

When letters are omitted, an apostrophe is used to mark the omission.

- it's - it is/was
- they're - they are
- can't - cannot
- won't - will not
- we're - we are
- he'll - he will
- she'll - she will

Note the following points:

(i) Apostrophes need to be used correctly otherwise meaning is lost. In the last three of the above examples, if you leave out the apostrophe, you create three different words: were, hell and shell.

(ii) Learn to use "it's" correctly. It stands for the contraction and not the possessive. No possessive pronoun or adjective uses an apostrophe (its, theirs, his, hers).

The driver of the car demonstrated its power.

b. **Possessives**

Apostrophes are used to show ownership or possession. You must be careful to distinguish whether the noun is singular or plural to use them correctly.

**Singular**

Jane's pen, the lecturer's study, the lady's keys, the child's book, the country's exports.

**Plural**

the Jones's house, the lecturers' requirements, the ladies' bags, the children's bikes, the countries' flags.

Note:

(i) The tail of the apostrophe points to the owner.

(ii) To check if an apostrophe is required, and where to use it, rephrase the statement using 'of' or 'of the':

- the flags of the countries
- the exports of the country
(iii) where a word already contains two or more 's' sounds just add an apostrophe to show possession.

Moses' commandments

princesses' tiaras

There is a trend to this usage for any word ending in 's' such as James' wallet. Check the policy of your organisation/department.

5. **Commas**

Commas are used to help make the meaning of a sentence clear. To be able to locate the main statement in a sentence - practise this.

Any information which is not part of the main statement should be separated from it - usually by commas; occasionally by semi-colons or colons.

**a. Paired Commas**

Sentences frequently include information that clarifies, adds to, or comments on some element of the sentence. In effect, it interrupts the main statement. Such statements need enclosing in a pair of commas through occasionally dashes or parentheses (brackets) may be more appropriate.

- The Governor of Western Australia, Sir Francis Burt, has agreed to open the carnival.
- Ansett, the main sponsors, have undertaken to provide four Perth-Sydney return airfares.
- The director, who has already been approached, has stated that the institution will provide assistance with postage and telephone expenses.

**b. Single Commas**

There are a number of occasions when single commas should be used.

(i) When additional information precedes or follows the main statement (an introductory or concluding phrase).

- Before the introduction of television, more Australians read afternoon newspapers than do now.
- The students will attend rehearsal, later in the day.
(ii) When two main statements are joined by a conjunction, a comma should also be used.

- John has failed two subjects, so he has cancelled his skiing trip.
- The concert will be a fine one, but it will need a lot of publicity.
- The students will attend the graduation ceremony, and later in the evening they will attend a celebration dinner/dance.
- Many children do little reading at home, though they watch a lot of television.

(iii) A single comma may be used to remove ambiguity, though it frequently pays to re-write the sentence. Use a comma or re-write the following sentences to remove the ambiguity.

- She mentioned that she had found some money yesterday.
- A person who lies frequently will also cheat.
- His leaving the country immediately made the police suspicious of him.

(iv) Use single commas to separate items in a series of words, phrases, clauses.

- Students are required to purchase textbooks, laboratory manuals, and stationery.
- The chase took us across a park, into a side-street, through several backyards, and finally into a blind alley, where the thief was caught.
- Afflicted by poverty, stricken by illness, and ignored by the critics he still managed to write one of the great novels of the century.

6. **COLON**

The colon has three functions.

a. To introduce a list or series of items in a sentence.

- She was responsible for the sale of the company's products: children's books, educational texts and reproductions of artworks.
Extended lists may be presented in tabulated form but essentially the same structure applies.

On completion of the course students will be able to:

1. write simple business letters;
2. write a continuous piece of prose of 5–800 words; and
3. demonstrate an understanding of the correct use of capital letters, full stops, commas, colons and semi-colons.

b. To indicate that an explanation will follow.

Among WA forest trees the karri tree is matchless: its size and silver-grey bark give it breath-taking beauty.

The committee faces a dilemma: to award the certificate to the candidate, or to be seen to break the rules governing the course.

c. To introduce a quotation:

The rules state: "On successful completion of the six units in the course a Certificate of Competency shall be awarded."

We all understand what Oscar Wilde meant when he said: "I can resist everything except temptation".

7. **SEMI-COLON**

The semi-colon has two main functions.

a. To link two separate sentences or independent clauses.

- They were different personalities; yet they were close friends.
- Please turn on the air-conditioner; the room is stuffy.

b. To punctuate items in a list when any of the items contain commas within them. The semi-colon is stronger than a comma and indicates the major break in the sentence.

- The lecturer encouraged students to write regularly; and to read articles in *The Bulletin, The Australian, Time Magazine* and *The Economist*. 
ABOUT PUNCTUATION

A little revision......

IN THE BEGINNING WRITING WAS DONE IN CAPITALS LIKE THIS, SOMEONE CALLED BOUSTREPHEDON OR RASTHEOXPLoughs

but as it became more widely used the direction was determined: Indo-European, usually left-to-right; Semitic, right-to-left. Spaces began to mark individual words. It helped, but it wasn't enough.

When we speak, our intonation, stress-pattern, gestures, facial expression and the situation itself give clarity to our message: when we write we have only a few 'points' or 'stops' to indicate the way in which the text is to be interpreted.

Early alphabet writing used only CAPITAL letters: small letters were developed later. We still use capital letters to mark the beginning of a sentence and for headings (Latin: caput - a head) or for emphasis. Medieval scribes decorated capitals to embellish the text and distinguish paragraphs and chapters.

Initial CAPITALS also distinguish people, places and acronyms:
Dr Jecks, Perth, W.A.C.A.E., UWA, UNESCO

The letter I in isolation is always a capital - and note that it then has NO DOT. (Dots were introduced to identify the small 'i' in Gothic and cursive scripts.)

CAPITALS also distinguish between general and specific uses of language:

Smith is a specific person, a smith is a general term for a particular kind of worker.

The colleges must be amalgamated into viable groups.....
(we are thinking of colleges as a general term of reference)

The College Council decided.....
(we are referring to a specific body)

FULL STOPS mark complete sentences:

But - when is a sentence? A sentence is often defined as 'a complete thought' - a subject of topic and something said about it. Properly speaking, it must have a finite verb and its subject, though some modern writers try to reflect the casual nature of speech by using fragmentary utterances. A sense of the subject-verb relationship is the safest guide. Beware, however, of the present participles (ending in -ing) without auxiliaries - they are not finite verbs and cannot make a sentence work.

(c) GM Peel 1988
FULL STOPS mark omissions:

We often abbreviate words to initials, and these should be marked by a full stop, though where acronyms develop the stops are often omitted:

W.A.C.A.E., J.S. Bach, N.B., but UNESCO, RADAR (became "radar" eventually)

Note: Dr Mr Rd (final letter present).

If we omit part of a quoted text we use three stops, and we mark similarly a break or interruption or tailing off:

Whenever we saw him working...we applauded his efforts. He opened the door.....

COLONS introduce lists or examples:

You will need the following: pen, pencil, ruler and eraser.

and link antithetical statements:

Man proposes: God disposes.
Every man has his price: not all are prepared to pay it.

SEMI-COLONS link closely-related clauses; they can substitute for conjunctions to give immediacy to the style; they can help to avoid the staccato effect of short sentences:

He raised his revolver; the intruder fled.

* they may indicate major groups in a list:

He has lived in most states: Maryborough, Victoria; Hahndorf, South Australia; Darwin, N.T.; Launceston, Tasmania.

COMMAS make clear the natural phrasing of a sentence, especially if there is a danger of ambiguity. They should be used sparingly unless they are essential.

* indicate the insertion of additional information into a sentence;

He turned, naturally, towards the East.
He made an alteration, of course, towards the East.
(try that without the commas)

Compare also:

The boys who did well were given certificates.
The boys, who did well, were given certificates.
The Prime Minister, who was standing near, denied the rumour.
He said, "What's that?" and turned back.
"What's that?" he said, and turned back.

* replace 'and' in lists (but not between the final pair):

He took tea, sugar, milk, bread, butter and jam.
APOSTROPHES basically indicate omissions:

- don't (do not), isn't (is not), it's (it is).

* they indicate possession (they mark the omission of part of the case-ending we used to use):

- the man's hats
- the girl's bags

* they indicate plurals ONLY for numbers or individual letters:

Mind your "p's" and "q's".
Dot the "i's" and cross the "t's".
Give me all the 2's and 3's.

QUOTATION MARKS may be single or double. Most modern publishers use a single quotation mark for speech and double for quotations: where both occur together they alternate. Longer quotations are inset, with no quotation marks.

Traditional practice (and that still suggested by the Ministry of Education (Guidelines, p80) is to use two for speech and to alternate for quotations within quotations. It is more important to be consistent with whichever you choose to use, and to ensure that the close is marked as well as the beginning.

Quotation marks are not used in play scripts: stage directions, however, are italicised.

Book titles should be underlined: they appear in print in Italic script. (Quotation marks are no longer recommended in style guides. The underlining tells the printer to use an Italic font.)

They indicate, therefore, that material has been borrowed from some other person, such as the actual words used in speech:

- 'Where are you going' he demanded.
  Compare: He demanded to know where they were going.

- 'I'm going now,' he said, 'or I'll miss the train.'
  She replied, 'You'd better not!'

They indicate the extent of the written text borrowed from some other author, and this must always be acknowledged. (See the current College Referencing Guide for details of the methods of acknowledging sources. It's free – at the bookshop).

They indicate that a word is being used as an example or in an unusual sense:

"cant" means an angle or slope.

This may be done by underlining or a change of typeface, e.g. to Italic.

These people are no longer "slaves" in the proper sense of the word but their conditions of work are no better.
He calls it "work"!
QUESTION MARKS ? and EXCLAMATION MARKS ! indicate variations in the intonation patterns. They are always placed over the full stop at the end of the sentence or utterance, within the quotation marks if these are used:

"What?" he shouted. "Get out of my sight at once!"

Exclamation Marks are also used for effect, or to draw attention, but this is a stylistic device only and should not be encouraged.

PARENTHESES or BRACKETS ( ) are used to show clearly additions to the text, such as references (Jones 1976)
or comments:

He said (and I agreed) that.....

Square brackets [ ] are used to show an editor's insertions: either to correct when there is a palpable error (but the original must be quoted as written):

From the Journal of 1887: There was [sic] no such great organizations for public singing as now exist in 1871, however, vocal music in elementary schools was introduced to the [Education] Code by Mr Forster.
(Journal of the Royal Society of Arts, Vol. xxix, June 10th 1887)
or to indicate the editor's opinion:

[?] doubt or [!] surprise or astonishment

HYPHENS connect two words considered as a unit:

red-letter never-to-be-forgotten

May be used instead of diaeresis in words where affixes bring two vowels or consonants together with possible misunderstanding:

Pre-eminent re-echo
anti-Howard pro-Whitlam post-Fraser
recover/re-cover remark/re-mark

When a word is divided at the end of a line, use a hyphen there.
DO NOT BEGIN a line with a hyphen.

Dashes are longer than hyphens and indicate a break-off in the text; can be used as a spacer for effect; can replace parentheses; are used in dictionaries to avoid repeating the headword of an entry; are used in bibliographies where an author has more than one book quoted:

'I was about to say
'The way I see it — and I'm sure you'll agree — is this...

Appendix F

Com0101 Punctuation Activities
THE USE OF COMMAS

The comma is used:—

1. To separate lists of adjectives, nouns, verbs or adverbs:—
   He bought eggs, tomatoes, a cauliflower and some carrots.
   This is the most complicated, intricate and remarkable piece of machinery I have ever seen.

2. To indicate nouns or phrases in apposition:—
   Miss Johnson, a trained nurse, attended the patient each night.
   Mt Etna, a volcano situated in Sicily, erupted last Tuesday.

3. To make a convenient pause for reading in long, complex sentences.
   Although the winter had set in early, many roads were still passable, but by the end of July the heavy rains had practically reduced traffic to a standstill.

4. After an introductory participial phrase:—
   Having waited until the boat's departure, we waved our last farewell and left.

5. In addressing envelopes, or putting your own address at the top of a letter:— (Remember the full stop at the end of the last line.)

   Mr Henry Collins,
   25 Paternoster Street,
   West Burlingham,
   England.

  Note:—Use commas only when necessary.

Exercise 1

Rewrite the following sentences, inserting the necessary commas:—

1. Having completed the experiments, the boys tidied up the laboratory before going home.

2. This year the heavy frosts have made tomatoes, potatoes, beans and peas very scarce in the local markets.

3. Mr Sydney Baxter, an actor of international fame is to appear in the Shakesperian play, "The Merchant Of Venice".

4. Although the most sensitive compass in the "Southern Cross" was out of order, Kingsford Smith was able to use the magnetic compass and by skilful navigation brought the 'plane to a successful landing at Brisbane next morning.

5. Remembering his father's instructions John began his descent from the mountain an hour before sunset.

6. The noise which seemed to come from afar off and sounded rather frightening at least indicated that they were not far from human habitation.

7. They dozed all through the long hot sleepy train journey.
Exercise 2

Commas are misused or omitted in the following. Rewrite it, using them correctly:

Seldom, had there been such a large crowd at the Mascot Airport. Hearing that the “Southern Cross” was due there on Sunday afternoon 300,000 people gathered, to greet these conquerors of space. As Kingsford Smith Charles Ulm Captain Lyon and James Warner alighted from the plane a tumultuous roar burst, from the waiting throng but all eyes were turned upon Kingsford Smith popularly known as Smithy. It was more exciting than a Royal Visit, a football final or a Melbourne Cup and when subsequently the Federal Government announced a cash award of £5,000 this was further increased to over £20,000 by public subscription. The two Americans Lyon and Warner insisted that the whole of this money should go to the intrepid Australian aviators Smith and Ulm.

Exercise 3

Rewrite the following, inserting commas where necessary:

(i) They ransacked the city for two weeks but could find no trace of the missing man.
(ii) The long dark-green leaves had a fern-like appearance.
(iii) There is no reason of course why you should stay away.
(iv) We may choose for example this piece of material. If we do however we must use a different method of fixing it to the wall.
(v) In the greengrocer's window were lettuces beetroot carrots onions and potatoes.
(vi) Nothing is so attractive in summer as the cool invigorating breath of the sea breeze.
(vii) The man tripped fell and lay flat on the ground.
(viii) Misty rain fog and even falls of snow were reported from areas to the north south and east but to the west of the base camp the weather was uniformly fine.
COMMAS FOR CONVERSATION

Look at this sentence:—

"I don't recognize this part of the world," he commented.

Notice the comma at the end of the actual words spoken and the full stop at the very end. Notice also that the spoken words are enclosed by inverted commas (" ) at the beginning and ( " ) at the end.

Exercise 1

Rewrite the following, inserting a comma at the end of the spoken part and a full stop at the very end. Put in also the inverted commas needed to indicate the actual words spoken.

1. This is the most rugged country I have ever seen he said
2. I have not heard from my son for many years remarked the old woman
3. I am confident we shall win the cricket match said the captain
4. You may help yourself to the oranges said the farmer
5. You will find their house just round the corner said the old man
6. We must hurry if we want to catch the train cried mother
7. I shall help you every way I can the boy promised
8. No doubt he did his best the woman assured us

When the "said" part comes at the beginning of conversation, it is followed by a comma. For example:—

The man said, "That is the best price I can offer you."

Note the full stop at the end, also the inverted commas to indicate the actual words spoken. Note, too, the capital letter to begin the actual words spoken.

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following, inserting commas, inverted commas and full stops where necessary:—

1. Mallinson said I very much doubt if he can land here
2. The man said it seems too good to be true
3. The boy replied I shall be ready at half past seven
4. A gruff voice called please come in
5. The man paused before he answered I have not seen him for two weeks
6. With a smile the woman said I am grateful to you for your help
7. The man pointed to the hills and said there was gold found there many years ago
8. The policeman advised drive carefully and you will be all right
QUOTATIONS AND QUOTATION MARKS

Exercises

1. Rewrite each of the following, using quotation marks to show the words actually spoken in each case.
   (a) But what are they for? asked Alice.
   (b) I hardly like to think so, said Tom.
   (c) The girl replied I am afraid I do not understand you.
   (d) Have you seen my pen said the boy because I left it here.
   (e) On Saturday he said I hope to go to the football match.
   (f) To arms! to arms! he cried. Will you still be slaves?
   (g) I shall certainly come, replied he, unless it should rain.
   (h) And now tell me, said the man, his voice trembling a little, who has done this terrible thing.
   (i) The boat is sinking the captain shouted. Save yourselves if you can.
   (j) What is wrong with your car, said the man, is that it needs some petrol.

2. Rewrite each of the following so as to show the actual words spoken. (The first is done for you.)
   (a) The boy said that he was very sorry.
       (The boy said "I am very sorry.")
   (b) The man asked where the picture was to be hung.
   (c) The girl announced that the rain was now falling heavily.
   (d) We inquired at the station if the bag had been found.
   (e) I asked him if he could tell us the way to the railway station.
   (f) He replied that it was several miles to the nearest railway station, but that a bus would soon be passing which would take us there.
THE SETTING OUT OF DIALOGUE

Towards the end of the extract, Lew and Rahilly speak to one another. Study the way their spoken words are set out and punctuated. Note especially:

1. The beginning of each person's dialogue starts on a new line.
2. These new lines are always indented as in ordinary paragraphs.
3. Inverted commas enclose the actual words spoken.
4. Punctuation is the same as for ordinary narrative. The final punctuation mark is placed inside the inverted commas.
5. When people speak they often use abbreviations—"what's", "don't", "we'll", and so on. Note the apostrophe used to indicate an omission.
6. Notice, in particular, the sentence:

   Rahilly let the smoke trickle from the corner of his mouth.

   This is placed on a separate line and it is also indented. It is not part of the dialogue, so no inverted commas are used.

Exercise 1

The following is correctly punctuated but it is not properly set out. Write it as it should be.

"Well, here we are at last," said Harry, as he lowered his heavy pack to the ground. Martin put his pack down, too. "Golly," he said, "I'm sure glad to get rid of that. How far d'you think we've hiked today?" Harry did some calculations in his head. "Oh, about eight and a half miles, I suppose," he said presently. Martin looked disappointed. "Is that all? It seems more like eighty and a half to me!"
Exercise 2

In the following, the setting out is correct but the punctuation marks have been omitted. Rewrite it, inserting the necessary punctuation marks.

Excuse me said the old man. Can you tell me the way to the hospital?

Its about half a mile from here. I told him. Your best plan is to go along this road until you come to Webster Street and then turn left. You will see it quite plainly as soon as you turn the corner.

Thank you my boy.

The old man peered earnestly at my face.

You know you remind me of someone I knew a long time ago. he said. Your name wouldn't be Woods by any chance would it?

Yes I said. Trevor Woods.

Well well. fancy that. now Your grandfather and I went to school together in this very town. Tell me is he still alive?

Of course and well too I replied. Why here he comes now.

The old man turned in the direction I pointed. His face lit up in a smile as he started towards my grandfather. When he came opposite him I heard him say:

Well if it isn't young Harry Woods I bet you don't know who I am.

Exercise 3

In the following all punctuation marks and capital letters have been omitted. Rewrite it as it should be, remembering to observe the correct setting out.

Good morning madame is there anything I can do for you? the shop assistant was a young man. indeed he was little more than a boy at first sight I was somewhat shocked by his appearance. his hair was untidy. his clothes were unusual and my first reaction was to go to another shop. however there was something about him that attracted me. he had a frank open gaze and his manners and speech belied his appearance. yes I said. I would like to see your range of curtain material. we have a very large range madame. I would like to show you our latest stock of nylon curtaining will you please step this way? he led me to a corner of the shop and lifted down several rolls of material these are. all of first-rate quality he explained. they hang beautifully and are easy to launder. they will outlast ordinary curtains by several years. your choice no doubt will depend on the colour scheme of the room for which they are required. I saw at once that the quality was excellent and very soon chose a piece with a pattern of small pink rosebuds. I'll have six yards of this please. I said. he measured the material folded it carefully and wrapped it up. I walked out of the shop thinking how well the curtains would match the pink carpet of my bedroom and also charmed by the young mans manners and speech next time I said to myself I shall not judge a person prematurely because he happens to be what they call a progressive dresser.
The following is a mixture of conversation and narrative. Rewrite it, putting in all necessary punctuation, and being careful to begin a new line when one or the other of the two characters begins to speak.

how is this to be done I asked the old man smiled craftily looking at me as if he didn't know whether to trust me or not with his secret if I tell you he said will you promise not to mention it to a soul no I said I cannot promise you that then I cannot tell you he shook his head you see this is something which could be of great service to our country if it fell into a traitors hands he might pass it on to the enemy but I am no traitor I replied I am a loyal servant of the queen how can I be sure of that he asked thereupon I took out my wallet and showed him my commission bearing the queen's signature of course he said I should have known I could trust you now listen carefully this is how it is to be done

Rewrite the following, inserting all necessary punctuation marks and capital letters. Begin each new conversation on a new line.

white fang was a dog renowned for his fighting ability his owner grey beaver was prepared to back him against any other dog one day he met another indian named deerskin joe my dog is better than yours said deerskin joe the only way to prove that replied grey beaver is to set them at one another so a fight was arranged and people came from all the near by villages to watch it at first it seemed that deerskin joes dog was the better of the two but presently white fangs superior skill became apparent when he leapt upon the other dog and would have torn him to pieces grey beaver ran into the ring and dragged them apart youve a good animal there he said in a years time with proper training hell be a champion will you sell him to me its a deal said deerskin joe you can have him for a hundred dollars
EXERCISE 1

PUNCTUATION EXERCISES FOR REVISION

1. Write each of the following with the necessary stops and capitals:
   (a) hartovery place was really a grand place even for the rich north country with a house so large that in the frame-breaking riots which tom could just remember the duke of wellington and ten thousand soldiers to match were easily housed therein.
   (b) i cannot stop to tell you of the adventures that befell theseus on the road to athens it is enough to say that he quite cleared that part of the country of the robbers about whom king pittheus had been so much alarmed.
   (c) in that same village and in one of those very houses which to tell the precise truth was sadly time-worn and weather-beaten there lived many years since while the country was yet a province of great britain a simple good-natured fellow of the name of rip van winkle.

2. The following are actually verses of poetry. Write them correctly.
   (a) what is so rare as a day in june then if ever come perfect days then heaven tries' earth if it be in tune and over it softly her warm ear lays.
   (b) they now to fight are gone armour on armour shone drum now to drum did groan to hear was wonder that with the cries they make the very earth did shake trumpet to trumpet spake thunder to thunder.
   (c) then round and round and out and in all day the puzzled sage did spin in vain it mattered not a pin the pigtail hung behind him.

3. The following paragraph is written without capitals, stops, or spaces. Write it as it should be written.
   thatnightsuchafrostensuedaswehadneverdreamedofneitherread inancientbooksoorhistoriesthehollowbythefirefrozeandthecrockupon thehearthmanymenwerederilledandcattleintheirheadropestheni heardthatfearfurlsoundwhichihaveneverheardbeforgethesharp yet solemnssoundoftreesburstopenbythefrostblow.
Appendix G

Tutor 1 Practice Activity for Subject-Verb Agreement
3. VERB FORM.

All verbs, except the various forms of be and some helping verbs, end in s or es in the third person singular of the present tense. That is, when the subject is singular, the verb ends in s; no s when the subject is plural.

REWRITE THE FOLLOWING TWO PARAGRAPHS IN THE PRESENT TENSE.

I found the old man at home. As usual, he was sitting on the front verandah waiting for me. We sat and talked awhile. He invited me to dinner. I decided to join him. His dog, Joe ate with us. John tossed him bones and some bread. Joe chewed the bones and also chewed my shoes. John ate slowly. He talked a great deal. We traded jokes and stories. We thoroughly enjoyed each other's company. John said goodbye glumly. I saw him through the window for the last time. He had filled his pipe and was sitting by the fireplace rocking slowly back and forth.

Evelyn chopped the wood for the stove, cooked breakfast, and kissed Randy goodbye. He went to the sawmill. He worked there everyday. For lunch she and a neighbour were planning to catch fish in the brook. After lunch she cleaned the cabin, chopped some more wood, weeded the vegetable garden, and set some rabbit traps. She brought home the rabbit caught the previous day, skinned it, and cooked it for tea. Later in the evening when Randy got home tired from work at the mill. He told her how easy she had it at home.

REWRITE THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPH SO ALL OF THE SUBJECTS ARE PLURAL

The typical harbour tugboat has a crew of about six men besides the captain. The mate helps the captain. A deckhand takes care of the huge ropes used on a tug. The chief engineer has charge of the engines. The oiler oils them and keeps the engine room clean. The fireman feeds the engines fuel. The cook, of course cooks. The crew quickly learns the necessary teamwork to operate the boat efficiently.

THE RULE REGARDING SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT CONTINUES TO APPLY EVEN IN SENTENCES WHOSE SUBJECTS AND VERBS ARE SEPARATED BY PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

REWRITE THE FOLLOWING PARAGRAPH IN THE PRESENT TENSE.

Computer specialists from many countries attended a conference in Sydney. The delegates at the business meeting voted on some important issues. Questions by one of the delegates confused the new chairman. Most of the delegates were bored by the speeches. One of them, over the objections of several diehards, moved a motion for an adjournment. The chairman, under pressure, called the question. Almost everyone in the room voted to end the meeting. The chairman, with the overwhelming support of the delegates, provided welcome news. Drinks were being served in the lobby.
Appendix H

Tutor 1 Weekly Outline of Workshops
USAGE

WEEK 1

1. IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH SENTENCES
2. IT'S, ITS
3. WHO, WHOM, WHICH, THAT

WEEK 2

1. IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING COMMON ERRORS IN ENGLISH SENTENCES
2. INTRODUCTION TO SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT
   (A) PLURAL FORMATION * REGULAR
       * IRREGULAR
       * BOTH SINGULAR & PLURAL
       * SINGULAR ONLY
   (B) PERSON - FIRST, SECOND, THIRD (SINGULAR & PLURAL)
   (C) VERB FORMATION IN THE PRESENT TENSE.
3. CHANGING PARAGRAPH FROM PAST TO PRESENT TENSE ENSURING AGREEMENT.

WEEK 3

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT CONTINUED
1. CHANGING PARAGRAPH FROM PAST TO PRESENT TENSE ENSURING AGREEMENT.
2. CHANGING PARAGRAPH FROM SINGULAR TO PLURAL SUBJECTS ENSURING AGREEMENT.
3. CHANGING PARAGRAPH FROM PAST TO PRESENT TENSE ENSURING AGREEMENT WHERE SUBJECT AND VERB SEPARATED BY PHRASES.

WEEK 4

1. SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT - EVALUATION EXERCISE - EDITING A THREE PAGE TEXT ENSURING SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT.
2. INTRODUCTION TO THE FORMATION OF VERB TENSE
   a. PRESENT TENSES
      PRESENT,
      PRESENT PERFECT,
      PRESENT PROGRESSIVE,
      PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.
   b. PAST TENSES
      PAST,
      PAST PERFECT,
      PAST PROGRESSIVE,
      PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.
   c. FUTURE TENSES
      FUTURE,
      FUTURE PERFECT,
      FUTURE PROGRESSIVE,
      FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE.
3. IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING TENSE SHIFTS IN SENTENCES.

WEEK 5

1. FORMATION OF VERB TENSES CONTINUED.
2. IDENTIFYING AND CORRECTING TENSE SHIFTS IN SENTENCES.
WEEK 6

WRITING EXERCISE
"DESCRIBE AN ACTIVITY THAT HAPPENED IN THE PAST AND COMPARE IT WITH SOMETHING THAT HAPPENED IN THE MORE DISTANT PAST. FOR EXAMPLE, YOU MAY COMPARE TWO SPORTING EVENTS, TWO PICNICS, TWO CHRISTMAS OR BIRTHDAY CELEBRATIONS OR FAMILY VISITS."

1. WRITE FIRST DRAFT
2. EDIT.

WEEK 7

1. LECTURER CONFERENCE
2. SECOND DRAFT
3. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

WEEK 1

OVERVIEW - FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEXT COHESION AND COHERENCE

a. WHOLE TEXT - STRUCTURE & FORM
b. INTER-PARAGRAPH - REITERATION AND DISCOURSE MARKERS
c. INTRA-PARAGRAPH - DISCOURSE MARKERS AND COHESIVE TIES.

WEEK 2

1. TYPES OF SENTENCES
2. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE (SUBJECT - VERB - OBJECT/COMPLEMENT)
3. THE USE OF ADJECTIVAL AND ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS (WORDS & PHRASES)
4. COMPOUNDED SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS
5. COMPOUND SENTENCES - COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS
6. COMPLEX SENTENCES - SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS
7. TEXT CONSTRUCTION - EXERCISES AT THE SENTENCE LEVEL

WEEK 3

1. EXAMPLES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF TRANSITIONAL WORDS.
2. OTHER AGENTS OF COHESION - DELETION & SUBSTITUTION
3. ANAPHORIC CHAINING EXERCISE
4. TEXT CONSTRUCTION - EXERCISE AT THE PARAGRAPH LEVEL

WEEK 4

TEXT CONSTRUCTION EXERCISE - WHOLE TEXT (RECOUNT)
USING TRANSITIONAL, WORDS, COHESIVE TIES, ADJECTIVAL & ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS, ETC. STUDENTS COMBINE IDEAS AND SENTENCES TO PRODUCE A SINGLE COHERENT, COHESIVE TEXT.

1. READ TEXT
2. COMMENCE FIRST DRAFT
WEEK 5

TEXT CONSTRUCTION EXERCISE - WHOLE TEXT (RECOUNT WRITING) - CONTINUED

1. COMPLETE FIRST DRAFT
2. EDIT
3. LECTURER CONFERENCE
4. COMPLETE SECOND DRAFT

WEEK 6

TEXT CONSTRUCTION EXERCISE - WHOLE TEXT (PERSUASIVE WRITING) USING TRANSITIONAL, WORDS, COHESIVE TIES, ADJECTIVAL & ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS, ETC. STUDENTS COMBINE IDEAS AND SENTENCES TO PRODUCE A SINGLE COHERENT, COHESIVE TEXT.

1. READ TEXT
2. COMMENCE FIRST DRAFT

WEEK 7

TEXT CONSTRUCTION EXERCISE - WHOLE TEXT (PERSUASIVE WRITING) - CONTINUED

1. COMPLETE FIRST DRAFT
2. EDIT
3. LECTURER CONFERENCE
4. COMPLETE SECOND DRAFT
Appendix I

Com0101 Sentence Combining Activities
1. SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

The game was over.  
The crowd was excited.  
The crowd left the stadium.  
The crowd filled the streets.  
The streets were narrow.

The game was over, and the excited crowd left the stadium and filled the narrow streets.

After the game was over, the crowd, which was excited, left the stadium and filled the narrow streets.

The narrow streets were filled by the excited crowd who left the stadium after the game.
2. PARAGRAPH CONSTRUCTION

SAMPLE CONSTRUCTIONS

Sam, who is the pizza chef, removes the pizza deftly from the oversized oven. The pizza is hot and steamy. The cheese is yellow and it bubbles over the tomato sauce and the pepperoni. As the pizza cools, the waitress eyes it with hungry envy. She also inhales the delicious odours. When the pizza is finally ready, the waitress delivers it with resignation. The customers accept it eagerly.

Sam, the pizza chef, deftly removed the hot, steamy pizza from the oversized oven. The yellow pizza cheese bubbled over the tomato sauce and the pepperoni. While the pizza cooled, the waitress, hungrily eyeing it with envy, inhaled the delicious odours. When the pizza was finally ready, the waitress delivered it with resignation to the eager, accepting customers.

The hot steaming pizza is deftly removed from the the oversized oven by Sam the pizza chef. The cheese bubbles over the tomato sauce and pepperoni. Hunggrily, the waitress enviously eyes it, inhaling the delicious odours, while it cools. Finally it is ready, and she resignedly delivers it to the eagerly accepting customers.

Yellow cheese bubbles over the tomato sauce and pepperoni as Sam, the pizza chef, deftly removes the hot steamy pizza from the oversized oven. Hunggrily the waitress eyes the cooling pizza, and enviously she inhales the delicious odours. With resignation she delivers the pizza to the customers, who accept it eagerly.
SHARKS’ PERCEPTIONS

1. Sharks have a sixth sense.
2. The sense is electric perception.
3. Humans do not have this sense.
4. This is a fact.
5. The fact has been confirmed.
6. The confirmation is recent.
7. Research has confirmed it.
8. Scientists discovered something.
9. The discovery was made nearly fifty years ago.
10. The discovery was the following.
11. Sharks avoid something.
12. They avoid something every time.
13. The sharks are blindfolded.
14. A steel wire is placed in their path.
15. The steel wire is rusty.
16. The sharks do not swim into the steel wire.
17. Scientists were at a loss.
18. The loss was for a long time.
19. They could not explain this phenomenon.
20. Then Adrianus Kalmijn and Kenneth Rose determined something.
21. They determined it by experiment.
22. Sharks respond to a field.
23. The field is electric.
24. The field is weak.
25. The field is put out by the wire.
26. Virtually every living thing creates an electric field.
27. The electric field is weak.
28. The living things are in water.
29. Scientists have reasoned something.
30. Sharks have an ability.
31. Sharks can sense something.
32. The sensing is of impulses.
33. The impulses are weak.
34. The impulses are electric.
35. Sharks might use the ability.

36. The ability might be related to selection.
37. Possible sources of food are what may be selected.
38. Researchers would test this theory out.
39. They would cut up some fish.
40. The fish would be dead.
41. These fish would have a strong odour.
42. These fish would not have a field.
43. The field they would not have would be electric.
44. The researchers would place fish in a tank.
45. The fish would be dead.
46. The tank would contain sharks.
47. The researchers would also place some electrodes.
48. The electrodes would be live.
49. The placement would be in the same tank.
50. The placement of the electrodes would be some distance from the fish.
51. The researchers hypothesis may be correct.
52. Then the smell of the fish would attract the shark first.
53. But the shark would attack the electrodes.
54. The sharks would presume something about the electrodes.
55. The electrodes were its food.
56. What did the hypothesis predict?
57. That did in fact happen.
58. More experiments showed something about sharks.
59. Sharks are attracted.
60. The attraction is definite.
61. The attraction is to electric fields.
62. The electric fields can be produced by living creatures.
63. The electric fields can be produced by electric gadgets.
64. The electric gadgets are made by men.
65. Then the researchers concluded something about sharks.
66. Sharks use their sixth sense.
67. The sixth sense is of electric perception.
68. They use it wherever possible.
69. They use it for this reason.
70. They find their prey.
Appendix J

Tutor 1 Usage Test
Crime stoppers

Current fashions fights crime. Michael Harris discovers this one night while on his way to a Northbridge Hotel after seeing a movie in town. The movie ended at 12:15, and Mike leave the picture theatre alone. No taxis are available, so after Mike waited a while he decide to walk. Seven blocks separate him from his hotel, and few lights illuminates the streets.

As sinister shadows stretches across the pavement, hollow steps echoed behind him. Mike hears the threatening sounds and quickened his pace. His pursuers quicken theirs. Mike prayer for a passing police car. Few cars passes; he's completely alone in the night. No saviour appear. He run into the alley. Ill-tempered cats yowls as he passed. He try to elude his followers by hiding in the dark alley. Their patience matched his; they wait for him to come out. Mike decide to make a break for it. He streaks down the laneway and crashed into a rubbish bin. The three young larrikins almost catches him, but he escaped for the moment. Mike lost his way until suddenly he come out on a familiar street. He hurry down it. However, the youths persists in the chase. A block from the hotel they overtake him.

Mike realize that he be no match for all three of them but offers to take one of them on at a time. The sporting offer amuse them, and they agreed. The first larrikin steps forward. Mike pull the thug's large hat over his eyes and delivered a hard right to the jaw. The embarrassed larrikin crash to the footpath. The second assailant, wearing silver studded, seven-inch platform shoes, approach him warily. Before Mike see an opening, the fellow topple off the curb and sprained an ankle. He curse from the gutter while the third would-be mugger pull a knife. His tight knit pants and long, voluminous coat hamper his movements, and the knife become entangled in his coat. Mike trips him and
tied him up with his long silk scarf.

A police car finally materializes, and Mike tells his story. The policemen haul the would-be muggers off to jail. Mike walks the rest of the way to his hotel unmolested and enter laughing. Jeans and a windcheater may not be elegant attire, but they has their advantages.

(2) EDITING:

A. CHOOSE AND CIRCLE THE CORRECT PRONOUN IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES

1. Maria, Lucy, and (I, me, us) went to the dance early.

2. They met all the basketball players except those (who, whose, whom) had been injured in the fight.

3. The family doctor, the radiologist, and (I, me) agreed that she needed the treatments.

4. Ferdinand, Harry, and (he, him) never got there.

5. They gave all of (we, us) students the wrong information.

6. The company sent the crate of coconuts to Suzie, Kate, and (she, her).

7. The women (who, whose, whom) tools I borrowed is a friend.

8. The house belongs to the bank and (I, me)

9. I wanted to give everyone, but especially (she, her) a gift.

10. (We, Us) teachers were also evacuated.

11. Everyone kept (his, their) hat on.

12. Each of the plans has (its, their) advantages.
13. Everybody who brings (her, their) husband gets a prize. (She, They) will also be given a free dinner.

14. The people, with (who, whose, whom) I live, are very nice.

15. Light beer is obviously designed for people (who, whose, whom) don't like beer.

16. The first group (who, which) arrives at the airport will be greeted by a special committee. (It, They) will be given the keys to the city.

17. Members of the committee are working at (their, his) homes. (They, It) will meet on Monday. The committee will make (its, their) report on Monday.

18. The band travelled to (its, their) destination.

19. The members of the band tuned (its, their) instruments.

20. Everyone that comes with us must guard (its, their, his/her) belongings carefully.

21. The arrangement must be agreed upon by you and (I, me).

22. No one was kinder to the newcomer than (he, him).

23. (Who, Whom) passed you the hot sauce.

24. The police officer was as annoyed as (I, me).

25. (Who, Whom) did you share your lunch with?

26. Have you marked (they, their, there, they're) papers.

27. Georgina and (I, me, myself) will handle the publicity for the concert.

28. It's (him, he) (who, whom) will reap the benefit from Harry's misfortune.
23. Maxine won’t speak to either (you, yourself) or (I, me, myself).

30. (Who, Whom) did you ask to mail your letters?

B. WRITE A CORRECT VERSION OF EACH OF THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES. NOTE THERE MAY BE MORE THAN ONE CORRECT VERSION.

1. Luella told Linda that she had given Lucy the wrong advice.

2. My grandfather gave my father this book when he was thirty years old.

3. The child hurled the toy at the flower pot and broke it.

4. Someday you may need to know how to change a tyre. It usually happens when you have a limited amount of time to get where you are going.

5. You can ask my friends what I know about changing tyres. I seem to have an epidemic of them.
COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING IN THE APPROPRIATE TENSE USING THE VERBS IN BOLD ITALICS. THE VERBS APPEAR IN THE ORDER THAT THEY ARE NEEDED.

A. Oil in the North Sea

*increase* become *look for* *drill* *discover* *construct* begin  
drill *use* *stop*

In the last 50 years, consumption of oil ______ greatly, and now many governments ________ worried about future deposits of the precious fuel. As a result oil companies at present ________ oil deposits in new areas. For example, Phillips Petroleum, which ________ exploratory wells in the North Sea, ________ a large deposit of oil near Norway in 1969. They soon ________ a large platform and ________ to extract oil from the well. Since then, many other countries ________ oil and gas wells in the North Sea, and now Great Britain and Norway ________ this oil and gas instead of expensive imported fuels. Before long these countries ________ importing fuel from the Middle East because of the North Sea discoveries.

*work* *bring* *flow* *lay* *die* *work* *break* *begin*

However, the deposits in the North Sea are not easy to exploit. Men ________ on oil platforms 50 or 100 kilometres from the shore, in the middle of a rough sea. Everyday helicopters ________ men and supplies from Scotland or Norway. The oil ________ to the mainland through underwater pipes. Divers ________ these pipes using special underwater welding equipment. But the work is dangerous, and in the last ten years many divers ________.

There are many different kinds of problems related to this sort of oil exploration. In 1977, for example, some men ________ on a valve on a platform near the Norwegian coast when suddenly the valve ________ and oil ________ to shoot into the air with tremendous force. It was impossible to stop the
arrive repair

leak until the famous Red Adair ______ from Texas and ______ the valve.

B. Angela Bertolini

live want apply wait know get

Angela Bertolini is now 21 years old. She has just finished her first degree in Archaeology and is not sure what to do next. At the moment she ______ with her parents in Morley, but she ______ (not) ______ to stay there. She ______ for a job in Sydney, and is ______ for the answer now. She ______ (not) ______ whether she ______ the job or not but she's hoping for the best.

leave go be work want

Three years ago Angela ______ secondary school and ______ to the University of Western Australia. It ______ a struggle, because she needed to work part-time to help support herself. At the moment she ______ as a waitress at the Oyster Beds in Fremantle, but this is only temporary; she really ______ to go to Sydney.

see write plan change decide

Yesterday Angela ______ an advertisement for a job for a temporary research officer at the Western Australian Museum. She ______ a letter of application in the evening. She ______ to post the letter in the morning, but she ______ her mind and ______ to take the letter herself. Here is part of her interview with the director.
**finish receive study**

* Good morning, it's Angela Bertolini, isn't it?
* Yes, that's right.
* ______ you ______ your studies at the university?
* Yes, I ______ my results last week.
* What ______ (you) ______?
* Archaeology.

* What plans ______ you for the future?
* Well, I ______ to go to Sydney later on, to work at the museum there.
* I see. How long ______ (you) ______ with us if I ______ you a job?
* Well, at least three months. The job I applied for in Sydney ______ (not) ______ until April next year.
* Right, I think you ______ the work. You can start work here tomorrow.

C. John Smith

**spend leave be gone study become work describe sell**

John Smith, the author of this book, is 55 years old. He ______ his childhood in India in the 1930s, but he ______ India when he ______ 13 years old. He ______ (not) ______ back since.

From 1916 to 1919 he ______ law at the University of Sydney, but after graduating he ______ (not) ______ a lawyer. Instead he ______ ______ as a steward on an ocean liner for some years. In recent novels he ______ ______ that experience.

All Smith's novels have been very successful, and his first novel, "The Tower", ______ ______ over two million copies since its first publication by Penguin eight years ago.
Ten years ago, John Smith married Marjorie Jones and they now live in a farmhouse on the coast at Margaret River. They have two children, Roger and Jane. John wrote at least 2,000 words every morning, and then he and Marjorie played tennis or swam in the sea in summer. John also taught English Literature at the Margaret River District High School for the last three years. In those years he wrote three novels and he still on a fourth. His novels have already won two international prizes.

(4) EDITING:

THE FOLLOWING ESSAY SHOULD BE RE-WRITTEN SO THAT IT IS TOLD IN THE THIRD PERSON AND FROM AN OBJECTIVE POINT OF VIEW. EDIT CAREFULLY AND ATTEND TO ALL PRONOUN SHIFTS AND ANY OTHER INCONSISTENCIES.

NoteTaking

The ability to take good notes is essential to the student who is bombarded with new information everyday. Your success at college may well depend on how efficiently you can organize and learn what you read in your textbooks and what you heard in lectures. The student, who lets information wash over him without capturing the important details in the form of careful notes, will not remember what he has heard or read. Then, when it comes time for you to write assignments or sit exams, you have real problems.

Some students fill notebooks with unrelated bits of information, which proves to be useless when you try to review your notes. He or she finds they waste more time trying to make sense out of a cryptic message than he does studying the material. For example, "1905 IMPORTANT DATE!!! Aborigines" No one can possibly tell from this note why 1905 was important to Aborigines.
or anyone else.

If your notes are to do you any good, it must contain sufficient information to enable you to make sense of them. On the other hand, if you try to include all that is said by your lecturer, there is a danger that the student will be so intent on writing down the superfluous details, that you will miss the important information which connects the details together.

The most important thing for you to remember about good note taking is to use a standard form and to put the notes in the students' own words. A student should leave room in their left-hand margin of the page and ask yourselves questions when you review your notes after class.

1905 ABORIGINAL ACT
- concerned with economic & social status of W.A. Aborigines

WHAT RESTRICTIONS
- prohibited

DID THE 1905 ACT PLACE ON ABORIGINES?
* movement
* intermarriage
* purchase & consumption of alcohol
* employment without a permit
* ownership of guns
- children made wards of the state

Students, who use this format, can review quickly and easily important information the night before you sit an exam. You will have a record that will still make sense to you years later. He or she will also be able to write clear, logical assignments which he or she can take almost directly from their notes. A student, who develops good note taking skills, will find that their test and assignment marks will improve significantly.
Appendix K

Tutors 2 & 3 Usage Test
1. Give the verbs, adjectives and adverb corresponding to these nouns.

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<th>ADVERB</th>
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<td>anger</td>
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2. Supply the missing prepositions in the following sentences -

a. I congratulate you _____ your success.
b. Once a person has had a taste _____ the gaiety of Paris he develops a taste _____ it.
c. I feel very vexed _____ John _____ his work.
d. I warned him _____ extravagance and _____ the danger of borrowing money.
e. I look _____ you as a friend who will look _____ this matter _____ me, look _____ all the letters that have been written and look _____ my interests properly.
f. He is no longer dependent _____ his father, but is independent _____ everyone.
3. Are the verbs in the following sentences correct? If not, correct them.

a. The man and his brother is here.

b. Either this book or that are easy to read.

c. A red wine or a white are supplied for dinner.

d. Neither he nor his brother speak English well.

e. A football team consist of eleven players.

4. Give as many adjectives as you can that are opposite in meaning to the following.

fierce

clean

hard

strong

poor

wise

generous

thin

new

extravagant
5. What adjectives would you use to describe -
   a. Daffodils in early spring.

   b. An autumn sunset.

   c. A racing car at full speed.

   d. The sea in fury.

   e. A fog.

6. Correct the position where necessary, of the adverbs in the following sentences.
   a. He speaks very well English.

   b. England will only remain prosperous as long as she maintains her export trade.

   c. I often have done that.

   d. He is at home rarely.

   e. They came yesterday to visit us here.
7. Change the verb to the required tense.
   
   a. **PAST PERFECT** : They *(kiss)* in the car before they saw everyone

   b. **FUTURE** : She *(run)* to the shop

   c. **PRESENT** : He *(hide)* in the cupboard

   d. **PAST** : We *(laugh)* yesterday.
Appendix L

Tutor 1 Sentence Structure Test
The Abominable Snowman

1. A small number of creatures exist in the Himalayan Mountains.
2. The mountains are in Tibet.
3. The creatures are hairy wild men.
4. Their existence is apparent.
5. These creatures are primitive humans or anthropoid apes.
6. They are called Abominable Snowmen.
7. Major L.A. Waddell first described footprints.
8. The footprints were in the snow.
9. The footprints were large.
10. Major Waddell was a member of the India Army Medical Corps.
11. The description was in 1899.
12. The footprints were made by these creatures.
13. These creatures were hairy wild men.
14. This was according to the native Tibetans.
15. The wildman lives in the mountains.
16. Waddell's interest was aroused.
17. Waddell asked other Tibetans a question.
18. Did they know of such creatures?
19. The Tibetans all spoke highly about them.
20. But no Tibetan claimed anything.
21. They had not seen them.
22. Waddell's report was dismissed.
23. Other reports followed.
24. These other reports were dismissed.
25. They were dismissed by most members.
26. The members were from the scientific community.
27. The reports were dismissed as speculation.
28. The speculation may have only been imaginative.
29. The speculation may have been caused by bears.
30. The bears were large.
31. The bears sometimes walked upright.
32. The speculation may have been caused by humans.
33. The humans were fugitives.
34. The humans were hiding in the mountains.
35. The natives still insisted on something.
36. The insisting was nevertheless.
37. The footprints belonged to a hairy race.
38. They called the hairy race Yeti.
39. Only a few Western men claimed something.
40. They have actually seen the Abominable Snowmen.
41. One Western man told Jean Marquis-Rivire this.
42. Marquis-Rivire is a French author.
43. The man saw a group of Yeti.
44. The group was large.
45. The group was in a circle.
46. They were beating tom-tom drums.
47. They were swaying back and forth.
48. The evidence is hearsay.
49. The evidence is unreliable.
50. The evidence of S.M. Tensing is much more reliable.
51. Tensing is a Sherpa.
52. Tensing is a guide.
53. Tensing guided the climbs of Mt. Everest.
54. These climbs were the most famous.
55. Tensing saw a Yeti.
56. Tensing was at a Tibetan festival.
57. A Yeti appeared.
58. The appearance was sudden.
59. The Yeti was a human-like creature.
60. The Yeti was standing 1.75 metres tall.
61. The Yeti was covered with hair.
62. The hair was reddish brown.
63. The face was not covered with hair.
64. Eric Shipton took a photograph.
65. This was in recent years.
66. Shipton is an explorer.
67. The explorer is renowned throughout the world.
68. The photograph was of fresh Yeti tracks.
69. The tracks proved something.
70. The proof is conclusive.
71. The creature is not a bear.
72. The creature is not human.
73. Most scientists have had a skepticism.
74. The skepticism has been allayed.
75. The scientists have concluded something.
76. Some human ape creature exists.
77. Travelers and scientists in that part of the world have a belief.
78. The belief has then been kept alive.
79. Travelers and scientists will continue the following:
80. They will nourish hope of this.
81. The encounter will be one day.
82. The example will be living.
83. The example will be of a missing link.
84. The link is in the evolution of mankind.
Appendix M

Tutors 2 & 3 Sentence Structure Test
1. In the following sentences which words form the Predicate? Underline.
   a. Go home at once.
   b. He often borrows my books.
   c. Churchill was a great leader during the war.
   d. You must do your homework regularly.
   e. Foreign students often do not like English food.

2. Two of the sentences in each of the following groups are correct; two of them contain errors. Correct the errors.
   1.
   a. Did you read the book to which he referred to?
   b. The teacher was most understanding which pleased me very much.
   c. Frankly, I just can't believe that all that happened to one
      man!
   d. Ogden Nash is a leading American contemporary poet.

   2.
   a. While the game was being played, the coach refused to leave
      the arena.
   b. He plans to do four things while he is in the city: to visit
      the art museum; to have a physical checkup; inspecting the new
      school building; reporting to the local command.
   c. Driving all afternoon along the river, the time passed quickly.
   d. One hour is enough time for me to finish the painting.
3. Combine each of the following pairs of sentences. Name the method that you used.

a. Hank Greenberg was a famous ball player. He established most of his records during the trying years of World War II.

b. I watched the long game. I felt the excitement that gripped each of the players.

c. I ordered an ever-blooming rosebush. I also ordered a dwarf apple-tree.

d. I had never seen Armando Perez. He sold my father his guitar.

e. Hector wrote an exciting story. He sold it to Story magazine.

f. The movie times were very late. The number attending the movies declined.

4. Rewrite the following sentences in better English.

a. On returning home, the motor of our car was allowed to cool slowly.
b. At the age of fifteen, his first poem was published.

c. Have you written up the report that you plan to hand in?

d. When she was small she liked drawing pictures and to play with blocks.

e. Frankly, his statement is most difficult to understand.

f. Coming to my last point, the world is in a chaotic state.

g. Have they finished up their work yet?

h. I only want to take one book out of the library.

i. He told me that I was rugged looking, which flattered me.

j. When walking on thin ice, the slightest crack may give warning too late.
Appendix N

McKenna's Variables Defined
Cohesion. That property of text whereby the author uses such lexical ties as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical reiteration and collocation to create connections which tie discourse together as a unit.

Context. The physical and social setting which the author uses to carry out the communication goal. The physical setting refers to the determination of the time and the place within which the text can be placed. The social setting of the text refers to the personal setting of the communication endeavour, such as whether or not the communique is a business one, an academic one or a personal communication.

Focus. The implied contract between the reader and the writer that the writer will address one topic only and will remain true to that topic throughout the text.

Grammar. Those aspects of language which are concerned with traditional grammar usage as it is taught in language arts or English classrooms. Includes the mechanics of written language.

Intent. The concern here is the author's apparent intent and the clarity of that intent as it is conveyed by the author's message in the text. For example, in a given text, is it clear that the author's intent is to convince the audience of one side or another of an issue?

Structure. The organisational plan that the author uses to fulfil the communication goal. For example, an author may choose to use a comparison and contrast paradigm to reach a certain textual and communication goal.
Appendix O

The Investigative Report
THE INVESTIGATIVE REPORT
Reports on the results of an investigation e.g. laboratory report in science or psychology
Appendix P

The Action-Orientated Report
THE ACTION-ORIENTATED REPORT

Recommends and outlines a course of action that should be taken to overcome a problem or to improve a situation.

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<td>3.2 Programme Benefits</td>
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<td>4. Programme Implementation</td>
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<td>5. Programme Evaluation</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Appendices</td>
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</table>

THE REPORT

Summary/Abstract

Introduction

Proposal

Implementation

Evaluation

REFERENCES

APPENDICES
Appendix Q

The Descriptive/Analytical Report
The Descriptive/Analytical Report
Describes and analyses individual or social phenomena

An overview of the phenomena:
- Linda is a twenty-seven year old unmarried woman, of Australian birth, who has been drinking heavily since she was 12.
- In Western Australia there are currently 28,731 people under the age of 21 who are unemployed.
- The Youth Hostels Association caters for...

- The stages in the development of the phenomenon
- The factors contributing to the development of the phenomenon.
- The current status of the phenomenon, e.g. elements of present problem, nature and extent of present operations, and so on.

- Differing interpretations of the phenomena arising from different perspectives.
- Differing calls for action arising from different perspectives.

- Your observations/interpretations/evaluation of the phenomenon and of the differing interpretations arising out of the various perspectives.

- What can or should or can be done to improve the situation

Title Page
- Linda: A study of Alcohol Dependence
- Youth Unemployment in W.A.
- The Youth Hostels Association in Australia

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<td>2.2 Present situation</td>
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<td>3. Analysis</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4. Discussion/Evaluation</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>5. Conclusion/Recommendations</td>
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<td>6. References</td>
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<td>7. Appendices</td>
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The Report
Introduction
Description
Analysis
Discussion/Evaluation
Conclusion/Recommendations

References

Appendices
Appendix R

Education 1100 Second Assignment
MAJOR ASSIGNMENT

DUE: Monday, 13 May at 9.00am
(Assignments may be submitted before this date)

WORTH: 40%

FORMAT: Essay, with a maximum length of 1800 words. Overlength essays will have marks deducted.

RATIONALE:
The major assignment in EDU 1100 is intended to give you practice in exploring a set of ideas about moral development and relating them to the school and classroom situations. These ideas will not be presented in any detail in lectures, since the intention is to encourage you to study the textbook and other suitable reference material, and so increase your ability to function as an independent learner.

TOPIC:
The specific topic relates to Kohlberg's theory of moral development. You are to:

1. Outline Kohlberg's theory of moral development, noting the central assumptions that underlie it. (5 marks)

2. Select the one stage which corresponds most closely with the age of the students whom you are preparing to teach (i.e. primary/secondary) and describe the most important features of that stage. (10 marks)

3. Describe the features of the stage which immediately precedes it, also describe the features of the stage which follows, e.g. if you chose stage 3 you would describe stage 2 and 4. Include examples and observations of students and adults moral reasoning to provide illustrations of the different stages outlined. (10 marks)

4. Contrast Kohlberg's theory with Gilligan's and Eisenberg's theories of moral development. Which of the three theories do you think has most relevance to schools in the 1990's? Justify your answer. (15 marks)

Please note that success with this topic requires more than regurgitation of what is contained in one textbook. It requires that you learn and understand the process of moral development as described by Kohlberg and that you can explain the relevance to schools in the present age. You will be expected to consult and refer to at least four other references.
Appendix S

Essay Writing Components Marking Key
Edu 1100: Second Assignment - Children’s Moral Development

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Appendix T

Education 1200, 1990 Unit Outline
TUTORIAL PRESENTATION AND PAPER

DUE: Straight after the tutorial.

WORTH: 40%

Of this 40%, 10% will be awarded for the quality of your tutorial presentation.

Both the presentation and paper will be assessed on the criteria for assessment, outlined below.

1. TUTORIAL PRESENTATION

In each of the tutorial sessions commencing from week three, an assignment topic is identified. Each student will be allocated one part of the topic for presentation as:

a short lecture to the tutorial group. The presentation should not exceed 10 minutes. To assist with the delivery students may use up to three overhead-projector transparencies or one sheet of typed notes. Where there is more than one presenter the lecturer will allocate to each student one or more parts of the topic. The tutorial topics have been divided into parts. Agreement between the multiple presenters is to be finalized at least one week prior to the tutorial.

It is the responsibility of the presenter to attend the session at which the topic has been scheduled. A second opportunity to present can be granted by the lecturer only in exceptional circumstances. A claim of illness must be supported by a medical certificate.

Criteria for Allocation of Marks for Tutorial Presentation (10%):

INTRODUCTION

1. States purpose or objectives.
2. Gives overview or advance organizer.
3. Distributes a study guide or instructs the students concerning how they are expected to respond (what notes to take, etc.)

BODY OF PRESENTATION

4. Is well prepared; speaks fluently without hesitation or confusion.
5. Projects enthusiasm for the material.
6. Maintains eye contact with the students.
7. Speaks at an appropriate pace (neither too fast nor too slow).
8. Speaks with appropriate voice modulation (rather than a monotone).
9. Uses appropriate expressions, movements, and gestures (rather than speaking woodenly).
10. Content is well structured and sequenced.
11. New terms are clearly defined.
12. Key concepts or terms are emphasized (preferably not only verbally but by holding up or pointing to examples, writing or underlining on the board or overhead projector, etc.).

13. Includes appropriate analogies or examples that are effective in enabling students to relate the new to the familiar and the abstract to the concrete.

14. Where appropriate, facts are distinguished from opinions.

15. Where necessary, interacts with students to check understanding, invite questions or encourage participation.

16. Monitors student response; is encouraging and responsive regarding student questions and comments on the material.

CONCLUSION

17. Concludes with summary or integration of the presentation.

18. Follows up on the presentation by making a transition to the next speaker.

COMMENTS:


2. TUTORIAL PAPER

A well researched and carefully reasoned and presented essay of between 1800 and 2000 words. The essay will examine each part of the question and be in accord with academic conventions, especially referencing. Please use the College Referencing Guide.

Criteria for Allocation of Marks for Tutorial Paper (30%):

PRESENTATION
Format
Spelling
Sentence construction/punctuation
Paragraph construction
In-text referencing
End-text referencing
Length

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION
Introduction/conclusion
Clear organization of content/thoughts/argument

QUALITY OF ARGUMENT
Question understood and addressed
Awareness/analysis of issues contained in the question
Argument supported by reading/examples
ADMINISTRATIVE POINTS ON WRITING AND SUBMISSION OF TUTORIAL PAPERS

These points should be read in conjunction with the School of Education rules and regulations.

1. Assignments must be submitted in correct format. All sources must be acknowledged. This means that you acknowledge the source of ideas as well as direct quotations. The format to be used is explained in the College Referencing Guide. (Available from Bookshop)

2. Assignments must be submitted straight after the tutorial in the locked assignment box outside Room 105. Assignment cover sheets have a tear off receipt section which will be stamped by the secretary to verify receipt of assignment.

3. Assignments will not be accepted by individual staff members.

4. If, for legitimate reasons (see College rule 17.5) you are unable to submit an assignment by the due date, you must apply on the appropriate form to Kevin Barry (Room 124) or through the Departmental Secretary (Room 105).

5. Assignments submitted after the due date without approval shall incur a penalty of 5% of the possible mark for each day the assignment is overdue, except after seven (7) days when the mark for the assignment will be 0.

6. Late assignments must be submitted to the department secretary, Room 105 and a receipt obtained to verify that the assignment has been submitted.

7. Students should make a copy of the assignment.

8. Please note the College policy on all forms of cheating, plagiarism and collusion - penalties are severe ranging from loss of assignment marks to termination from the course.

9. Be sure to proof read your work thoroughly to check referencing, spelling, grammar, sentence structure, punctuation and legibility. Poor standards of literacy in any assignment will attract up to a 20% deduction of the possible mark (6 marks).

10. Do not put your assignment, or each page of your assignment, in a plastic cover.
Tutorial Topics and Reading

Reading

All topics have a Text Reference and a few Other References. The Text Reference must be read by all students before the tutorial. This will assist understanding, participation and discussion and make the tutorials an effective learning experience. Other References are primarily for the student writing the paper. Note, however, that further references should be obtained by the student writing the paper. Consult the recommended reading list and appropriate journals in the library. This will help you become an effective and active learner at tertiary level.

Tutorial One: Exposition (Session 2, Week 3)

1. With the class you had on orientation practice in mind, plan a model exposition lesson. Highlight the major steps in the strategy. (8 marks)

2. Discuss Ausubel's principles of learning which underlie the exposition strategy. (8 marks)

3. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when planning an exposition lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion. (5 marks)

4. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when implementing an exposition lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion. (5 marks)

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of the exposition strategy. (8 marks)

Text References


Other References


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).

**TUTORIAL TWO: GUIDED DISCOVERY (SESSION 2, WEEK 4)**

(Sometimes referred to in the literature as inquiry or discovery)

1. With the class you had on orientation practice in mind, plan a model guided discovery lesson. Highlight the major steps in the strategy. (8 marks)

2. Discuss Bruner's principles of learning which underlie the guided discovery strategy. (8 marks)

3. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when planning a guided discovery lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion. (5 marks)

4. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when implementing a guided discovery lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion. (5 marks)

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of the guided discovery strategy. How relevant is it for education in the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer. (4 marks)

**Text References**


**Other References**


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
TUTORIAL THREE: OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING (SESSION 2, WEEK 6)

(Sometimes referred to in the literature as social learning or modeling or learning by imitation).

1. With the class you had on orientation practice in mind, plan a model lesson in which students will learn by observation.  
   (8 marks)

2. Describe the major phases in Bandura's model of observational learning. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.  
   (8 marks)

3. How can teachers use their role as a model to stimulate thinking and problem solving?  
   (5 marks)

4. How can teachers shape attitudes and values through observational learning?  
   (5 marks)

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of observational learning. How relevant is it for education in the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.  
   (4 marks)

Text References


Other References


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
TUTORIAL FOUR: EVALUATION (SESSION 1, WEEK 7)

"Evaluation is an integral part of teaching. Without constant evaluation of all forms teaching is merely babysitting." (Jodie Huggins, ATP student in Barry & King, 1988, p.205).

1. Outline the evaluation process as described by Barry and King and apply it to a lesson, or series of lessons, you took on your orientation practice. Define your terms carefully.

(5 marks)

2. Why is observation such an important technique in evaluation? Illustrate your answer with examples from teaching practice.

(5 marks)

3. What are the major purposes of evaluation in the classroom? Give examples from teaching practice to illustrate your answer.

(10 marks)

4. It has been argued by some that there is not enough evaluation in our schools; by others that there is too much evaluation in our schools, especially secondary schools. What do you think are the likely effects on learning of:

   (i) insufficient evaluation?
   
   (ii) too much evaluation?

Give reasons to support your answer.

(10 marks)

Text References


Other References


(Use the library, especially under the 371.26 and 371.27 sections, to find other appropriate references).
16

TUTORIAL FIVE: BEHAVIOURAL LEARNING (SECTION 2, WEEK 12)

1. Explain the process of operant conditioning as it applies to learning new knowledge or a skill. Illustrate your explanation with an example from your own experience.

   (4 marks)

2. Using Skinner's guidelines for teaching on behavioural principles (see Woolfolk, 1987, pages 187 and 189) write a lesson plan to teach a skill. Briefly explain how your lesson plan meets the criteria outlined in Woolfolk.

   (8 marks)

3. Use operant conditioning to explain how the principles of operant conditioning might be used in a classroom to increase motivation.

   (10 marks)

4. What are the strengths and limitations of learning subject matter through the principles of behavioural learning?

   (4 marks)

5. How relevant is behavioural learning, as manifested by learning laboratories and/or computer assisted instruction, for the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.

   (4 marks)

Examples of programmed instruction are available in Room 105 (e.g. Distar learning laboratories). Especially recommended is the Distar, Morphographic Spelling, learning laboratory. The Edmark, programmed learning activity is also very good.

Text References


Other References


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
TUTORIAL SIX: METACOGNITION (SESSION 2, WEEK 13)

1. Explain the concept of metacognition and its role in learning.

2. Select four methods of fostering metacognition in the classroom from the readings.

Describe each method and show how each can be applied to one of your lessons from practice (or series of lessons). Explain clearly why each method fosters metacognition.

(N.B. Tutorial Presentation: Up to four students can do part 2. Liaison will be necessary to ensure that different methods are chosen).

Text Reference


Other References


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
Appendix U

Education 1200, 1991 Unit Outline
TUTORIAL PRESENTATION AND PAPER

DUE: Straight after the tutorial.

WORTH: 40%

Of this 40%, 10% will be awarded for the quality of your tutorial presentation.

Both the presentation and paper will be assessed on the criteria for assessment, outlined below.

1. TUTORIAL PRESENTATION

In each of the tutorial sessions commencing from week three, an assignment topic is identified. Each student will be allocated one topic for presentation as:

a short lecture to the tutorial group. The presentation should not exceed 10 minutes. To assist with the delivery students may use up to three overhead-projector transparencies or one sheet of typed notes. Where there is more than one presenter the lecturer will allocate to each student one or more parts of the topic. The tutorial topics have been divided into parts. Agreement between the multiple presenters is to be finalized at least one week prior to the tutorial.

It is the responsibility of the presenter to attend the session at which the topic has been scheduled. A second opportunity to present can be granted by the lecturer only in exceptional circumstances. A claim of illness must be supported by a medical certificate.

CRITERIA FOR ALLOCATION OF MARKS FOR TUTORIAL PRESENTATION (10%)

INTRODUCTION

1. States purpose or objectives.
2. Gives overview or advance organizer.
3. Distributes a study guide or instructs the students concerning how they are expected to respond (what notes to take, etc.)

BODY OF PRESENTATION

4. Is well prepared; speaks fluently without hesitation or confusion.
5. Projects enthusiasm for the material.
6. Maintains eye contact with the students.
7. Speaks at an appropriate pace (neither too fast nor too slow).
8. Speaks with appropriate voice modulation (rather than a monotone).
9. Uses appropriate expressions, movements, and gestures (rather than speaking woodenly).
10. Content is well structured and sequenced.
11. New terms are clearly defined.
12. Key concepts or terms are emphasized (preferably not only verbally but by holding up or pointing to examples, writing or underlining on the board or overhead projector, etc.).

13. Includes appropriate analogies or examples that are effective in enabling students to relate the new to the familiar and the abstract to the concrete.

14. Where appropriate, facts are distinguished from opinions.

15. Where necessary, interacts with students to check understanding, invite questions or encourage participation.

16. Monitors student response; is encouraging and responsive regarding student questions and comments on the material.

CONCLUSION

17. Concludes with summary or integration of the presentation.

18. Follows up on the presentation by making a transition to the next speaker.

COMMENTS:


ADMINISTRATIVE POINTS ON WRITING AND SUBMISSION OF TUTORIAL PAPERS

These points should be read in conjunction with the Faculty of Education rules and regulations.

1. Assignments must be submitted in correct format. All sources must be acknowledged. This means that you acknowledge the source of ideas as well as direct quotations. The format to be used is explained in the University Referencing Guide. (Available from Bookshop)

2. Assignments must be submitted straight after the tutorial in the locked assignment box outside Room 155. Assignment cover sheets have a tear off receipt section which will be stamped by the secretary to verify receipt of assignment. Please fill these in if you wish them to be returned to you.

3. Assignments will not be accepted by individual staff members.

4. If, for legitimate reasons (see University rule 17.5) you are unable to submit an assignment by the due date, you must apply on the appropriate form to Denise Chalmers (Room 126) or through the departmental secretaries (Room 155 or 148).

5. Assignments submitted after the due date without approval shall incur a penalty of 5% of the possible mark for each day the assignment is overdue, except after seven (7) days when the mark for the assignment will be ‘0’.
6. Late assignments must be submitted to the department secretary, Room 155 and a receipt obtained to verify that the assignment has been submitted.

7. Students should make a copy of the assignment.

8. Please note the University policy on all forms of cheating, plagiarism and collusion - penalties are severe ranging from loss of assignment marks to termination from the course.

9. Be sure to proof read your work thoroughly to check referencing, spelling, grammar, sentence structure, punctuation and legibility. Poor standards of literacy in any assignment will attract up to a 20% deduction of the possible mark (6 marks).

10. Do not put your assignment, or each page of your assignment, in a plastic cover or plastic bags.

2. TUTORIAL PAPER

ESSAY WRITING GUIDE

The questions contained in each assignment topic have been framed to help guide you in your understanding of the content. They do not represent separate questions that must be answered. Your overall response to the assignment task must take the form of an integrated essay which uses continuous prose. This does not necessarily preclude the use of headings and sub-headings. However, if you choose to use headings and sub-headings, you are still required to use transition statements which show the links between the various ideas contained in your essay.

Your essay should consist of:

1. An Introduction. The introduction sets the broad context for the essay. The introduction contains relevant background material which establishes the importance of the topic being dealt with and leads to the focus statement.

2. A Focus Statement. The focus statement outlines the scope of the essay.

3. An Elaboration. This section consists of a series of paragraphs and paragraph clusters which elaborate on the main points outlined in the focus statement. Thus, each paragraph or paragraph cluster consists of a main point made in the form of a general statement. This statement is then explained and illustrated in the sentences/paragraphs that follow.

4. A Conclusion. Conclusions should not contain new material. The purpose of a conclusion is to tie together the ideas contained in the essay. Conclusions most often either contain a summary of the main ideas linked back to the focus statement or they contain an evaluation statement.
CRITERIA FOR THE ALLOCATION OF MARKS FOR ESSAY

Your essay should consist of between 1,800 and 2,000 words, be well researched, and be carefully reasoned and presented. Your essay will be assessed according to the following criteria:

1. **Structure and Organisation**
   
   (a) Does the introduction contain relevant background material which establishes the importance of the topic?
   
   (b) Does the introduction lead to the focus of the essay?
   
   (c) Is the focus of the essay clearly defined?
   
   (d) Are ideas logically developed with relationships between paragraphs clearly signalled?
   
   (e) Are main points clearly stated and amplified within paragraphs?
   
   (f) Are sentences clear and unambiguous?
   
   (g) Does the conclusion provide a summary statement linked back to the focus or does the conclusion provide an evaluation statement?

2. **Grammatical Features and Technical Conventions**

   (a) Is the essay written in the third person from an objective point of view?
   
   (b) Are there errors in the subject/verb, noun/pronoun agreement?
   
   (c) Is spelling accurate and consistent?
   
   (d) Is punctuation accurate and consistent?
   
   (e) Are the appropriate conventions of in-text and end-text referencing observed?

3. **Content**

   (a) Are the ideas presented relevant to the argument?
   
   (b) Are all the important relevant ideas considered?
   
   (c) Are arguments supported by evidence?
   
   (d) Are ideas analysed in depth with appropriate explanations and examples given when required?
TUTORIAL TOPICS AND READING

READING

All topics have a Text Reference and a few Other References. The Text Reference must be read by all students before the tutorial. This will assist understanding, participation and discussion and make the tutorials an effective learning experience. Other References are primarily for the student writing the paper. Note, however, that further references should be obtained by the student writing the paper. Consult the recommended reading list and appropriate journals in the library. This will help you become an effective and active learner at tertiary level.

TUTORIAL ONE: MOTIVATION (SESSION 2, WEEK 3)

ESSAY QUESTION

What is the role of motivation in learning and how relevant and useful is an understanding of motivation to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses motivation, its role in learning, and evaluate the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of motivation to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

What is motivation and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?

What are the differences between behavioural, humanistic and cognitive approaches to motivation?

How do each of these approaches apply to classroom teaching?

What is the role of students' personal factors in influencing motivation?

What is the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of motivation to classroom teaching?

TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. Define motivation and distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

2. Differentiate between behavioural, humanistic and cognitive approaches to motivation.

3. Identify how each of these approaches applies to classroom teaching.

4. Outline the role students' personal factors play in influencing motivation.

5. Evaluate the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of motivation to classroom teaching.
TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


TUTORIAL TWO: INFORMATION PROCESSING AND MEMORY (SESSION 2, WEEK 4)

ESSAY QUESTION

What is the role of memory in learning and how relevant and useful is an understanding of memory to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses memory, its role in learning, and evaluate the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of memory to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

How is information processed according to information processing theory?

What is the difference between long-term and short-term memory?

What does the teacher need to do to ensure that each student processes new information appropriately for each stage of the information process?

What are some strategies that students can be taught to help them learn meaningless information?

What is the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of memory to classroom teaching?
TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. Describe how information is processed according to information processing theory.

2. Differentiate between long-term and short-term memory.

3. Outline what the teacher needs to do to ensure that each student processes new information appropriately for each stage of the information process.

4. Identify four strategies students can be taught to help them learn meaningless information, and provide examples.

5. Evaluate the relevance and usefulness of an understanding of memory to classroom teaching.

TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


ESSAY QUESTION

What is expository teaching and how relevant and useful is expository teaching to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses the nature of expository teaching and evaluates the relevance and usefulness of expository teaching to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

What is expository teaching?

What are the processes involved in expository teaching?

What are the principles underlying expository teaching?

How can expository teaching be applied to the planning and execution of a specific lesson in the classroom?

What are the strengths and weaknesses of expository teaching and where can expository teaching be most usefully applied in the classroom?

TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. With the class you had on orientation practice in mind, plan a model exposition lesson. Highlight the major steps in the strategy.

2. Discuss Ausubel's principles of learning which underlie the exposition strategy.

3. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when planning an exposition lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.

4. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when implementing an exposition lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of the exposition strategy. How relevant is it for education in the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.

TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).

TUTORIAL FOUR: GUIDED DISCOVERY* (SESSION 2, WEEK 6)

*(Also known as Inquiry or Discovery Learning)

ESSAY QUESTION

What is guided discovery and how relevant and useful is guided discovery to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses the nature of guided discovery and evaluates the relevance and usefulness of guided discovery to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

What is guided discovery?

What are the processes involved in guided discovery?

What are the principles underlying guided discovery?

How can guided discovery be applied to the planning and execution of a specific lesson in the classroom?

What are the strengths and weaknesses of guided discovery and where can guided discovery be most usefully applied in the classroom?

TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. With the class you had on orientation practice in mind, plan a model guided discovery lesson. Highlight the major steps in the strategy.

2. Discuss Bruner's principles of learning which underlie the guided discovery strategy.

3. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when planning a guided discovery lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.
4. Discuss the major factors teachers should take into account when implementing a guided discovery lesson. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of the guided discovery strategy. How relevant is it for education in the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.

TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).

TUTORIAL FIVE: BEHAVIOURAL LEARNING* (SESSION 2, WEEK 12)

*(Also known as Operant Conditioning)

ESSAY QUESTION

What is behavioural learning and how relevant and useful is behavioural learning to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses the nature of behavioural learning and evaluates the relevance and usefulness of behavioural learning to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

What is behavioural learning?

What are the processes involved in behavioural learning?

What are the principles underlying behavioural learning?

How can behavioural learning be applied to the planning and execution of a specific lesson in the classroom?
What are the strengths and weaknesses of behavioural learning and where can behavioural learning be most usefully applied in the classroom?

TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. Explain the process of operant conditioning as it applies to learning new knowledge or a skill. Illustrate your explanation with an example from your own experience.

2. Using Skinner's guidelines for teaching on behavioural principles (see Woolfolk, 1990, page 182) write a lesson plan to teach a skill. Briefly explain how your lesson plan meets the criteria outlined in Woolfolk.

3. Use operant conditioning to explain how the principles of operant conditioning might be used in a classroom to increase motivation.

4. What are the strengths and limitations of learning subject matter through the principles of behavioural learning?

5. How relevant is behavioural learning for the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.

Examples of programmed instruction are available in Room 156 (e.g. Distar learning laboratories). Especially recommended is the Distar, Morphographic Spelling, learning laboratory. The Edmark, programmed learning activity is also very good.

TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
TUTORIAL SIX: OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING* (SESSION 2, WEEK 13)

*(Sometimes referred to in the literature as Social Learning or Modelling or Learning by Imitation)

ESSAY QUESTION

What is observational learning and how relevant and useful is observational learning to classroom teaching?

You are required to write an essay which discusses the nature of observational learning and evaluates the relevance and usefulness of observational learning to classroom teaching. In order to discuss adequately all aspects of the topic, your essay will need to contain information which answers the following questions:

What is observational learning?

What are the processes involved in observational learning?

What are the principles underlying observational learning?

How can observational learning be applied to the planning and execution of a specific lesson in the classroom?

What are the strengths and weaknesses of observational learning and where can observational learning be most usefully applied in the classroom?

TUTORIAL TOPICS

1. With the class you had on orientation or 2nd practice in mind, plan a model lesson in which students will learn by observation.

2. Describe the major phases in Bandura's model of observational learning. Where appropriate, refer to your model lesson plan to illustrate your discussion.

3. How can teachers use their role as a model to stimulate thinking and problem solving?

4. How can teachers shape attitudes and values through observational learning?

5. Outline the strengths and limitations of observational learning. How relevant is it for education in the 1990's? Give reasons to support your answer.

TEXT REFERENCES


OTHER REFERENCES


(Use the library to find other appropriate references).
Appendix V

Education 1200, 1991 Marking Key
EDU 1200: TUTORIAL ASSIGNMENT MARKING KEY

### A. STRUCTURE, ORGANISATION AND PRESENTATION OF THE CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATING</th>
<th>MARKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. The introduction uses relevant background material to provide a context for the essay and leads to the focus of the essay.

2. Essay has a clearly defined focus.

3. Ideas are logically developed with relationships between paragraphs clearly signalled.

4. Main points are clearly stated and amplified within paragraphs.

5. Sentences are clear and unambiguous.

6. Conclusion provides a summary statement linked back to the focus and/or an evaluation statement.

### B. QUALITY OF THE CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATING</th>
<th>MARKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. All the ideas presented are relevant to the essay question.

2. All the relevant ideas have been considered.

3. All arguments are supported by evidence.

4. Ideas are analysed in depth with appropriate explanations and examples given where required.

### C. GRAMMATICAL FEATURES AND TECHNICAL CONVENTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATING</th>
<th>MARKS DEDUCTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. The essay is written in the third person from an objective point of view.

2. There is subject/verb and noun/pronoun agreement.

3. Spelling is accurate and consistent.

4. Punctuation is accurate and consistent.

5. The appropriate conventions for referencing are observed.