The 1988 Writing Objectives Assessment is the fifth such assessment by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in grades 4, 8, and 12, since the program began in 1969. The objectives reflect a consensus of opinion regarding the process of writing: that it is used for a variety of purposes and audiences, and that the form and process of the writing will vary accordingly. The objectives outlined here are: (1) writing to accomplish a variety of purposes, including informative, persuasive, and personal/imaginative writing; (2) managing the writing process, including generating ideas, drafting, revising and editing; (3) controlling the forms of written language, including genre, organization, mechanics, and language usage; and (4) valuing writing and the written word for interpersonal communication, for society, and for oneself. The booklet also includes a section of suggested instructional exercises for each of these objectives, and a list of the writing consultants who developed these writing objectives. (JGL)
Writing objectives

1988 ASSESSMENT

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he writing objectives presented in this booklet were prepared for the fifth national assessment of writing in 1988. Previous national assessments of writing were conducted in 1969-70, 1973-74, 1978-79, and 1983-84. With each successive assessment and set of writing objectives, The Nation's Report Card, NAEP (National Assessment of Educational Progress), has tried to reflect advances in educational practice. Since the mid-1960s, when work began on the first national assessment of writing, NAEP has published three major sets of writing objectives: one in 1969; another in 1972, with a brief supplement added for the third assessment in 1978-79; and the third in 1982. This latter set, developed in preparation for the 1983-84 assessment, served as the basis for the present booklet. Because a major development effort was expended to conduct the 1983-84 assessment, NAEP has been able to rely on much of that experience in preparing for the 1988 assessment. The major change between the 1983-84 objectives and these is the integration of the concept "learning through writing" into all writing purposes rather than as a separable objective.

In order to be responsive to the myriad points of view, interests, and priorities found in American education, NAEP develops objectives through a nationally representative consensus process. Subject-area specialists are involved to ensure that the objectives reflect current prac-
tice, as well as new directions in theory; parents and other concerned citizens are included to ensure that the objectives are free from bias and meet with their expectations of educational achievement; and teachers participate to be certain that the objectives are appropriate and realistic from the classroom perspective. School superintendents and curriculum specialists are also involved to represent the perspectives of school administrators. All of these contributors and reviewers are chosen to reflect perspectives of people in various sizes and types of communities, from many geographic regions, and from various racial and ethnic groups. The final objectives do not necessarily reflect the views of every individual who participated, but they do represent, as nearly as possible, the consensus of opinions obtained from the development and review groups.

Because the objectives define what a national consensus of subject experts, educators, and lay persons feel are the important goals, concepts, skills, and attitudes of writing education, they not only serve to guide assessment procedures, but are intended to be generally useful to a variety of audiences. Although the consensus procedure tends to provide broad guidelines that may not be as specific as those necessary at a local level, it is hoped that these objectives represent global standards of excellence that can be used as a foundation for building and refining more specific goals appropriate to particular situations.

Nature and Content

The objectives that follow are based on the premise that individuals write for a purpose to an audience. The purpose of the writing affects the ideas that are included, the way they are organized, and the manner in which they are expressed.
**Objective One.** Students Use Writing to Accomplish a Variety of Purposes, deals with the types of writing students are likely to do for themselves and others and presents three primary purposes for writing: informative, persuasive, and personal/imaginative narrative. Each of these purposes may be realized in writing that is primarily exploratory—a tentative or initial working out of new ideas as the writer reexamines and reconsiders what has been written. They may also be expressed in more public forms, organized and presented so that the ideas can be shared with others. There are, of course, other ways to describe these purposes for writing, and earlier sets of objectives used somewhat different terminology. But these descriptions represent the approach most consultants have found useful.

**Objective Two.** Students Manage the Writing Process, focuses on the importance of the process that leads to a piece of writing. In order to discuss the writing process, it is necessary to present its components as if they are discrete operations, but in reality they are interwoven parts of the entire process and not readily separable in practice. The recursive nature of the writing process and the interdependency of the subskills it requires cannot be overemphasized.

**Objective Three.** Students Control the Forms of Written Language, discusses control of such skills as organizing, elaborating, and using appropriately the conventions of writing (usage and mechanics).

**Objective Four.** Students Value Writing and What Has Been Written, underscores the importance of learning why writing is a valuable personal and social activity and what roles written works serve in our society.
Organization

Four major writing objectives are presented on the following pages. Each of these is detailed by subobjectives, designated by capital letters. The subobjectives are further detailed in statements that often include clarifying examples. These examples are not intended to describe all possible content associated with the objective.

The chapter Putting the Objectives Into Practice is an effort to enhance the utility of the writing objectives by sharing some ideas and suggestions for teaching that have proven useful to others.

For quick reference, an outline of the objectives has been included. Finally, the chapter on the development process lists the names of the consultants who participated in the objectives development and review process.
Students Use Writing to Accomplish a Variety of Purposes

Writing occurs regularly in people's personal and social lives as well as in school settings. People write to accomplish many different purposes, such as straightening out a billing error by letter, explaining a personal viewpoint on an issue in a speech, or expressing an artistic impulse in a story or poem. The ability to explain ideas or document events in writing can also help in a variety of job situations. Letters, reports, inventories, and a wide range of recordkeeping systems are integral to many businesses. Consequently, students need opportunities to develop a wide range of writing skills by writing for many purposes in varying contexts or situations.

In the sections that follow, three purposes for writing are discussed: informative, persuasive, and personal/imaginative narrative. These purposes often blend into each other in various ways, depending upon the contexts for writing. For example, an autobiography might very well be considered narrative, informative, and persuasive; a job application and resume may persuade as well as inform. Although these three purposes may frequently coexist in a piece of writing, one or another type often predominates. Writers' purposes are shaped by their initial perceptions of their topic, by the ways they consider
their audience, by the social or instructional contexts in which they are writing, and by changes in focus that occur as they develop their topics.

A. Informative Writing

Informative writing is used to share knowledge and convey messages, instructions, and ideas. Like all writing, informative writing is filtered through the writer's impressions, understanding, and feelings. Used as a means of exploration, informative writing helps the writer assimilate new ideas and reexamine old conclusions. When addressed to more public audiences, informative writing involves reporting on events or experiences, or analyzing concepts and relationships, including developing new hypotheses and generalizations. Any of these types of informative writing can be based on the writer's personal knowledge and experience or on less familiar information that must be understood in order to complete the task. Usually, informative writing will involve a mix of the familiar and the new, clarifying both in the process of writing about them. Depending on the nature of the task, however, writing based on both personal experience and secondary information can span the range of thinking skills from recall to analysis and evaluation.

B. Persuasive Writing

The primary aim of persuasive writing is to influence others to bring about some action or change. It may contain great amounts of information—facts, details, examples, comparisons, statistics, or anecdotes—and, as the writer identifies the most persuasive reasons to support a point of view, it may involve significant discoveries about one's own feelings and ideas. Writing persua-
sively also requires the writer to employ such critical thinking skills as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Persuasive writing may be called for in a variety of situations. It may involve responding to requests for advice by giving an opinion and supporting it with reasons. It may also involve arguing one's own point of view in such a way that a particular audience will find it convincing. When there is opposition to what the writer is advocating, persuasive writing may entail refuting arguments that are contrary to one's own point of view.

In all persuasive writing, authors must choose the stance they will take. They can, for instance, use emotional or logical appeals or an accommodating or demanding tone. Regardless of the situation or approach, writers must be concerned first with having a desired effect on readers, beyond merely adding to their knowledge of a particular topic.

C. Personal/Imaginative Narrative Writing

Personal/imaginative narrative writing contributes to an awareness of our world as we create, manipulate, and interpret reality. Such writing, whether fact or fantasy, requires close observation of people, objects, and places, while it enables exploration of all the wide-ranging possibilities of human experience. Further, this type of writing fosters creativity and speculation by allowing us to express our thoughts and then stand back, as a more detached observer might, and grasp more fully what we feel and why. Thus, personal/imaginative narrative offers a special opportunity to analyze and understand emotions and actions.

Whether a means of discovery or just plain "fun," narrative writing can produce stories or personal essays and can lead to other forms, such as poems or plays. Practice with these forms helps writers to develop
an ear for language and to improve literary abilities.

Informative and persuasive writing can benefit from the features used in narrative writing. Informative writing, for example, can narrate an incident as part of a report or clarify a point through the use of metaphor or simile. A persuasive statement can be convincing not only on the basis of its internal logic, but also on the strength of its illustrative material (its stories), its rhythm, and the voice of its persona.
For each piece they write, writers have a distinct, unique process of developing it over time: gathering and organizing material, exploring relationships among ideas, drafting, reconsidering, and editing. These process activities are not carried out in a step-by-step manner, but may be combined, repeated, or even excluded as the piece takes shape.

The major activities that writers engage in can be thought of as generating, drafting, revising, and editing. In any writing activity, these are intertwined, one or another receiving primary emphasis depending upon the writer's sense of the progress of the piece as a whole. For example, writers nearly always do some revising and editing as they draft. Drafting and rereading are activities that necessarily generate new ideas and plans. Even an outline or pattern for a piece may be discovered only after drafting begins. To generate, draft, and revise effectively, writers need to develop a variety of specific strategies and procedures for carrying through the writing task as a whole. The particular strategies chosen may vary depending upon whether the writer is at the point of generating new ideas, drafting more text, reflecting on what has already been written, or correcting the final copy.
Experienced writers develop ways of sensing the progress they are making in the task as a whole—procedures for reflecting on what they have done, as well as on what they intend to do next. This reflection is closely associated with revision; writers often change what they have written because they sense that what they have done does not accomplish what they intend to accomplish. Reflection also is important in other aspects of the writing process. When generating ideas, writers reflect on what is known about the topic, judging when that information is appropriate or sufficient or when additional material must be gathered. During drafting, writers use reflection to see if the draft says what they intended it to say and to focus on what else needs to be explained or presented. Finally, reflecting on the draft helps the writer know when to stop writing. At this point, the writer may shift to editing for the final presentation.

**Generating** refers to the information-gathering, organizing, and clarifying activities that take place throughout the composing process. In generating ideas, writers need to draw on their own knowledge, feelings, and experiences relevant to the topic and purpose for writing. Writers may use brainstorming or free-writing procedures (often thought of as prewriting activities) to discover what they already know about a topic or audience at any point in the writing process. In addition, they may search out new information by going to the library to locate different books, by viewing films, or by sharing an initial draft with a sympathetic classmate whose ideas are valued. They may organize or recast information and ideas through preliminary note-taking or outlining.

**Drafting** is the point in the process when particular sets of ideas are tried out. Sometimes the first attempt pro-
duces the desired result, but more often successive drafts refine the match between what is intended and what is actually said. Often drafting itself generates new ideas or creates new relationships among previously held thoughts. As writers turn from generating ideas to spinning them out in words and sentences on a page or screen, they must rely upon what they know—sometimes only tacitly—about the kinds of writing available for them to use. In drafting a letter, poem, essay, report, or story, for example, writers use their knowledge of these structures to produce the draft.

Revising occurs when writers reexamine and change what they have been writing and thinking. Although it is sometimes treated as if it occurs only at the end of the writing process, revising may begin before the first word is written on the page, or it may occur after what has been written is reconsidered. Some revising is done because the writing does not say what the writer intended, while other revising takes place as new ideas or relationships emerge and existing text becomes less relevant.

Revision is often a difficult process even for experienced writers. In order to discover where revision is needed, writers develop a number of ways to help them examine what they have written. For example, writers may read the writing aloud, take time for reflection, or ask others to read the draft and share their impressions of it. Effective writers learn to become effective readers of their own writing and become accustomed to using the suggestions and ideas of others.

If writers perceive that their writing is not accomplishing its purpose, revision may be extensive and writers may generate new ideas and draft new text. They will start over, keeping in mind what did not work in the earlier draft, as well as what did.
**Editing** involves fine-tuning the writing for a particular audience—focusing on effective word choice and syntax, for example. Editing also entails polishing the text so that the reader can attend to what is being said and not be distracted by errors in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation.
Objective three

Students Control the Forms of Written Language

It is tempting to think of essays, paragraphs, or sentences as rigid, fixed, or static forms, to be outlined on paper or charted on the blackboard. For writers, however, these forms are remembered patterns, echoes of things read, available examples of other possible responses to similar situations. These remembered forms can give rise to conscious plans or outlines, but often they provide an intuitive sense of shape and movement as the writer works through a piece of writing. Memory of forms defines a known terrain that makes each new act of writing at least partially familiar. Each act is an attempt to say something simultaneously new and recognizable, stylish and conventional, personal and imitative. Practice helps writers develop fluency with the forms immediately available to them, and reading and imitation can add to their repertoire; but writers must also see that form can be flexible and adaptable.

A. Genre

The decision a writer must make about the genre of a piece (e.g., diary entry, story, essay) is a critical one; it both defines and narrows the writer's task. Once selected, a particular genre determines (and also precludes) many
choices about language and organization. For example, once the decision has been made to write a traditional newspaper report instead of a personal narration, the overall form of the piece, the focus of particular paragraphs, and even the first few words are necessarily affected. While writers often decide to change the genre after having begun to write, such changes often require revisions in the language and structure of the earlier draft.

B. Organization and Elaboration

Once writers establish an organizing framework based on their selected genre, they select and integrate a variety of small-scale options on the basis of their effectiveness and appropriateness to the purpose, the subject, and the audience. For example, writers may use some type of classification system. They may sort their information by some criteria, such as moving from general to specific, most important to least important, from commonplace to new. Writers frequently structure their writing using narration, moving chronologically. They also elaborate their ideas by providing examples, definitions, and/or descriptions to support general assertions and to give illustration.

In making choices about organization and elaboration, writers must attend to the coherence and flow of their work. They must also attend to sentence and word options that grow out of the developing text and help shape how ideas are expressed. In this way, writers can clarify connections and transitions to prevent potential misunderstandings or confusions by the reader.
C. Conventions (Usage and Mechanics)

There are many conventions of written languages, such as those for different dialects or for the kinds of writing done in various professions. A particular writing situation often calls for a consistent application of a specific set of conventions, but not every situation calls for the conventions of edited American English. Often, however, writers will be expected to observe standard usage, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation and to conform to the patterns of edited American English. Writers need to master these standard conventions so that they can effectively communicate with audiences that expect such language. If concern for these conventions interferes with a writer’s ability to get ideas on paper, adherence to them can be put off until the later stages of revision, but eventually they must be addressed.
Objective four

Students Value Writing and What Has Been Written

Students should acquire a growing appreciation for the ways writing can affect their daily lives. They should gradually learn that writing has many practical and satisfying uses, including notes, shopping lists, telephone messages, letters, stories, poems, speeches, and reports.

Students need to understand that writing, like talking, composes and expresses their thoughts while additionally providing a record of their thinking that can be reflected upon, redeveloped, and changed. Perceptions of the world and how it works may be modified, refined, and strengthened by exploratory types of writing, such as that done in journals or diaries, or in the process of writing drafts intended for wider audiences for broader purposes. Even more important, exploratory writing in all subject areas provides opportunities for students to test their understanding of new concepts and principles and to participate in new ways of thinking. In this way, writing becomes a valuable means for students to learn, not only in school but throughout their lives.

Through increasing experience with written works—their own as well as the writing of others—students should come to understand the power of the printed word. Writers frequently raise questions that help us imagine new possibilities and consider alternate ways of
being and living. As students learn to understand the contradictory, even conflicting, functions of writing as both stabilizing and energizing in our culture, they come to value the important contributions of writing to our historical record.

A. Value for Interpersonal Communication

Most people are aware of writing as a means of sharing feelings, ideas, and experiences in fictional or nonfictional accounts. This includes messages, notes, letters, or memos as well as reports, stories, poems, or instructions. However, there are many other less obvious kinds of writing that convey feelings, ideas, and experiences. For example, it may not occur to students that television news programs are presented from a written script, that computer video games or business inventories result from a series of messages written according to the rules of a computer programming language, or that television dramas and situational comedies are not spontaneous presentations but result from long hours spent memorizing and rehearsing written lines.

B. Value for Society

Students should begin to appreciate the critical role written materials play in preserving, expressing, and changing society’s notion of itself. The permanence of the written word not only enables the sharing of ideas, but also permits analysis, i.e., interpretation and negotiation of meanings. For example, the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights, once written, have continued to help define our American society. In addition, newspaper editorials, speeches, advertisements, and plays have pro-
foundly affected and changed societies. As students mature, they should gain an increasing sense of the importance of the interrelationship of written materials and society and of the need to sustain this interaction.

C. Value for Self

Students should come to realize that frequent writing practice across a variety of situations and tasks will enable them to refine and expand both their knowledge base and their thinking skills. Writing and reflecting about their ideas and experiences provide the opportunity to discover new relationships and gain additional insights. Writing also stirs students’ imaginations and enables them to make personal interpretations of reality and to understand themselves and the world better.

Writing can also play an important role in a student’s life beyond secondary school, whether it be in social contexts, in a career, in continued education, or for personal reflection. The ability to write well opens up additional possibilities for advancement and enables individuals to realize better their true potential. Furthermore, writing well provides a sense of accomplishment when the writer’s purpose is attained, even when that purpose is self-expression or sharing personal experiences. Successfully producing a written piece and being rewarded either publicly or personally also provide a sense of satisfaction. Indeed, the ability to write well is a value in and of itself.
Putting the objectives into practice

Although the teaching of writing is often considered to be a complex and time-consuming task, teachers have found that incorporating a variety of writing activities into their instructional program to stimulate thinking about content is a particularly rewarding approach to helping their students learn. The best and perhaps only way for students to learn to write is to write frequently and to receive constructive suggestions for improvement. As students spend more time thinking about and discussing the writing process, as well as practicing it, they may begin to expand their writing experiences to more frequent personal, school, and social occasions.

Learning to Use Writing to Accomplish a Variety of Purposes

There are many different kinds of writing students must learn. Objective One highlights this range in the three categories: informative writing, persuasive writing, and personal/imaginative narrative writing. In practice, this
means that students gain power and flexibility as writers when they are given frequent opportunities to write for a variety of purposes.

Students can learn to accomplish a variety of purposes in writing if they:

★ Engage in a variety and range of writing tasks—informative, persuasive and narrative. In some of these tasks, students should control the topic and purpose for writing; in others, careful directions can help them accomplish more complex purposes.

★ Write in a variety of areas in the curriculum. Subject-area studies provide a natural range of purpose, from lab reports to critical essays about ideas encountered in reading.

★ Keep exploratory notes and journals in which they record and react to what they are learning. Writing about ideas presented in textbooks and class discussion permits review and refinement of concepts. Students can relate what they are learning to other things they know as well as to their values and personal experiences.

Learning to Manage the Writing Process

It is especially important that students learn to see writing as a process that takes place over a period of time. This helps them focus on a variety of problems that can be solved individually rather than all at once. Teachers can help by treating successive drafts as part of this process of development and by teaching students new generating, drafting, and revising skills. Generating and organizing material to write about can precede the task of getting out a first draft, and first drafts can be seen as early parts of
the process of thinking a piece through, rather than as final statements of a developed point of view. When and if it is appropriate for a draft to be polished, the writer can focus on the conventions of written language—spelling, punctuation, and usage, for example.

Students can learn to manage the writing process if they:

★ Recognize that their initial plans may need to be changed once they have started writing. Some writers do outline or plan extensively, usually only when they have gathered much information that needs to be organized. More often, though, writers let their plans grow out of early drafts. The final plan frequently takes shape only after the ideas have come into focus through the act of writing them down and thinking them through.

★ Become aware of what they already know about a topic. Pooling ideas and experiences in group discussions can help students remember what they know about a topic and let them find new ideas presented by the group. Brainstorming, listing, and free writing can be used in similar ways.

★ Realize the need for additional information or experiences. Specific sources vary with the particular topic and purpose for writing. Students can discuss the need for more information and possible sources of that information with their teachers, in small groups, or with partners. These discussions may lead them to reading further in their textbooks or in the library, observing particular situations, or interviewing experts.

★ Make choices and decisions about the information that they have gathered so they can begin drafting. These activities can be as simple as having students choose ideas they would most like to write about, or as complex as asking them to explain the generalizations that they want to formulate and support.
Learn to reduce anxiety about the drafting process. Teachers can emphasize the tentative nature of early drafts by demonstrating for students the way a particular draft is written and by dispelling some of the unrealistic expectations that make drafting harder than it should be. For example, most students do not understand that drafts often include false starts and imprecise language.

Learn what to do if the drafting process breaks down. Students can reread, perhaps aloud, what they have written or ask others for advice or simply leave a space and move on. Though we often think of drafting as a solitary activity, writers may need to write in the presence of others so that they can ask for help when they get stuck.

Recognize when their ideas are incomplete or imprecise. With careful guidance and supervision from the teacher, student response groups can point out strengths and weaknesses in the draft. When peer groups outline drafts and discuss each other's papers, they can detect omissions, repetitions, and breakdowns in logic. Reading their drafts aloud can also help students gain distance from their work and therefore detect problems more readily.

Learn how to revise their own work. Student and teacher can work together to revise a draft by means of short conferences and discussions. Also, students should be taught strategies for critiquing each other's writing, and then they can apply those same strategies when they revise their own writing.

Learn how to edit. Students can work in groups to pool efforts in editing their work. Teachers can discuss proofreading techniques and provide guidelines and examples.
Learning to Control the Forms of Written Language

Students need to develop the ability to choose and adapt the forms that are appropriate to their purpose, their audience, and their subject. The structures of language available to a writer serve to focus attention, direct inquiry, and suggest the possibilities for elaboration, development, and coherence. Students can learn to control the forms and conventions of written language if they:

★ Encounter the forms in a variety of contexts. Extensive reading promotes understanding of written language. Discussion of specific examples and patterns from written materials helps students learn how to organize their ideas for any given assignment.

★ Use their knowledge of forms in revising and editing their own writing. Discussions about revising can heighten their understanding of alternative ways of organizing information. Editing and polishing final drafts will help develop skills with the conventions of written language.

★ Learn to use organizational strategies and grammatical forms in appropriate contexts. Students may be taught to use certain organizational strategies that are appropriate for their ideas and purpose. For example, students in a literature class may be shown some ways to organize the contrast between the main characters in two novels. As another example, students in a science lab need to be shown some of the ways to organize process descriptions.
Learning to Value Writing and What Has Been Written

How writing is used in the schools helps to shape students' understanding of the role of writing in personal and social development, as well as their attitudes toward their own writing. How teachers give assignments, respond to and evaluate student writing, display student work, and use writing in all areas of the curriculum—all these are powerful influences on the way in which students regard writing. Writing should never be used as a form of punishment.

Students can learn to value writing if they:

★ Write for meaningful reasons. If the writing they do serves actual purposes, students will come to understand the range of personal and social uses writing fulfills. This means, for example, that students must write for audiences interested in their ideas and experiences. Sharing writing within the class is one way to provide such audiences as well as writing to convince others on a social issue or to inform others about a school event.

★ Keep notes and journals in which they record and react to their personal experiences. Writing about personal experiences can help students sort through what they know and feel about themselves and the world around them. By reading and reflecting on their thoughts and feelings, they engage in the kinds of activities that can lead them to greater understanding of the forces that affect and shape their lives.

★ Use classroom writing to enhance learning in a variety of subject areas. Students should understand that explaining a science concept, defending a political belief, or critiquing a literary work leads to increased
clarity of thought and greater understanding and retention of concepts.

★Receive continuous, constructive response to their writing. Methods of evaluation can influence students' perceptions of the reasons for which writing is done in schools. Because grading may shift attention away from students' ideas, it is helpful to give response and encouragement but to delay actual grade-giving until students have completed a number of papers that can be evaluated as a whole for growth and effort. Some teachers have students keep all their work in a folder and then evaluate all of it or selections from it toward the end of each grading period. In addition, some teachers augment these evaluations by giving students points for completing various phases of a writing project. Above all, students need to feel that teachers take their writing seriously. If teachers treat their writing with respect and reward their efforts periodically, students will be more receptive to suggestions for change. Support and encouragement may be in the form of teacher or peer response, public display, or praise.

★Are permitted to choose their own topics. Students should often be encouraged to write about their own concerns or interests. Successful communication of their own ideas and feelings to others may provide students with a new sense of power and control and with a sense of satisfaction that then becomes the incentive for further writing efforts.
Outline of Writing Objectives

I. Students Use Writing to Accomplish a Variety of Purposes
   A. Informative Writing
   B. Persuasive Writing
   C. Personal/Imaginative Narrative Writing

II. Students Manage the Writing Process: Generating, Drafting, Revising, and Editing

III. Students Control the Forms of Written Language
    A. Genre
    B. Organization and Elaboration
    C. Conventions (Usage and Mechanics)

IV. Students Value Writing and What Has Been Written
    A. Value for Interpersonal Communication
    B. Value for Society
    C. Value for Self
The National Assessment appreciates the efforts of all of the individuals who contributed to the development of the 1988 writing objectives. Many educators, including university professors, writing researchers, classroom teachers, school administrators, and curriculum specialists, as well as concerned parents and lay persons, participated in developing and reviewing successive drafts. These objectives could not have been developed without their substantial involvement. The National Assessment wishes to extend its gratitude to all participants.

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    Pittsburgh, PA
Jack Holmquist, Nebraska PTA, York, NE

Shu-In Huang, City of Thornton, Thornton, CO
Ann Humes, Southwest Regional Laboratory,
    Los Alamitos, CA
Enid Humphrey, West Side Community Schools,
    Omaha, NE
Richard Johnson, Center for New Schools,
    Highland Park, IL
Donald Jones, Jefferson County Public Schools, Lakewood, CO
Kenneth Kantor, University of Georgia, Athens, GA
Helen Kelley, State Department of Education, Commonwealth of Virginia, Richmond, VA
Jalma Killian, Wheat Ridge, CO
James Rex Kirk Sr., Utah PTA, Tooele, UT
Carl Klaus, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA
Rita Klemm, Wheat Ridge Senior High School, Wheat Ridge, CO
Shari Lahr, Buckeye Central School District, New Washington, OH
Judith Langer, University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley, CA
Glenda Liston, Texas Congress of Parents and Teachers, Marshall, TX
Wendy Littlefair, Measurement, Inc., Durham, NC
Richard Lloyd-Jones, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA
Fay Loo, Seward Park High School, New York, NY
Dorothy Magett, Seattle Public Schools, Seattle, WA
Betty Mangum, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, NC
Maureen McCarthy, Totten Intermediate School, Staten Island, NY

George McCulley, Michigan Tech University, Houghton, MI
Carol Mathews, Boulder High School, Boulder, CO
Frances McCormick, Manning Junior High School, Golden, CO
Sister Jarlath McManus, Archdiocese of Denver, Denver, CO
Mary Meier, Eugene School District, Eugene, OR
John Mellon, University of Illinois, Evanston, IL
Patti Mendes, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO
Vana Meredith, State Department of Education, Columbia, SC
Donna Miller, Orange County Public Schools, Orlando, FL
Sandra Murphy, University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley, CA

Jeff Oliver, Lincoln Elementary School, Boulder, CO
Robert Palmatier, Birmingham Board of Education, Birmingham, AL
Jan Patton, Findlay City Schools, Findlay, OH
Jesse Perry, San Diego Public Schools, San Diego, CA
Anthony Petrosky, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA
Lorraine Plasse, Springfield Public Schools, Springfield, MA
Sanford Powell, Northwest Mississippi Teacher Center, Senatobia, NY
Edys Quellmalz, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA
Edward Reidy, West Hartford Public Schools, West Hartford, CT
Edward Roeber, Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, MI

Marilyn Rosenblat, College Learning Laboratory, Buffalo, NY
Thomas Roy, Ithaca City Schools, Ithaca, NY
Charles Schuster, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, WI
Evelyn Scott, Englewood, CO
Sandra Seale, Cherry Creek High School, Aurora, CO
Sharif Shakrani, Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, MI
Mary Ann Shea, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO
Yvonne Siu-Runyan, Boulder Valley Schools, Pasadena, CA
Robert Smitn, Sandusky City Schools, Sandusky, OH
Geneva Smitherman, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI
Susan Sowers, Cambridge, MA  
Mary Stitt, Jefferson County Public Schools, Lakewood, CO  
Barbara Thompson, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Madison, WI  
Donna Townsend, Texas Education Agency, Austin, TX  
Lynn Troyka, CUNY, Queensborough Community College, Bayside, NY  
Tomas Vallejos, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN  
Faith Waters, Bucks County School District, Doylestown, PA  
Maria Watkins, Philadelphia, PA  
Richard Weaver, Bentonville Schools, Bentonville, AR  
Ben Williams, Chicago Board of Education, Chicago, IL  

Darnell Williams, Bishop College, Dallas, TX  
John Wood, Juchem Elementary School, Broomfield, CO  
Seymour Yesner, Brookline Education Center, Brookline, MA