

Reading, Writing, and Reading-Writing in the Second Language Classroom:

A Balanced Curriculum

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Abstract

The notion of integrating reading and writing in L1 and L2 literacy education is not new; however, only until recently has the reading-writing connection received enough attention and been implemented in the teaching of L1 and L2. This paper aims to search for the most current, up-to-dated, approach that best incorporates the idea of reading-writing connection. It first reviews literature and former studies that support that reading and writing mutually reinforce each other in both L1 and L2 literacy development. Furthermore, it discusses the interface where writer meets reader as well as writing meets reading. Next, a survey of the 223 TESOL graduate programs in North America attempts to examine how professional ESL/EFL teacher education institutes are practicing the latest theory of reading and writing, followed by a questionnaire answered by 14 teachers-in-preparation (both native and non-native speakers of American English) who shared their general concept regarding the teaching of reading and writing. Based on the findings, this paper calls for a balanced curriculum in which reading, writing, and reading-writing integration are dealt in three separated, independent courses with individually specific focuses as each of them has a strong impact on the overall proficiency of L2 students' acquisition of English.

Key words: reading and writing integration, TESOL programs, curriculum design

1. Introduction

In Taiwan, children always learn to write first. Managing to write with picture-like, square-shaped, and logographic Chinese characters is the routine drilled each day at school, for more than a hundred times, by every pupil long before he/she starts reading any short texts. It is a presumed concept that Chinese speakers ought to learn written words by writing them so that they

can recognize and comprehend the same characters when encountering them later in the reading task. Bits of writing practice gradually build one's vocabulary capacity that results in the development of sentences, paragraphs, and, finally, the maturity of Chinese competence. Presumably, writing comes before reading, at least, in the case of Taiwanese educational system. However, the same idea does not seem to be applied in the case of Taiwanese students' second language learning (i. e., English). Students, starting from junior high school, learn to read in English first along with an extraordinary amount of grammatical rules. Upon entering senior high school, they will have their first English writing class. To be more specific, most Taiwanese students will have only two-year English composition writing experience at their 11th and 12th grades unless they choose to become English majors next in colleges. Most Taiwanese will agree and accept the idea that, when learning English, reading precedes writing. Two contradictory kinds of learning experiences lead me to a very curious position at which I am not quite certain about which skill should come first. As an ESL learner as well as an ESL teacher, I have a particular interest in finding out how reading and writing relate to each other, how learners can benefit from the interaction between reading and writing, and how classroom teachers can better adjust to incorporate the uniqueness of reading-writing connection to facilitate students' acquisition of English.

This paper will first look at the current trend of both L1 (i.e., English education in the U. S.) and L2 (i.e., TESOL) teaching to see what has been the latest approach of the teaching of reading and of writing. Paralleled reviews of theories and empirical studies concerning L1 and L2 reading and writing will be discussed next, followed by the section in which the interaction between reading and writing, as well as reader and writer, will be elaborated in terms of both theories and classroom practices.

An additional survey of current TESOL graduate programs in North America, which comes next, may reveal how teacher preparation institutes are dealing with the dynamics aroused from the reading-writing interactions. Moreover, interviews with TESOL program professors and the ESL

program director, together with a collection of questionnaires answered by American English teachers and international ESL teachers currently enrolled in the TESOL master and Rhetoric and Linguistics Ph.D. programs in a small-scale university in Pennsylvania, will provide valuable insights that ultimately contribute to the most up-to-dated ESL literacy curriculum.

2. Does reading precede writing or writing precede reading in L1 and L2 acquisition?

2.1 The Debate

Traditionally, reading has been considered as an early-acquired skill and ought to have the priority to be taught in children's early schooling. Most researchers in North America had sustained such a viewpoint in the past three decades. Julie Jensen (1999), however, argued that "writing during the early years is a natural 'gateway to literacy'"(p. 26). Her compiling of responses from twenty-four prominent scholars cited most frequently in Anne Dyson and Sarah Freeman's (1991) chapter, "Writing," from The Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts showed that researchers now believe that very young children can learn to write before they can read and that writing, because it is more easily, quickly learned, "naturally" precedes reading. That writing is the gateway to literacy seems to be the most current view shared by most literacy scholars.

As for the ESL teaching and learning, a linear acquisition order of four skills (i.e., listening → speaking → reading → writing) seems to have dominated this field long enough and have directed most pedagogists and teachers to introduce these four skills with such a presumed order in that reading comes before writing (Celce-Murica, 1991).

However, either in first language or in second language acquisition, the acquired order of reading and writing is always debatable and, perhaps, yields less meaningful results. What ought to be emphasized is the reciprocal reading-writing relationships in which reading and writing actively interact with each other and both construct meanings for language learning.

2.2 A Brief Historical Review on the Reading-Writing Connection

In fact, although the discussion centering on the reading-writing connection is a fairly new idea, literacy education that advocated the integration of reading and writing has taken place as early as the late 1800's (Quinn, 1995). In 1894, the National Education Association issued a report that expressed development of reading and writing skills were equally important (Applebee, 1974). Later, MIT, in 1905, offered courses that highly emphasized the communicative uses of language and teaching of reading and writing for learning (Quinn, 1995).

Moreover, psycholinguistic-based models, such as Goodman's (1967) "Whole Language Approach," had actually, in the 70's and 80's, promoted the reading-writing connection to a significant level. The Whole Language Approach proposed that active involvement of reading and writing leads to ultimate literacy (Goodman, Smith, Meredith & Goodman, 1987). The concept of reading-writing integration had also led the literacy researchers of the 80's to further examine reading-writing relationships, and to construct process models of reading and writing.

A famous researcher, L. Flower (1989), indicated that the concept of reading and writing as modes of learning in the college context led the researchers and teachers to develop a newer concept of "critical literacy." His theory assumed that reading and writing can be used in ways that surpass the functional and minimal literacy demands and that enables students to develop and use skills for analysis, synthesis, and creative expression. Coincidentally, the idea of critical literacy has just appeared in the ESL field (Hammond & Macken-Horarik, 1999), thus showing that it is until recently have these two skills, reading and writing, been taught together in the ESL setting. A more in-depth discussion of theoretical arguments and empirical studies focusing on the reading-writing interaction in both L1 and L2, in the following section, should provide a better picture, capturing such dynamics.

3. How will reading and writing benefit from each other in L1 and L2?

3.1 Reading and Writing in L1 Acquisition

Approaching from a theoretical perspective, Frank Smith (1994) makes a strong point about how reading actually enhances writing. He sees reading as a collaborative learning during which the reader is not reading alone but “reading like a writer”(p. 196), meaning that the reading is being performed while the reader consistently walk through the text with the writer’s path of organization of words, sentences, and meanings. He also used evidence from empirical studies conducted with the English-speaking children to support his belief. Dean Simonton (1988), cited by Smith (1994), found that intensive reading in childhood tends to make one a prolific writer throughout one’s life. Diane DeFord (1981) (in Smith, 1994) also reported that children’s reading is actually reflected in their writing; the more they read, the better they will write.

In fact, researchers interested in children’s L1 literacy development had conducted a large number of experiments before Smith (1988, 1994). For example, Lucy Calkins (1980) in her studies of very young writers observed that children learn more about punctuation from their reading than any particular formal instruction. Barbara Eckhoff (1983), as a doctoral student at Harvard Graduate School of Education, also suggested that children’s reading has a great impact on their writing and warned teachers that some poor writers’ writing in elementary school result from inappropriate imitation of their basal readers. Besides, based on her synthesis of reading/writing research, Sandra Stotsky (1983), indicated that using reading exercises in place of grammar drill or additional writing practice proves to be as beneficial as and, somehow even more beneficial than grammar or extra writing practice in improving students’ writing. She further noted that “reading experience seems to be a consistent correlate of, or influence on, writing ability” (p. 637).

Similarly, L1 writing ability strengthens L1 reading ability. Stotsky (1983), in the same article summarized above, recognized the counter benefit deriving from writing to reading once again and said that the use of writing activities particularly improves reading comprehension and retention of

information in instructional material. Moreover, Anthony Petrosky (1982), at the University of Pittsburgh, claimed that literary responding and writing are both acts of meaning making, which allows one to better understand a text. He further argued that our comprehension of any texts, whether literary or not, is mainly a behavior of composing, i.e., our understanding of printed texts always begins with certain kinds of composition. In other words, reading is similar to writing. By noting down composing process during reading, we actually vocalizing our understanding of the written texts. He encouraged that language teachers ought to ask students to write about the texts they read in order to help them understand the newly read texts and the responses they wrote for the texts. Furthermore, Petrosky, adapting David Bleich's (1978) idea, concluded that:

the only way to demonstrate comprehension is through extended discourse where readers become writers who articulate their understanding of and connections to the text in their responses.... Comprehension means using writing to explicate the connections between our models of reality—our prior knowledge—and the texts we create in light of them (Petrosky, 1982, p. 24-25).

To Petrosky, writing means connecting our prior knowledge with the new information we just now comprehend by read a text.

Overall, in the case of L1 acquisition, reading and writing are believed to profit each other. Angela Jagg, Donna Carrara, & Sara Weiss's (1986) observation, appearing in Language Arts, on the trend of children's literacy development serves as the best conclusion for the L1 reading-writing correlation in that they stated:

1. Reading plays an important role in learning to write.
2. Writing practice is necessary for mastery of different modes of discourse. Reading alone is not enough.
3. The classroom context is critical in the children's learning process as well as in our own as researchers of that process (p. 298-299).

In terms of L1 reading and writing, it is a widely accepted notion that reading and writing can not be dealt with separately in learning or in teaching (Smith, 1985).

One worthy point to consider, drawn upon the studies presented above, is that, although reading and writing gain a lot from each other, the implementation of either skill does not necessarily replace the other. At the current stage, reading needs to be taught with the incorporation of writing and vice versa. However, it is a consensus that reading and writing should also be taught for the purpose of each individual skill (Stosky, 1983). In the instance of American literacy education, other than the recognition and application of the reading-writing connection, a new curriculum that paralleledly includes reading, writing, and reading-writing correlation is becoming seemingly visible.

3.2 Reading and Writing in L2 Acquisition

3.2.1 Interlingual transfer vs. Intralingual transfer

One obvious difference between L1 literacy skills and L2 literacy development is that L2 learners have had certain maturity of reading and writing skills which may or may not affect their acquisition of L2 literacy. Factors, including overall L2 proficiency, L1 and L2 educational training, and cultural literacy practices, could be all involved in the learning process. Therefore, L2 literacy development seems to be a lot more complex phenomenon than the case of L1 (Eisterhold et al., 1990). Studies aimed to examine the effect of transfer fall into two categories: interlingual transfer (i.e., influence from the L1) and intralingual transfer (i.e., input from the L2) (Eisterhold et al., 1990). Researchers, in the early 1980's, tended to particularly focus on the effect of L1 whereas in the late 1980's and 1990's the emphasis was placed much more on the literacy development within the process of L2 acquisition itself.

J. Cummins (1981), among others, probably expressed the strongest feeling for interlingual transfer of literacy skills. His "Interdependence Hypothesis" assumes that there is a cognitive/academic proficiency that is available to both languages and that such a common

proficiency allows the transfer of literacy-related skills to take place across languages. According to his Interdependence Hypothesis:

Instruction in L_x [Language One] is effective in promoting [academic] proficiency in L_x, transfer of this proficiency to L_y [Language Two] will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y”(p. 29).

Supporters of Cummin’s hypothesis have found certain evidence in their empirical studies. For example, in TESOL Quarterly, Carole Edelsky’s (1982) observation of elementary school Spanish-English bilingual children found that the L1 literacy transfer is incredibly evident in children’s writing. Moreover, B. Mace-Matluck and colleagues (1983), in their study of English literacy among Cantonese speaking students, revealed that Cantonese students’ prior literacy levels have a strong correlation with their later success in English. Nevertheless, not all the former studies yielded positive result in supporting the interlingual transfer theory. Cummins (1981) also noted that transfer emerges only after learners attain a threshold level of L2 proficiency to permit cognitively demanding language use. M. Clarke’s (1978) case study of two students also showed that some threshold level of L2 proficiency is necessary for good L1 readers to maintain their good reading skills in the L2.

Joan Carson Eisterhold and colleagues’ study (1990) of Japanese and Chinese ESL subjects where they examined the subjects’ literacy in both L1 and L2, perhaps, offered the best answers in responding to questions like:

- (1) What is the relationship between L1 and L2 literacy abilities?
- (2) Dose second language proficiency affect interlingual or intralingual language transfer?

They concluded that (1) L1 literacy skills do help learners to perform better in the L2 reading and writing tasks, yet there is no guarantee on an automatic transfer of L1 literacy skills to L2 literacy; (2) interlingual transfer occur at lower proficiency levels whereas intralingual input could be the more significant source for developing L2 literacy skills at the advanced level. The focus, after the

report of Eisterhold et al., shifted from the L1-L2 difference to the L2 literacy development within which reading-writing correlation was a main concern.

3.2.2 The interaction between reading and writing in L2

From a pedagogical perspective, William Grabe and Robert Kaplan (1996) suggested that L2 reading would help improve L2 writing at the beginning level and the advanced level. They encouraged the use of extensive reading for beginners' writing class as they noted that "the outcome of a reading activity can serve as input for writing, and writing can lead a student to further reading resources" (p. 297). Through two efficient techniques, Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) and high-interest class sets of readers, extensive reading, which lead to many writing activities, can be promoted. In the advanced level, they indicated that there is a need for students to read "critically" because the ability of critical reading plays a major in analyzing texts logically which is also a key component in academic writing. Practices of critical reading give students an authority an voice in their writing and later significantly shaped their writing as well.

Timothy Bell (1998) acknowledged Grabe and Kaplan's idea of "extensive reading" because he believed that extensive reading offer teachers worldwide "to encourage learners to engage in a focused and motivating reading program with the potential to lead students along a path to independence and resourcefulness in their reading and language learning"(1998, paragraph 1). Bell furthermore summarized that extensive reading in L2 (1) leads to improvement in writing; (2) energizes and motivates learners to read (if materials are selected according to students' interests); (3) leads to the shaping of the reader's thought, which naturally leads many learners to respond in writing with varying degrees of fluency.

Dana Ferris and John Hedgcock (1998) also suggested that "voluntary/pleasure reading" and "assigned reading" have both proved to bring about positive effect on developing composing skills. Regardless of group ages, empirical evidence confirmed that written texts actually emanate partly from long-term, self-initiated reading. Such ability can develop unconsciously among learners.

Besides, assigned reading during the limited time of a composition classroom, according to Ferris and Hedgcock, may serve as an effective and useful substitute for conventional writing practice especially when reading is, once again, self-motivated or self-selected. In addition, Ciaran McCarthy (1999), who argued with the extreme elevation of reading, even placed the role of reading above all the other three skills, claiming that reading theory can serve as a microcosm of the four skills (i.e., L, S, R, and W).

Relatively, writing in L2 is also a good way for ESL students to progress their L2 reading. Ruth Spack (1985) from Tufts University and Boston University in her article in TESOL Quarterly, stated that writing is not just a record of understanding but an act of understanding; hence, the writing process can aid the reading process. She furthermore recommended the “write-before-you-read” technique based on her workshop experience. The technique asks students to write from their own experience about an idea or event contained in the work that they are about to read. It may help make students better readers because they relate the texts with personal knowledge first, thus facilitating their comprehension of the reading. Spack later noted that the “write-before-you-read” technique very often works best if the writing practice consists of an issue with which the students can easily connect in spite of the complexity of the assigned reading.

Vivian Zambel (1992), also in TESOL Quarterly, challenging the notion that views writing as a typical waste of time activity in the reading classroom, argued that writing assist reading and that “reading journals” are the best classroom example. She asserted that the reading journal is the place where student reactions to texts are first recorded and reflected upon; where students’ in-progress associations, questions, and thoughts are written; and with which students make immediate connections between reading and writing. Zambel concluded that “the teaching of reading and writing cannot be separated nor can they be sequenced in linear fashion so that reading necessarily precedes writing” (p. 480).

3.2.3 Synthesis of reading-writing relation in L1 and L2 acquisition

Judging upon all the theoretical arguments and experimental findings drawn from studies mentioned above which all carefully examined the reading-writing link in both L1 and L2 acquisition, an overview can be presented by using both Eisterhold's (1990) and William Grabe's (1991) predictions, published in the years during which literacy education in L1 and L2 were moving toward a new direction. With regard to L1 literacy, Eisterhold (1990) indicated three models of reading-writing relation mainly represent the collective viewpoints in the past two decades. (1) "The directional model" hypothesizes that reading and writing share structural similarities so that the structure of whatever is acquired in one skill can then be applied in the other (i.e., the transfer process moves one-way only either in reading-to-writing or writing-to-reading mode). (2) "The non-directional model" assumes that reading and writing derive from a single underlying cognitive proficiency and that improvement in one domain will cause improvement in the other (i.e., both skills can transfer in either direction as in an interactive model). (3) "The bi-directional model" claims that reading and writing are not only interactive but also interdependent. In this model, what is learned at a certain stage of development can be qualitatively different from what is learned later. The existence of multiple relations as well as the possibility that the nature of reading-writing relationship might change as the development proceeds. Former studies concerning the L1 reading-writing connection fall into these three categories in which focuses are "input" in the directional model, "meaning constructing" in the non-directional model, and "multiple relations and interrelated processes" in the bi-directional model respectively, Eisterhold encouraged teachers, instead of arguing for which model explained best, to take an eclectic approach and take advantage of all these three models while dealing with L1 literacy courses.

As for L2 literacy, Eisterhold (1990) seemed to hold on to the reserved notion that there is always a language threshold barrier before any positive transfer can take place and before ESL learners can achieve any promising level of reading-writing fluency in the target language. She

contended that “teaching is important [for L2] to facilitate transfer, whether learners are reconstructing or synthesizing skills” (p. 100). Her later study with others (Eisterhold et al, 1990), as discussed above, clearly suggested that reading and writing be taught together in advanced level at which ESL students benefit most from mutually reinforcing cognitive skills. Cross-language literacy transfer is to be dealt at the lower levels. It is a position that Grabe (1991) is taking as well. To conclude the discussion of L2 reading-writing relation and offer best recommendations to all ESL teachers, Ferris and Hedgcock’s (1998) article, perhaps, provided the best instructional tips:

1. ESL teachers should adjust the relative weight given to reading and writing assignments based on their students’ L2 proficiency levels, needs, and expectation.
2. L2 writing skills cannot be acquired successfully by practice alone. Some aspects of composing are difficult to teach and must be acquired through sustained exposure to multiple varieties of texts.
3. ESL learners need instruction to become successful writer of English. Neither extensive exposure to reading materials nor large quantities of writing practice alone is sufficient—both are necessary.
4. Just as reading facilitates the development of writing skills, so writing can help build proficiency in reading. Therefore, teachers should therefore consider writing activities that help students prepare for, respond to, and comprehend reading selections more effectively

(Ferris and Hedgcock, 1998, p. 43).

4. Where exactly does writer/reader interact with reader/writer? And, where does writing/reading meet reading/writing?

4.1 Writer/Reader as Reader/Writer: A Philosophical Notion

In order to capture the very core of writer-reader interaction as well as writing-reading dynamics, an illustration of the occasions where writer/reader meets reader/writer and writing/reading interplays with reading/writing at both the philosophical and practical levels should further support the significance of the implementation of reading-writing connection in the literacy education. Robert Tierney & David Pearson (1983), ahead of others, viewed “reading and writing as essentially similar process of meaning construction. Both are acts of composing” (p. 568). And pinpointed that, during the composing process, writers compose meaning and so do readers, and they meet at each of the five stages of such an effective meaning composing process: (1) planning, (2) drafting, (3) aligning, (4) revision, and (5) monitoring.

At the earliest stage, while a writer plans his/her writing, a reader is planning his/her reading as well. Planning, according to Tierney & Pearson, involves two sub-processes: goal-setting and knowledge mobilization, both of which reflect some common behaviors observable in readers and writers, such as setting purposes, evaluating one’s current state of knowledge regarding a topic, and self-questioning, etc. Next, drafting, defined as “the refinement of meaning which occurs as readers and writers deal directly with the print on the page”(p. 571) is where writers and readers encounter again. When starting reading a passage, readers typically will search for the right “lead” (i.e., “the beginning of the beginning, those few lines the reader may glance at in deciding to read or pass on” (p. 571)). Readers’ search-for period resembles precisely writers’ drafting period through which both thrive. Moreover, it is believed, at the following stage, that the “alignment” a writer and reader adopts will have an overriding influence on a composer’s ability to achieve coherence. Tierney & Pearson claimed that, while approaching a text, readers and writers vary in the nature of their stance and collaboration with the author/writer (if they are a reader) or audience/reader (if they are a writer) and optimally align with this collaboration, immersing

themselves in different roles. Both adapting and alignment were considered akin to achieving foothold from which meaning can be more thoroughly negotiated. Furthermore, “revising,” a widely accepted notion in the writing process, is re-integrated into the path of reading. It is argued that if readers ought to develop certain control over and a sense of discovery with the models of meaning they build, they must approach text with the same deliberation, time, and reflection (at rereading, annotating, and questioning the text) that a writer employs so often as he/she revises a text. The last moment, monitoring, is identified as the time readers and writers come to evaluate what they have developed after hand-in-hand planning, aligning, drafting, and revising. In fact, Tierney & Pearson’s “composing model of reading” offers a vivid instance in which readers/writers contract implicitly with writers/readers.

Smith’s (1994) “Writer-reader Contract” chapter, in addition, illustrated the writer-reader relationship more explicitly by suggesting that writers and readers engage with each other in specifically two aspects of language usage, “comprehension” and “convention.” To Smith, writing and reading are both acts of putting meanings into words. Comprehension is where writers and readers first meet. Initially, composition (i.e., what writers typically do) interacts with comprehension (i.e., what readers mostly do). Writers, while composing, need to grasp what the reader will comprehend; therefore, are performing comprehending tasks. In contrast, readers, when attempting to comprehend a text, must understand what writers are composing, are actually composing their own meanings based on the print. The text, according to Smith is the two-sided mirror, the link, and the joint where reading meets writing, writers connect with readers as he simply put “neither writers nor readers can exist without a text” (Smith, 1994, p. 87).

Meanwhile, convention, as Smith proclaimed, is crucial in the writer-reader connection. “Writers and readers must both share the conventions they employ and encounter; they cannot work out what a convention is likely to be” (Smith, 1994, p. 61). In other words, writers and readers will be unable to perform either “composition” or “comprehension” without understanding the conventions embedded. Smith further explained that writers, by means of “intentions” and

“conventions,” are allowed to express themselves in writing; readers read with “expectations” and “conventions” are permitted to understand ideas in reading. Conventions work closely with intentions for writers in that intentions determine what writers want to say, and conventions enable it to be said. Layers of intention, ranging from focal to global level (i.e., word, sentence, paragraph, chapter, and book intentions), walk with writers when writing a book. Likewise, conventions collaborate with expectations for readers as they read with expectations, moving in a non-linear fashion around levels of expectations, (including those of word, sentence, paragraph, chapter, and book expectations,) readers look for conventions to comprehend. “Perfect comprehension would occur when the writer’s intentions and the reader’s expectations coincided completely, when every intention of the author was correctly anticipated by the reader, and when every expectation of the reader was fulfilled” (Smith, 1994, p. 96). Nevertheless, it is under the umbrella of conventions that writers know what to intend, readers know what to expect, and comprehension of any written materials become possible.

Darrell Fike (2000) also discussed how writers meet readers in the interpretation of poetry. His theories of analyzing poetry offer conventional interpretations normally associated whenever a poem is created or read. Four elements of a poem, including the language (from which the poem is made), the subject (the poem contains), the writer (the poem belongs to), and the reader (the poem includes) will be normally taken into consideration. In his highlight of the “expressive theory of writing and reading,” Fike explained that the writer/poet whose soul is emerged within the poem is valued highest and find, nearly by magic, ways to put expressions in words on the paper. Non-poet readers, though treated secondary to and less important than the writer, may share the poet’s passion and emotions conveyed by the poem. Here a poet and non-poet distinction seems to be made. However, it can be inferred that the poet (writer) him-/her-self is still considered a qualified reader with unique sense in reading and interpreting his/her own poem.

To summarize from the philosophical arguments above, it is then reasonable to consider writer/reader and reader/writer as inseparable individuals and is also worthwhile to have examined the reading-writing connection as an important component of the literacy development.

4.2 Writing Meets Reading: A Practical Idea

Pedagogists and in-class professionals have observed the significance of reading-writing correlation and have advocated language teachers to make the best use of such uniqueness derived from the interface of these two skills. Spack (1985) introduced the idea of literary journal, an activity that is considered as an effective reading/writing-and-writing/reading reinforcing exercise. Students, after reading literary works, are directed to write plot summaries, or brief character analyses, or to explicate an idea or a passage from the story and further expand their thoughts by writing in the literary journal, which serve as directive or reflective guidelines, leading students to read and write more. The practice of students' keeping of a journal entry has been widely adopted in many undergraduate, graduate and ESL courses in the United States and has been proved to be very efficient in helping students' learning (Williamson, personal communication, August 15, 1999; Bencich, personal communication, July 17, 2000).

Elsewhere, Julia Gousseva (1998) suggested that "peer reviews" is a very popular technique in a composition class that reflects the whole language view of reading and writing as interrelated activities and of readers and writers as inseparable entities. Peer reviews, according to Gousseva, is a powerful learning tool incorporating reading and writing practice in many ways. For example, the activity provide students an authentic audience, increase students' motivation for writing, enables students to receive different viewpoints on their own writing, thus helping students learn to read critically their own writing and to gain confidence in writing. Besides, A. Gilliam (1990) also noted that peer reviews benefit both the respondent and the writer in that students, as reading and responding to peers' papers, develop critical reading skills as well as exercise "different order

reading skills” (p. 98) than those employed by the students when reading professionally written texts, which are assumed to be flawless.

In short, readers and writers benefit from each other; reading students and writing students gain mutually from both of the paralleled learning experiences as well. As Timothy Shanahan (1990) sincerely encouraged in his book, Reading and Writing Together: New Perspectives for the Classroom, reading and teaching should be taught together because it will improve student achievement and teacher instructional efficiency, foster a communications stance in literacy, help learners use combined reading-writing skill as a tool to learn, and provide more energetic classroom atmosphere.

5. How are professional TESOL programs designed in practicing theories and preparing ESL teachers?

Since the idea of integration of reading and writing in literacy education is fairly new, it is worthy investigating to see if, in particular, TESOL teacher education programs have acknowledged such notion and adjusted along with the new trend. Besides, interviews with professional teacher educators currently, actively, involved with ESL teacher training and an intensive ESL program director will further provide in-depth perspectives regarding the issue of reading-writing integration. A questionnaire that containing valuable opinions collected from both experienced native and nonnative teachers-in-preparation currently enrolled in the TESOL and Rhetoric and Linguistics program here at a small university in Pennsylvania comes next. It gives an overview which sketches how first language and second language teachers are going to handle this new change and how their ideas will influence their later practice. Hopefully, all of the data will eventually contribute to the embryo of the most up-to-dated curriculum in L1 and L2 literacy development for classroom practitioners as well as for first language and, in particular, second language students.

5.1 Descriptive Survey of TESOL Programs in the U. S.

Two hundred and twenty-three graduate programs (i.e., 194 master and 29 Ph.D. programs, excluding Canadian ones) are listed in Garshick's (1998) Directory of Professional Preparation programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada, 1999-2001. Though arbitrarily, a glance at all of the courses offered in preparing future ESL practitioners to teach literacy skills among these programs yields certain interesting results. Courses that target at the teaching of reading and writing vary to a great extent but still disclose certain underlying assumptions shared by the initial establishers of these TESOL programs in American settings.

While 21 programs offer only "teaching of reading" kinds of courses, 16 others afford only "teaching of writing." Besides, other 14 programs provide both "teaching of writing" and "teaching of reading" courses yet separate them as two independent ones. Still, 22 additional programs have obtained "teaching reading and writing" type of courses within which two skills are dealt together. If added with other 10 programs that title courses under "literacy" (without explicitly listing "reading" and "writing"), 32 graduate TESOL programs have recognized the significance of the interaction between reading and writing and have implemented such integration in their curricula (see Figure 1 in Appendix B).

However, this brief comparison among programs also shows some extreme cases, both of conventional and bright new designs. On one hand, reading and writing are somehow separated and being considered strongly connected with grammar, linguistic mechanism. For instance, Linguistics Ph.D. program in the University of Delaware offers course, titled "Linguistics and Writing" (Garshick's, 1998, p. 65).

MA TESL/intercultural studies program in the Columbia International University separates reading from writing and treats these two skills in "Techniques of TEFL: Listening, Speaking, and Reading," and "Techniques of TEFL: Structure and Writing"(Garshick's, 1998, p. 61). Somehow, it seems odd to combine reading with listening and speaking as traditionally and theoretically the latter ones are considered as 'oracy.' The most unusual program, MA in TESOL, Eastern Michigan

University, includes reading, writing, and grammar in one course which presumably treats grammar as the core of both skills, reflecting the conventional notion that sees grammar as an important component in both reading and writing. On the other hand, groundbreaking institutes, found in the directory, are sending new practical message which suggests that reading, writing, and reading and writing ought to be taught in three different courses, within each of which different concentrations lies. Examples are MA TESOL in the Fresno Pacific University (p. 82), MA ESL in the University of Texas at San Antonio (p. 235), and MEd ESL in the University of Southern Maine (p. 222).

5.2 Interviews with Teacher Educators and the Intensive ESL Program Director

Based on her profound observation and life-long experience with L1 and L2 teacher education, Bencich (personal communication, July 17, 2000) suggested that “reading and writing should combined together and taught in the same course in two consecutive semesters.” No other researchers, pedagogists or teachers have ever offered this latest view concerning the reading-writing correlation in teacher training program. Meanwhile, such view is echoed by another TESOL teacher educator who is formerly an intensive ESL program director. Aghbar (2000) stated that “When I started [as an administrator], all the skills were separated. Then we started thinking that there should be more integration. So we combined reading and writing. We also combined listening and speaking.” Aghbar’s integration position at which he sees the advantage of teaching both reading and writing skills altogether as he expressed that teachers should not focus on just one skill and forget about the other one. Practical mistake often seen in the ESL classroom, according to Aghbar, is that teachers find it easy to focus on writing and use reading as a springboard to generating ideas for writing without focusing much on developing reading strategies.

5.3 Voice from Teachers-in-preparation: A Mini Questionnaire

5.3.1 Foreword of the questionnaire

Fourteen graduate students participated in this survey (see Appendix A), including 5 native speakers of English, 4 Taiwanese, 3 Thai, 1 Japanese and 1 Korean speakers who are currently enrolled in the MA TESOL and Ph.D. Rhetoric & Linguistics programs in a small scale university in Pennsylvania. Before starting analyzing any data, a few notes need to be made to solidify these questionnaires. Among all puzzles that occurred, the trickiest one resulted from the lack of a specific definition on “reading” and “writing.” All non-natives have the same doubt, i.e., ”What exactly is considered as an act of writing or reading?” Non-native participants who have had an L2 learning experience have a wider sense in recognizing what counts as an act of writing. It could range from the very first experience of drawing, sketching, and producing fragments of sentences, to the writing of formal compositions. In contrast, natives have no difficulty in answering most of the questions as they somehow associate “writing” with “the act of composition writing;” “reading” with “the act of comprehending written materials.” Moreover, anonymity becomes invalid as all participants can be identified by the personal information they provide in the first question. A more appropriate question should just ask them to identify whether they are native or non-native speakers at the beginning since one focus of the questionnaire is looking for the contrast between L1 and L2 language teachers. Besides, their wiliness to declare their identities add some more interesting points to the data also. Anonymity is actually not necessary after all.

5.3.2 Discussion of the questionnaire: Question by question

In this section, the original layout of the questionnaire is provided. Each question from the questionnaire is analyzed based on the participants’ responses.

SECTION I—PERSONAL ACADEMIC BACKGROUND:

(Please answer your questions based on your learning experience in your “*academic schooling before graduate level.*”)

1. Personal information

- a. Please provide the names of the institutions of your teaching setting currently or formerly (L1 or L2 or both) and how many years you have involved in that setting.
- b. Your position(s)
- c. Courses title(s) taught

This question serves to retrieve subjects’ teaching experience, such as years of teaching, courses in which they taught reading or/and writing. Two native speakers are now actively involved with the teaching of composition while the other three used to have experience of teaching conversation courses. Non-natives, though vary in the years of teaching, have never taught any courses that particularly target at either reading or writing skill.

2. In your own opinion, does reading come before writing or writing come after reading in your L1 experience? (Recall the very beginning when you first sensed these 2 skills.)

All native subjects report that reading always comes before writing in their L1 whereas all non-natives felt that writing precedes reading if drawing and sketching are considered a form of writing. Interestingly, all four Taiwanese subjects recall that their initial experiences of L1 reading and writing were concurrent as they remember reading-aloud words they had just managed to write (see Figure 1, Appendix B). To these Taiwanese subjects, the literacy development starts from picture drawing, to logographic word imitating, reading the short passage, and finally to formal composition writing. In fact, it is a recursive reinforcing process during writing and reading mutually shape each other.

3. How is the same process taking place while you are learning an L2?

Only two natives have L2 learning experience. And one of them believed that reading in L2 arrives earlier than writing in L2. As both native speakers feel that L2 proficiency is a vital factor in determining their readiness to read and, then, write, all non-natives share the same feeling. Thai, Japanese, and Korean subjects are taking the same position as that of natives. On the contrast, all Taiwanese noted that their English learning experience is actually a “write-before-read” one (see Table 1). L2 proficiency, to Taiwanese subjects, narrowly refers to vocabulary proficiency only.

	US	Taiwan	Korea	Japan	Thai	TOTAL
reading > writing	5					5
reading + writing		4				4
writing > reading			1	1	3	5

Table 1. Reading and writing in L1 (The mark “>” indicates one skill precedes the other.)

Unless they learn a large numbers of new English words by practicing writing or memorizing, they never feel ready to read. It seems that Taiwanese learners carry over their L1 learning experience and strategies, and implement them again with L2 (English) learning. In fact, it is a presumable and widely accepted L2 curriculum (imposed by the Taiwanese Ministry of Education,) that any L2 acquisition has to start from writing (the words) and then reading (texts), followed by listening and speaking that comes last. Such language teaching and learning policy has been practiced for more than five decades.

4. In L1 (and L2) learning, what did you normally do if encountering difficulty in reading a text?

5. In L1 (and L2) learning, how was the same problem handled when writing a text?

L1 reading strategies, as for native speakers, include re-reading, guessing from contexts, and using dictionary. Non-natives employ almost the same strategies except that one Thai subject often turns to her parents for help (a case in which home literacy may affect L1 literacy development). Regarding L1 writing habits, natives tend to use revising, reviewing, and editing skills but can hardly recall their memory of L2 writing, as their experience of first writing are merely too temporary. Non-natives mostly find themselves very confident in writing in mother tongue but all report that their biggest trouble in English writing is the problems of grammar and mechanism that sometimes make them unable to polish or/and edit their own writing. While dictionary is found to be very limited in helping their writing, non-native subjects often turn to others for extra help, including American friends, writing tutors, and professors.

6. In your L1 schooling (k-12, college), were writing and reading taught separately or altogether?

Nationality (as for non-natives) and age (as for natives) play a vital role that affects all participants' answering of this question. Taiwanese, Thai, and Korean subjects all respond that writing and reading are taught together in their L1 education. Surprisingly, Japanese subject says that he had many Japanese reading courses and never any academic L1 writing training. What is even more interesting is that American subjects' L1 educational experience fall into three groups according to their periods of schooling: (1) ages of 40 and above—writing is based on reading literature, (2) ages between 30 and 40—writing and reading are separated (though one native says she was never taught writing), (3) ages below 30—writing and reading are dealt within the same course (see Table 1 below).

	Literature-based Reading	Reading; Writing Separated	Reading only	Reading & Writing together
Ages above 40	1 native			
Ages between 30 and 40		2 natives		
Ages below 30			1 non-native	11 (1 native; 9 non-natives)

Table 2. Responses to Question 6 (Were reading and writing taught separately or together in K-college?) in the survey

7. How was L2 writing and reading dealt in your academic training? Were they treated separately as that of your L1 learning?

An overwhelming phenomenon is found that reading and writing are always separated in all subjects' L2 learning. Of these two Americans who had L2 experience, one consistently states that reading actually helps writing a lot regardless of his L1, L2, or even L3 acquisition. The youngest American subject even shares her bitter experience in senior high school where second language courses were only offered to academically distinguished students (see Table 3).

	US	Taiwan	Korea	Japan	Thai	TOTAL
reading > writing	2		1	1	3	7
reading + writing						0
writing > reading		4				4

Table 3. Reading and writing in L2 (The mark ">" indicates one skill precedes the other.)

SECTION II—TEACHER PREPARATION:

(Please answer your questions based on your learning experience in your "*Teacher Preparation Process.*")

8. Were (Are) you required to take any courses, such as "Teaching reading," "Teaching writing," or "Teaching literacy," related to the teaching of these two skills (R & W)? (Please list course title, and all related courses you took or are taking dealing with these 2 skills in you Master program or Ph.D. program.)

This question should be completely omitted since most subjects provide either no or less meaningful information. All non-native doctoral students do not give any information about

courses they have taken before entering this university. Moreover, non-native master students currently enrolled in the TESOL program have not reported if they have taken any “teaching reading” or “teaching writing” course at the graduate level since this is their first teacher education program. Two native doctoral subjects, however, share some of their experience prior to this graduate program. Both are English professors with more than 10-year experience and are teaching courses in literature, compositions, and linguistics at American colleges meanwhile. One said that she had a teaching reading course and has taken 4 teaching composition courses altogether up to now whereas the other one has had neither the reading theory nor teaching writing courses.

9. As an L1 or L2 teacher, what position will you take while teaching reading and writing:
- A. Reading and writing should be taught separately in two separate courses.
 - B. Reading and writing should be taught together within one course.
 - C. Reading, writing, and reading & writing, should be all dealt in 3 different courses.
 - D. Others. (Please state your choice and explain why you think so.)

Amazingly enough, some cross-linguistic agreement can be reached among speakers of different languages. Seven subjects (including two of the 5 natives) choose position (A) while 5 other (including the other 3 natives) subjects prefer position (B). The Japanese and Korean subjects pick position (C). People who speak from position (A), overall, believe that reading and writing may interrelate to each other yet find it still necessary to teach them independently. If taught separately, reading and writing can be dealt with more specific emphasis in their own domains. Teachers may use one skill as an activating technique to solidify the acquisition of the other skill without completely ignoring the other. Nevertheless, subjects of position (B) draw from their own learning and teaching experience during which they never feel that reading and writing can be, at any moment, being separated. Finally, the two supporters of position (C) state that it is a new trend to include all reading, writing, and reading and writing in a well-prepared curriculum as

students, other than benefit from each individual skill, can benefit from the reading-writing correlation also.

10.As an L1 or L2 teacher, based on the position you just chose, what are the advantages and disadvantages of your position?

Supporters of position (A) think that the separation of reading and writing will give students less burden (especially if they happen to be just beginners). Yet, defenders of position (B) approach this issue of integration from both teacher's and learner's perspectives. They all recognize that both reading and writing reinforce each other so that students will gain pretty much from such a process. On the other hand, it will also, at the same time, give teacher a lot of work, as additional effort is needed to incorporate another language skill. The Japanese participant, however, speaks from position (C), saying that his inclusion of all three courses will not only require teacher to invest extra energy but also demand students to work harder. He suggests that students have certain options when choosing to read, write, or read and write according to personal interests, needs, and motivations.

11.In your L1 or/and L2, what makes you a better reader?

12.In your L1 or/and L2, what makes you a better reader?

It is interesting to conclude that all subjects, regardless of their positions discussed above, express that reading more will help them read better. Though other minor factors, such as prior knowledge, personal interests, extensive and intensive reading, and motivations, may be involved, none of them includes writing as a significant contributor in making them become a better reader. Along with other components, including teacher feedback, grammar and mechanism, reading, on the contrary, is an important skill recognized by all participants in the survey that actually helps them write better.

5.3.3 Synthesis of the questionnaire

Though it is arguable that the choice of the subjects participating in this survey are too limited as they have been pre-selected from the graduate programs in the small scale university, their personal opinions have significant meanings that add to the understanding of the process of L1/L2 reading and writing development:

1. L1 literacy education at earlier stage has a strong impact on students' later literacy development, and may also influence similar process in L2 literacy acquisition. (This is so true in the case of Taiwanese subjects.)
2. Level of proficiency in L2 plays a key role in learners' determining their success in L2 reading and writing.
3. Learners (L1 & L2) believe that reading can help writing but have a tendency not to consider writing as an equally important contributor to their reading.

6. Concluding Remarks and Recommendations

Researchers have all shed lights on the issue of reading-writing correlation. For instance, Grabe (1991) concluded, "In short, students learn to read by reading" (p. 396). In addition, Zambel (1992) advocated that the teaching of reading and writing cannot be torn apart nor can they be arranged in linear order so that one necessarily precedes the other" (p. 480). Likewise, Eisterhold (1990) and Eisterhold et al (1990) also recognized that the reading-writing relation changes during the literacy development and that ESL learners must break the proficiency barrier to fully develop their L2 literacy competence while Grabe and Kaplan (1996) believed that the integration of writing and reading is applicable at all proficiency levels. Data collected from teacher educators currently involved with reading and writing theory, along with the responses from teachers-in-preparation, have also contributed significantly to the blueprint for the best teaching of reading and writing. Four kinds of positions are being taken here:

1. (L1/L2) Reading and writing should be taught separately.
2. (L1/L2) Reading and writing should be always taught together and never be detached from each other.
3. (L1/L2) Reading-writing relation is considered very important and the nature of the reading-writing relationship varies at different stages of acquisition.
4. Level of L2 proficiency could be a factor that determines learners' L2 literacy success yet should not prohibit L2 teachers from bringing in the reading-writing integration technique.

In order to arrive an ultimately thorough position, I am calling for a combined L2 curriculum in which “reading, writing, and the reading-writing interaction” are taught independently while emphases are also placed on different levels of literacy developments, students' needs, and course goals. It should be the best position at which teachers can most efficiently teach and help L2 learners to best learn from each of the three skills, i.e., reading, writing, and reading-writing integration.

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APPENDIX A

A CURIOUS QUESTIONNAIRE:

(Your responses will be kept confidential and destroyed after this paper is completed.)

SECTION I-- PERSONAL ACADEMIC BACKGROUND:

*(Please answer your questions based on your learning experience in your “academic schooling before **graduate** level.”)*

1. Personal information
 - a. Please provide the names of the institutions of your teaching setting currently or formerly (L1 or L2 or both) and how many years you have involved in that setting.
 - b. Your position(s)
 - c. Courses title(s) taught
2. In your own opinion, does reading come before writing or writing come after reading in your L1 experience? (Recall the very beginning when you first sensed these 2 skills.)
3. How is the same process taking place while you are learning an L2?
4. In L1 (and L2) learning, what did you normally do if encountering difficulty in reading a text?
5. In L1 (and L2) learning, how was the same problem handled when writing a text?
6. In your L1 schooling (k-12, college), were writing and reading taught separately or altogether?
7. How was L2 writing and reading dealt in your academic training? Were they treated separately as that of your L1 learning?

SECTION II—TEACHER PREPARATION:

*(Please answer your questions based on your learning experience in your “**Teacher Preparation Process.**”)*

8. Were (Are) you required to take any courses, such as “Teaching reading,” “Teaching writing,” or “Teaching literacy,” related to the teaching of these two skills (R & W)?
(Please list course title, and all related courses you took or are taking dealing with these 2 skills in you Master program or Ph.D. program.)

9. As an L1 or L2 teacher, what position will you take while teaching reading and writing:
 - a. Reading and writing should be taught separately in two separate courses.
 - b. Reading and writing should be taught together within one course.
 - c. Reading, writing, and reading & writing, should be all dealt in 3 different courses.
 - d. Others. (Please state your choice and explain why you think so.)

10. As an L1 or L2 teacher, based on the position you just chose, what are the advantages and disadvantages of your position?

11. In your L1 or/and L2, what makes you a better reader?

12. In your L1 or/and L2, what makes you a better writer?

APPENDIX B

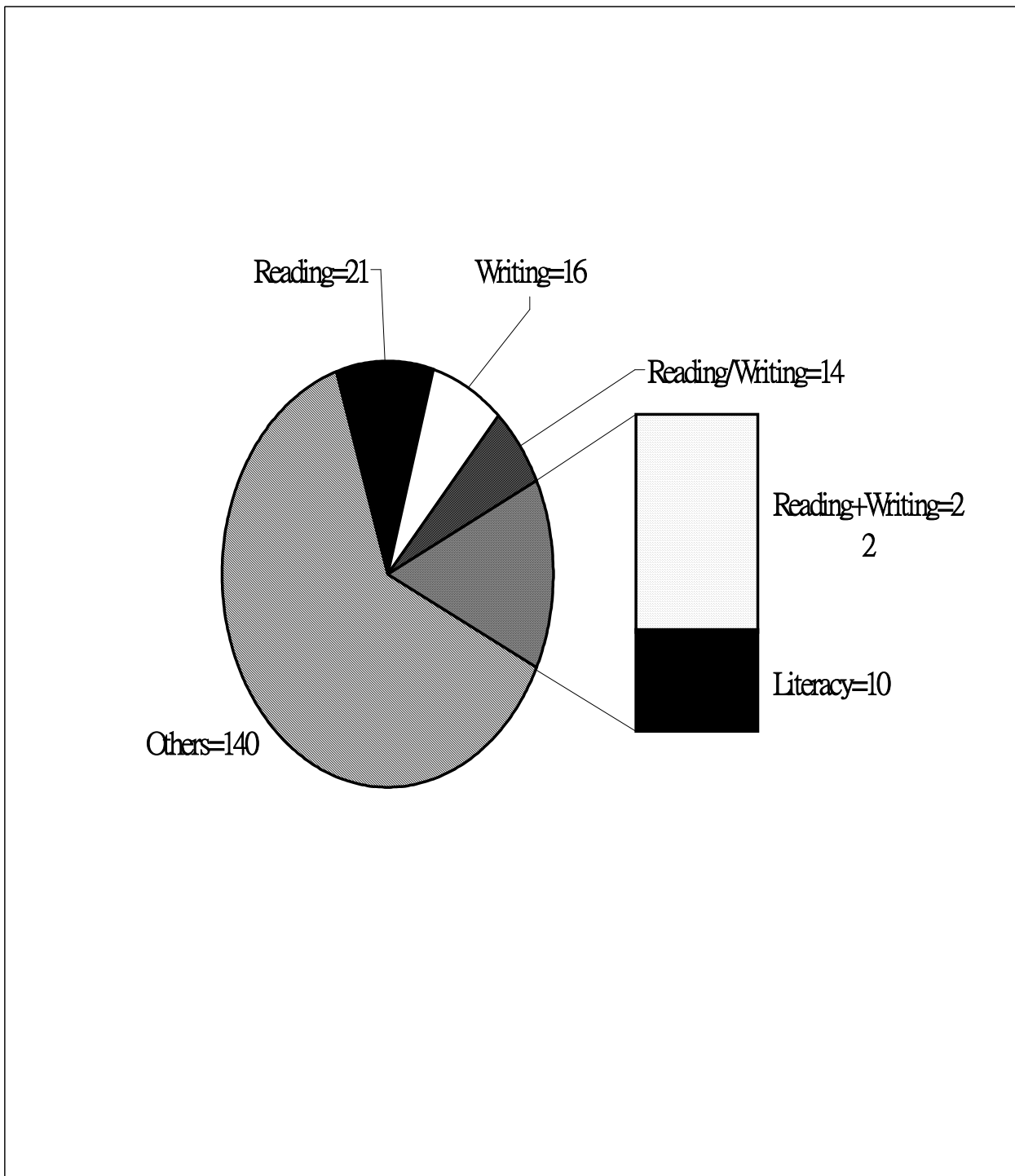


Figure 1. Reading and writing courses offered in TESOL programs in the US (The mark “/” indicates that reading and writing are separated.)