

“Reading to Write” in East Asian Studies

Leora Freedman

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

A reading-writing initiative called “Reading to Write” began in 2011–12 at the University of Toronto as a partnership between an East Asian Studies (EAS) department and an English Language Learning (ELL) Program. In this institution, students are expected to enter into scholarly discussions in their first year essays, yet many (both native English speakers and non-native speakers) did not seem to adequately comprehend or to complete the assigned reading. With a large number of multilingual students enrolled in its courses, EAS was seen as the ideal site to pilot integrated support for English language proficiency. Language-teaching methodology related to reading comprehension, vocabulary expansion, and academic writing was adapted to the disciplinary material and embedded in the curriculum of weekly tutorial (small group) sessions led by TAs. The initiative has resulted in a rapid development in TAs’ teaching ability as well as a rise in EAS department morale. Although a formal study has not been undertaken, the perception among TAs and faculty is that the quality of students’ reading and writing has also improved.

Cultural Changes in the University

In Canada, “college reading” is not necessarily synonymous with the reading done at four-year universities. Colleges have traditionally focused on vocational education, so “college reading” is more likely to consist of textbooks rather than scholarly material. On the other hand, the reading at four-year universities emphasizes the critical comprehension of peer-reviewed texts and includes oral and written engagement with this disciplinary scholarship. Even for students with English as their first language (L1), this university reading presents challenges. The situation is further complicated by the relatively recent growth of a “multilingual majority” (Hall, 2009) in our university population. The difficulties multilingual students may have with scholarly reading are often compounded by gaps in their educational backgrounds as well as by disruptions that have occurred in their lives (Johns, 2005) . . . The four-year university system in Canada is currently engaged in an extensive process of change in order to develop adequate social and pedagogical strategies for integrating so many students with English as their second (or third etc.) language (L2).

Given these deep cultural changes in the makeup of our student population, teaching methods are rapidly evolving. This article will discuss the development of “Reading to Write,” a pedagogical experiment launched four years ago in two large introductory East Asian Studies (EAS) courses at the University of Toronto (UT). EAS focuses on the study of East Asian history, languages, literature, philosophy, and religion; and students can earn either an undergraduate major, “specialist,” or minor (these terms have somewhat different meanings in Canada). The department offers mainstream, credit-bearing courses which were previously not in any way specially geared for L2 students, though they attracted a large percentage of L2 undergraduates. EAS courses also continue to include many L1 students. English language instruction, in which primacy was given to fostering academic reading ability for both L1 and L2 students, has now been integrated into three EAS gateway courses through a collaborative initiative with the English Language Learning Program (ELL) <http://www.artsci.utoronto.ca/current/advising/ell>. As of 2016, “Reading to Write” has been running for five years, but the focus of this chapter will be on the initiative’s first and most formative academic year, 2011–12.

The 23,702 undergraduate students in UT’s Faculty of Arts and Science, to which EAS belongs, come from 140 countries (“About Arts & Science” 2012). Many (40–50%) are first generation university students. UT has a policy of “guaranteed access,” in that financial means are arranged for all accepted students, and the institution serves many Toronto residents, 40% of whom were born outside Canada. There is also a large cohort of multilingual international students. The university has a well-developed system of writing centers and a Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) program, both of which provide support to this initiative. The ELL Program also offers non-credit courses and drop-in activities for multilingual students. However, for all undergraduates across this university there is no required English or composition course, and there are no credit-bearing English as a Second Language (ESL) courses. There are also no general education requirements of the type seen in US (and some other Canadian) institutions. Given the scale of the need to address English language development, the goal of the initiative was to create a model that could be exported from EAS to other departments. In order to achieve this, it has been necessary to work toward a significant cultural shift around multilingualism, to build what Zamel (2004, p. 7) terms “the model of possibility.”

Raising Awareness about Multilingualism

Several years of preparatory groundwork preceded the EAS initiative. During this period, individual sessions were given by the ELL coordinator to groups of TAs across the disciplines, in cooperation with the WAC and TA Training programs. Topics included the function of languages in students’ layered identities (Ferreira &

Mendelowitz, 2009; Hafernik, 2012), teaching multilingual students (Freedman, 2012b), and marking papers in a multilingual environment (Freedman, 2012b). Resources for faculty and teaching assistants were disseminated on the Writing at UT website <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/faculty> and at new faculty orientation sessions. The non-credit Intensive Academic English course offered to students by the ELL program had also generated curricular models and “content based” materials (Song, 2006; Stoller, 2002) that could be adapted to credit courses. When funding became available for a larger project, it was apparent that the most fruitful place to start was with a reconsideration of the role of reading in the academic lives of students. Initial sessions on how to incorporate reading strategies instruction into the discussion of a disciplinary text (Freedman, 2012c) had been given for faculty and TAs, and the strong responses—both positive and negative—indicated that this topic touched a nerve.

In just a few years, the initial surprise at the suggestion that students in a university requiring a very high GPA for entry might need reading instruction has begun to give way to acceptance of this fact and enthusiasm for integrating methods of reading support. (For a detailed survey of research establishing the critical importance of directly teaching university-level reading, see the “don’t, won’t, can’t” section of the editors’ Introduction to this book). It has been helpful to expose TAs and faculty to recent research on reading comprehension among university students, which explores the reasons for non-compliance with reading assignments (Hoeft, 2012) as well as the gap between students’ perceived level of comprehension vs. their actual understanding (Manarin, 2012). Instructors and TAs now see that “ESL” issues are intertwined with issues of migration, class, and educational background, and that our native-speaker population also benefits from the attention to English proficiency.

Creating an Instructional Model

The goal of the “Reading to Write” initiative was to integrate language instruction with the regular curriculum (Cox, 2011) of two large first-year East Asian Studies courses which attract many international and multilingual students and are required for a major in this discipline. (This department was not involved in the university’s WAC program, and there were no previous interventions. It was also determined that it was not necessary to obtain approval for this project from the Institutional Review Board). Reading was seen as the most fundamental area to address, underlying the difficulties many of the students have with research, writing, vocabulary, and speaking. At initial meetings with the EAS department, the ELL coordinator discussed the “reciprocity” between reading and writing (Leki, 2001) and the need to address the more visible writing issues through the disci-

plinary reading that informs writing (Grabe, 2001; Matsuda, 2001). EAS had the advantage that its faculty and TAs had first-hand experience with attaining a high level of literacy in an additional language, either English or an Asian language, since knowing an Asian language is an important part of the discipline. As well, EAS undergraduate students and Ph.D. candidates are required by the department to study one of the Asian languages; therefore, attention to language learning was already part of the departmental culture. For many faculty members, both reading in a foreign language and translation are regular aspects of their scholarship.

Although these are large lecture courses with about 200 students per class, the students also have a weekly 50-minute session or “tutorial” with a teaching assistant, in groups of about 25. Most TAs at UT teach tutorials that are attached to larger courses taught by a faculty member, though some TAs work only as markers (graders). These tutorials have traditionally been seen as a site for reviewing and—at their best—critically discussing and applying course concepts. However, the TAs are usually given minimal teacher training, and the planning of tutorial sessions is often left up to the TA. Some departments or courses do have a distinct curriculum for tutorials, but criticism is often leveled at the many other departments in which the tutorial is merely a repetition of ideas from the lecture or the readings in easier, more digestible terms.

In EAS, the more general problem of reading comprehension was compounded by the department’s emphasis on teaching history as an exercise in critical thinking from the very beginning of students’ involvement in this discipline. This means that contrary to the expectations of many EAS students, the learning of historical chronology and facts is subordinated to the critical examination of historiography. In some instances, faculty are attempting to “un-teach” the monolithic official histories students have absorbed in their previous educations. It is likely that this process of challenging the way students have been taught to think about East Asian history makes reading in English even more difficult, as the schemata necessary for the task are not already ingrained.

It was decided by EAS that all 12 weeks of the TA-led tutorial sessions would be reshaped to include the teaching and practice of strategies for scholarly reading and writing. These would be designed to be useful to both L1 and L2 students. Both the faculty and the Lead TA wanted to address the problems of past iterations of these courses, in which students had relied on TAs to summarize points from the professors’ lectures and from the readings. The initiative was seized as an opportunity to make the tutorials a more active learning environment, to scaffold readings without replacing them, and to support students’ writing.

One of the primary goals of the “Reading to Write” initiative was to improve the training of TAs as a path toward assisting students. In this goal, we benefited from the experience of the university’s WAC program, which provided a ready-made TA development model. In the WAC program, departments choose a Lead

TA who receives intensive training in writing pedagogy. In turn, the Lead TA trains the TAs in particular courses to deliver writing instruction as part of one or more tutorials (“Writing Instruction”/WIT, 2011). In this pilot phase of the ELL initiative, the Lead TA was largely trained one-to-one with the ELL coordinator. In the 2011–12 “Reading to Write” initiative, the EAS Lead TA held four developmental workshops with the course TAs each term, in which TAs simulated some of the tutorial activities they were expected to lead. In some of these training sessions, the materials used to demonstrate methods of teaching reading strategies were taken from the literature on multilingual learners, so that TAs were simultaneously introduced to the ideas of Vivian Zamel, Ilona Leki, and other researchers.

During this preparatory period, the ELL coordinator did not encourage EAS faculty members to change readings they traditionally assigned or to lessen the amount of required reading. The faculty members reflected on their choices of reading and made some changes, but generally the initiative has emphasized helping students rise to the expected level of achievement in their reading and writing. The essay assignments in both courses were redesigned to reflect the structures common in EAS literature. Students were explicitly asked to make decisions about essay organization that mirrored those made by scholars in this discipline. For example, students structured their analytical content either chronologically, discussing a point related to a particular time and moving across cultures, or spatially (geographically), analyzing a point related to a particular location and moving through time. As well, six shorter, “low-stakes” writing assignments were designed and added to each course. In addressing the needs of language-learners through faculty development, the “Reading to Write” initiative reflected the CCCC position statement on Second Language Writing and Writers (2009).

Redesigning EAS Tutorials

As a first step in preparing tutorial materials, the ELL coordinator produced a series of short handouts describing various reading and language-learning strategies. The approach is similar to what might be used in an advanced English language course in which students are learning to read scholarly texts. Some of the methods were adapted from the ELL coordinator’s experience abroad teaching English as a Foreign Language to advanced undergraduates as well as MA and Ph.D. candidates. These methods were presented as techniques that can assist nearly every reader or writer, whether one is working in an additional or a native language.

The reading, vocabulary building, and writing strategies presented in the handouts in the first term were: (1) previewing (see Appendix A); (2) skimming and scanning; (3) active reading; (4) learning vocabulary from context clues; (5) summarizing, and (6) distinguishing an author’s opinion (as opposed to the opinion

of a cited source). In the second term, some of these earlier strategies were applied in new ways, and additional handouts were developed on: (7) distinguishing between information and argument; (8) how information is used in an argument, and (9) the visual mapping of an article (Freedman, 2012a). All of these handouts are posted in the Resources for Students section of the ELL website: <http://www.artsci.utoronto.ca/current/advising/ell/resources-for-students>.

Using these ELL handouts as a basis, the Lead TA created six online “low-stakes” writing assignments for each course, a plan inspired in part by Khoo’s (2007) use of short assignments for critical reading/writing practice by English-language students. In the Fall EAS course, an introduction to pre-modern East Asian history, these brief assignments fell into two categories. The first few were accounts of the students’ own experiences with these strategies, as applied to the collection of primary historical documents that formed the bulk of the Fall course reading. The last few assignments introduced a method for summarizing and also required an informal account of the student’s observations and questions about the text. We called this informal response “active reading” and described it as the first stage of formulating a critical reading response. These assignments were reflective and personal, yet they were also linked to the disciplinary material—a combination well-suited to students transitioning from high school. We thus built into the course design the expectation that students would experience for themselves the “reciprocity” between reading and writing and would see how practice in each reinforced the other. We wanted them to become conscious of their individual approaches to reading. In addition to this, we realized they needed a comparatively long time to get used to the idea—totally foreign to many—that their own views of a reading could be significant.

In each tutorial during the Fall EAS course, students were introduced by their TAs to a particular strategy or aspect of the reading/writing process. Students were then expected to apply these principles independently to new texts, and the results would become the basis for the following week’s tutorial discussion. The TAs were encouraged to use these strategies recursively throughout the semester and also into the spring course. Beginning the reading of a text with in-class previewing or skimming made reading into a social activity. This group attention to reading also gave opportunities for the TAs to define major terms that are not necessarily explained by the readings and cannot be learned through a dictionary definition (e.g. “modernity”). These tutorials were thus supporting students’ learning but in a more sophisticated way than before, one which gave them tools they could apply to other situations.

For the spring course, which is an introduction to modern East Asian history and for which the Fall course is a prerequisite, the Lead TA designed more complex “low-stakes” assignments that required a combination of summary and critical response. The reading load in the spring course is heavier and more theoretical. Thus,

the emphasis in the tutorials and writing assignments gradually shifted toward the elements of argument. The TAs read over the students’ reading responses prior to the tutorial session in which that reading was to be discussed, so they came to tutorial knowing what students had not grasped. It was clear that “forcing” reading compliance through the reading responses as well as the expectation of verbal contribution to discussions did make the groups more prepared. Across the first year of the initiative, it was apparent to the experienced TAs that students were better able to participate and more engaged with the course material than in past iterations of these courses. Attendance at tutorials remained high even though attendance was not part of the grade.

During this spring course, new methods were introduced, such as visually mapping an author’s argument (see Appendix B), which the TAs demonstrated in tutorial and students then practiced independently with a different reading. (See Grabe [2012] for a discussion of this strategy). It became apparent that some of the work on argument that was planned for this term could not be fit into the schedule, since the students needed more time to practice grasping the basics of an author’s message. Students were introduced to the concept of how the selection of evidence functions to frame a historical argument, for example, but did not appear ready to formulate their own full critiques of authors’ arguments. The requirements for the essay, while aiming at developing critical thinking, were centered on the thoughtful synthesis of course concepts. It was planned that in the second year of this pilot, the initiative would extend into a second-year theory course in which students would be introduced more fully to methods of argument and would be expected to critique sources in a more sophisticated manner.

Focus on Writing in EAS

By the time students in both courses were asked to write the research essay, which was based on a group of pre-selected readings, they had already submitted and received comments on many low-stakes writing pieces. This early practice in articulating the course concepts appeared to bear fruit in their essay-writing. In their meetings with the ELL coordinator, the experienced TAs, professors, and the Lead TA have commented consistently on the virtual disappearance of “patch-writing”, or attempts at paraphrasing in which students have used segments from sources with minimal alterations, and a significant lessening of plagiarism, as well as the evidence of students’ increased familiarity with course readings. The writing practice was enhanced by having students write a short paragraph at the end of each tutorial about what they had learned or what remained confusing to them. In meetings, the TAs reported that their students’ writing on these short pieces (for which no TA response was given) was often the best they did in the course.

The process of writing the essay was scaffolded in both semesters, beginning with the reading responses, which could be used as the basis for an essay if the student wished to do so. In addition, three to four tutorial sessions were set aside for the discussion of the writing process and for in-class work on the essay, which involved free writing, peer exchange, and informal feedback from the TA. The Writing at UT website (<http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice>) provided a number of ready-made materials that TAs could adapt for teaching essay organization (Plotnick, n.d. [a]), quoting and paraphrasing (Plotnick, n.d.[b]), and the documenting of sources (Procter, 2012). One of the most direct ways in which the courses addressed language-learning was in the activity around thesis statements. In an early stage of the writing, students brought to tutorial a trial thesis and a list of evidence from sources in note form. In small groups, they then shared the thesis statement and also explained orally how they planned to draw from the sources to support the thesis. Since the essay sources were restricted to a pre-selected group of course readings, a discussion could then develop around which ideas or facts from these sources would best support each student's central concept.

In giving students a chance to talk through their synthesis of the readings at an early stage in the writing, the courses exemplified a pedagogy that recognizes the strong and complex links among critical reading, writing, oral ability, and listening comprehension which need to be fostered for ELL students' academic success. (Grabe, 2001; Williams, 2008; Yang, 2010). It is clear to researchers that discussion of difficult, complex topics orally as well as in writing helps students make linguistic progress (Casanave & Sosa, 2008), and that literacy proceeds most rapidly when language learning is embedded in "real" tasks which are meaningful to the student (Zamel, 2004). Students also participated in a peer exchange of drafts, through a guided activity prepared by the ELL coordinator (Freedman, 2012a), and they were required to revise and resubmit their essays after receiving a grade and comments from the TAs.

Responses to the Initiative

Although a formal study of this initiative has not yet been undertaken, the frequent meetings among the ELL coordinator, the Lead TA, faculty members, and the course TAs led to detailed discussions that focused on the perceived results of this intervention. (Internal assessments for the purpose of revising the program design have been done, with the Lead TA periodically reviewing random samples of students' writing, as well as distributing student surveys to capture students' own perceptions of their progress. These results are not included in this article). Some TAs noted that students they observed in their tutorials still seemed to focus primarily on the readings used in the low-stakes writing assignments, and they were

often not as well prepared to discuss other readings in class. In other discussions about their tutorials with the ELL coordinator, TAs pointed out that during tutorial discussions it seemed to them that students had done a significant amount of the reading, if not all of it, since they were able to respond to questions and comments from both the TA and other students about the assigned reading—a type of interaction that was rare in these tutorials prior to this initiative.

In reflecting on the reading responses they had marked, as well as on the essay assignments that often developed from these short responses, the TAs also felt that their students had benefited from articulating some of the course concepts prior to writing the research essay. Participants in this teaching initiative told the ELL coordinator that department morale had been raised, since teaching the tutorials was no longer a monologue by the TA for students who hadn’t done the reading, and TAs’ attempts to start discussions were more often rewarded with student participation. The EAS department was also energized by the interest and admiration of its pedagogical experiment among the university’s administration and other departments, as well as the use by other departments of materials generated by the initiative. The significant drop in plagiarism cases contributed to this aura of success. At the end of the year, the Lead TA was nominated by students and faculty in EAS for the university’s TA teaching excellence award, which she won.

Another source of pride was the knowledge that we were experimenting with a pedagogically challenging goal: to support L2 students while also helping L1s. Another TA wrote to the ELL coordinator: “I have definitely noticed that the quality of the written responses has greatly improved, particularly for our non-native English speakers, of whom there are many. The program is definitely of use for our students, and I certainly hope that we are able to continue it in the future [. . .]” It is interesting to note that the TA perceived the program as helpful to both L1 and L2 students and that no sense of conflicting needs between the two groups is expressed. In their discussions with students, TAs have repeatedly discovered with great surprise that what they considered to be the most basic, unarticulated procedures necessary for scholarly reading (e.g. giving oneself permission to scan chapter titles or headings; looking first through an index; reading with greater or lesser focus on certain passages)—were revolutionary ideas for their undergraduate students.

There was also a perception among the TAs and faculty that the most negative student outcomes had been avoided, with a significant drop in failures that were previously linked to non-compliance with reading assignments and misperceptions about the reading material. The department’s acting chair reported: “Everyone involved is in agreement that the program is critically needed and should definitely continue—we just need to have more discussions on how to adapt it given what we have learned [. . .].” The main area addressed in subsequent discussions about adapting and improving the initiative was the need to retain sufficient tutorial time

for the teaching of course content. Faculty and TAs differed as to the percentage of time they felt should be given to language instruction. It seems likely that the success of this “integrative” instruction also depends on the relative skill of the TA: The more experienced TAs seem to find it easier to fuse language instruction and course content into a more seamless whole. This aspect of the initiative has continued to be a focal point for discussion in these group meetings, even as techniques for training the TAs in this challenging goal have become more consciously articulated and more sophisticated.

A Work-in-Progress

The “Reading to Write” initiative is a work-in-progress, in which the approach is still the subject of ongoing assessment, discussion, and debate. The questions include, but are not limited to:

1. What is the relationship of this initiative and its broader application across departments, to the WAC program and the writing centers?
2. Does this approach also address the needs of both L1 and L2 students who have advanced English language proficiency?
3. How will language instruction be balanced with course content, especially in courses that rely more heavily on tutorials to deliver new content?
4. Will these methods accelerate English language proficiency in this largely multilingual student population?

Of these questions, the relationship of the ELL methods to the WAC program and writing centers will likely be the easiest to determine, since the approaches naturally complement one another. Writing instructors have long been aware of the interrelatedness of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Writing center pedagogy also supports the approach of addressing more than one modality (e.g. speaking, writing, and listening are part of most sessions). Also, our writing centers have recently begun to partner with ELL to address the reading issue. The ELL coordinator has been repeatedly invited to speak to writing center directors and instructors about how support for academic reading can be integrated with the centers’ work. As of Fall 2016, 1:1 sessions focused on helping students with their academic reading will be offered for the first time as a pilot project in one of the writing centers. In this area, too, a cultural shift at the university appears to be taking place. Many of these writing instructors have become versed in techniques for teaching reading comprehension that until recently were more familiar to foreign language teachers.

The question (b) of how well this approach can serve the needs of advanced students is entwined with the question (c) of how to balance language instruction with course content. The answers need to be crafted course by course as the

methods are disseminated, since the ideal balance will vary with the student population taking the course as well as with the course content and level. TAs should be consulted in these decisions, since they are the ones primarily experiencing the results of the intervention in the tutorial classroom, which is the locus of reading and writing support activities. At the same time, faculty members, the Lead TA, and the ELL coordinator can provide concrete suggestions for addressing the full range of needs in the tutorial—from the linguistically advanced students who need a forum for trying out sophisticated arguments, to the less advanced students who need a clear definition of terms at the heart of the discipline. To some extent, this balance is what teaching always involves; the initiative simply causes more of these dilemmas to be articulated and provides opportunities for discussion. Feedback from students on the quality of the tutorials and the uses they make of the strategies has also been sought and will help to determine future directions.

These inquiries will also provide some answers to the question of (d) how helpful these interventions are for the multilingual population. It is important, however, that faculty, administrators, and TAs maintain the perspective that achieving high levels of literacy in a transnational, multilingual world is a lengthy and complex process. Linguistic development, like students’ intellectual development in general, is often uneven and non-linear. Students need to understand that successful performance in academic writing, which may be a more immediate goal, is linked to efforts in other areas, such as reading, which are often invisible to the people marking their papers. (For example, a grader may comment on an overly general sentence, identifying it as a writing problem, but the same grader may not comment on or even perceive the student’s vague grasp of the reading material; the grade is given officially for the quality of the writing).

Finally, students need to develop the self-discipline to continue working independently toward a higher level of English proficiency, since the university does not require continuous instruction in English. Bensoussan’s (2009) study showed that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students read in English mainly for information and academic purposes but rarely for pleasure, while Upton & Lee-Thompson (2001) have documented the extensive use made by many students of mental translation through the medium of their first languages. These researchers’ observations help to explain the laborious progress students often make through their assigned texts; the joylessness with which many of them approach reading in English or in any language, and the reasons they are “too busy” (Hoeft, 2012, p.13) to complete assigned reading.

The pedagogical contribution of “Reading to Write” is that it intervenes during the students’ first university year to draw attention to the imperative for students to read and develop strategies for scholarly reading, and as well, to give students a gradual introduction to the sophisticated analytical writing tasks that will become more common as they progress to higher-level courses. The set of strategies

it provides for reading, building vocabulary through engagement with texts, and improving academic writing skill can be applied in a variety of linguistic situations, throughout the undergraduate years and beyond. All students stand to benefit from an educational environment in which English proficiency is emphasized through the dissemination of methods that acknowledge multilingualism and can also be used to attain proficiency in other languages.

It is nevertheless important to recognize that we cannot instantly overcome the effects of many formative years spent “not-reading” or reading only superficially even in the L1 (see Editors’ Introduction to this volume). There are also risks inherent in explicitly teaching students as “strategies” the actions that good readers learn to perform instinctively through repeated engagement with written texts. For example, when teaching skimming and scanning we found it necessary to repeat that these strategies are not intended as substitutes for thorough reading. As Grabe (2012) points out, a strategy is not exactly the same as a skill, and before our students can become skilled readers, most of them will need many more years of practice in recursively using these strategies in individualized combinations with a variety of materials. In “Reading to Write”, we are beginning what will ideally evolve into a longer process for which the student will take responsibility.

Current Developments

The “Reading to Write” initiative has been continued and expanded over the past four years, contributing to further pedagogical innovations. Many of the TAs have repeatedly returned to teach in the introductory courses, already comfortable in their role and familiar with our methodology. These factors have resulted in a smooth, unobtrusive integration of the language-based instruction with the EAS course content. This disciplinary integration is a challenging task, but it is necessary if the enhancements to the courses are to avoid seeming too remedial for university students. TAs report feeling more competent in these tasks, and they also work more collaboratively with each other to plan their sessions. Significantly, several EAS faculty members have decided for the first time to integrate the modeling of scholarly reading into their lectures, too.

In the spring 2013 term, the initiative expanded into a second-year EAS course focused on theory. In addition to the recursive use of many of the reading strategies introduced in the 100-level courses, emphasis was placed on strategies for close reading (Freedman, 2015). The analytical reading of targeted passages with an eye toward theoretical tendency, authorial perspective, tone, and other elements of argument was modeled by the professor during lectures. Students then practiced close reading with guidance from TAs, who collaboratively developed critical questions to address in tutorials. The course also included several

reading quizzes, or written demonstrations of analytical reading. On the whole, the students, many of whom completed all three EAS courses in this initiative, seemed more reflective about the content of their reading and their own reading practices as well as better able to deploy academic language. One TA commented that by the end of this term, “they [the students] were actually discussing the texts in the language of the texts.”

This shift into not only comprehending disciplinary texts but also gaining facility with their language is highly significant for students. Sandra Jamieson (2013) has documented the often superficial use students make of disciplinary sources in their writing. Both Steven J. Pearlman (2013) and Brian Gogan (2013) recommend addressing this gap through a focus on close reading of disciplinary texts. However, multilingual students do not necessarily perceive or absorb the phrases common to an academic discipline which may seem obvious to a native English-speaker (Cortes, 2004), or even the more general academic phrasing (Adel & Erman, 2011; Nekrasova, 2009). Unless the instructor calls particular attention to these phrases—many of which also contain the grammar students need to learn (Lewis, 1997)—students may not take notice of or absorb them. As such, our TA training has begun to focus on teaching students to find these phrases and to distinguish phrasing common to a discipline from the distinctive phrasing of individual writers which needs acknowledgment. We explore how TAs can “give” students the language they need, woven into a discussion of a topic or into the comments on their writing.

These current developments are already being shared with the 18 departments in our WAC program, through training as well as invited presentations. A number of the WAC Lead TAs and course professors in departments like Religion and Anthropology have begun to experiment independently with the integration of reading instruction. As of Fall 2016, similar initiatives have been developed in the Linguistics, Contemporary Asian Studies, Philosophy, and Statistics departments. It is anticipated that this shift in the culture of the university’s approach to teaching writing will continue to gain momentum, and that new methods will emerge as these techniques are filtered through an increasing number of disciplinary curricula.

This approach acknowledges that writing cannot be addressed in isolation from students’ engagement with reading. In turn, university or college reading represents a leap into critical scholarly discourse that students will not necessarily make on their own, whether English is their L1 or L2. There is now more understanding in our institution that reading tasks often need as much scaffolding as those involving writing. For a large part of our student population, university reading means reading extensively for the first time in English. Thus, language teaching methods are increasingly important tools for instructors who want their students to be able to take an active part in class discussions and to make critical use of readings in their writing. By integrating language teaching methodology focused on reading

comprehension with some common WAC approaches, the “Reading to Write” initiative provides a model for future developments in this area. It also suggests that college reading must be defined at least partially as a language-learning process.

Note

The author warmly thanks these individuals in the East Asian Studies Department, University of Toronto: Ms. Sara Osenton; Dr. Graham Sanders; Dr. Thomas Keirstead; Dr. Ken Kawashima, Dr. Janet Poole, and the course TAs. This article is dedicated to Ms. Deborah Knott and Dr. Margaret Procter, with gratitude for their extensive work developing and supporting the English Language Learning Program at the University of Toronto.

References

- “About Arts & Science.” Faculty of Arts & Science/ University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.artsci.utoronto.ca/main/about>
- Adel, A., & Erman, B. (2012). Recurrent word combinations in academic writing by native and non-native speakers of English: A lexical bundles approach. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31, 81–92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.08.004>
- Bensoussan, M. (November, 2009). Reading preferences and expectations of multilingual Israeli university students. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 30, 465–480. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01434630903071957>
- Casanave, C. P., & Sosa, M. (2008). Getting in line: The challenge (and importance) of speaking and writing about difficult ideas. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela, (Eds.), *The oral- literate connection: Perspectives on L2 speaking, writing, and other media interactions* (pp. 87–109). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) (2009). *Statement on second language writing and writers*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncte.org/cccc/resources/positions/secondlangwriting>
- Cortes, V. (2004). Lexical bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: Examples from history and biology. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 397–423. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.12.001>
- Cox, M. (2011, December 21). WAC: Closing doors or opening doors for second language writers? *Across the Disciplines*, 8(4). Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/ell/cox.cfm>
- Gogan, B. (2013, December 11). Reading at the threshold. *Across the Disciplines*, 10(4). Retrieved April 23, 2015, from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/reading/gogan.cfm>
- English Language Learning Program. University of Toronto/Faculty of Arts and Science. Retrieved from <http://www.artsci.utoronto.ca/current/advising/ell>
- Ferreira, A., & Mendelowitz, B. (September, 2009). Creating a dynamic contact zone:

An undergraduate English course as multilingual pedagogic space. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 8(2), 54–79.

- Freedman, L. (2015). Using close reading as a course theme in a multilingual disciplinary classroom. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 27(2), 262–271. Retrieved from <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/October2015/articles/freedman.pdf>
- Freedman, L. (2012a). Previewing; Skimming and scanning; Active reading; Learning vocabulary from context clues; Summarizing; Distinguishing between information and argument; How information is used in an argument; Distinguishing an author’s opinion; Visual mapping; Guide for revision or peer exchange of drafts. In *Resources for Students*. English Language Learning (ELL) Program/ Faculty of Arts & Science, University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.artsci.utoronto.ca/current/advising/ell/resources-for-students>
- Freedman, L. (2012b). Teaching multilingual students: An overview for course instructors and TAs. Grading multilingual students’ papers: What are the issues? Grading multilingual students’ papers: A practical guide. In *Resources for faculty/ Multilingual students*. Writing at University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/faculty/multilingual-students>
- Freedman, L. (2012c). Teaching reading comprehension. In *Resources for faculty*. Writing at University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/faculty>
- Grabe, W. (2012). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Grabe, W. (2001). Reading-writing relations: Theoretical perspectives and instructional practices. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela, (Eds.), *Linking literacies: Perspectives on L2 reading-writing connections* (pp. 15–47). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Hafernik, J. J., & Wiant, F. M. (2012). *Integrating multilingual students into college classrooms: Practical advice for faculty*. Toronto, ON: Multilingual Matters.
- Hall, J. (November, 2009). WAC/ WID in the next America: Redefining professional identity in the age of the multilingual majority. *The WAC Journal* 20, 33–49. Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/journal/vol20/index.cfm>
- Hoefl, M. E. (2012). Why university students don’t read: What professors can do to increase compliance. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 6(2), 1–19.
- Jamieson, S. (2013, December 11). What students’ use of sources reveals about advanced writing skills. *Across the Disciplines*, 10(4). Retrieved April 23, 2015, from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/reading/jamieson.cfm>
- Johns, A. (2005, May 15). Guest editor’s introduction: The linguistically diverse student. *The Linguistically Diverse Student: Challenges and Possibilities across the Curriculum* [Special Issue]. *Across the Disciplines* 2. Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/lds/index.cfm>
- Khoo, E. (2007). *Beating the odds: Success stories of students overcoming English language challenges*. (Booklet). University of Toronto Scarborough, The Writing Centre, Teaching and Learning Services. Retrieved from http://ctl.uts.utoronto.ca/eld/sites/default/files/beating_the_odds.pdf
- Leki, I. (2001). Reciprocal themes in ESL reading and writing. In T. Silva & P. K. Matsuda (Eds.), *Landmark essays on ESL writing* (pp. 173–190). Mahwah, NJ:

- Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach: Putting theory into practice*. Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.
- Manarin, K. (2012). Reading value: Student choice in reading strategies. *Pedagogy*, 12, 281–297.
- Matsuda, P. K. (2001). Reexamining audiolingualism: On the genesis of reading and writing in L2 studies. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela, (Eds.), *Linking literacies: Perspectives on L2 reading-writing connections* (pp. 84–105). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Nekrasova, T. M. (2009). English L1 and L2 speakers' knowledge of lexical bundles. *Language Learning*, 59(3), 647–686.
- Pearlman, S. J. (2013, December 11). It's not that they can't read; it's that they can't read: Can we create "citizen experts" through interactive assessment? *Across the Disciplines*, 10(4). Retrieved April 23, 2015, from <https://wac.colostate.edu/atd/reading/pearlman.cfm>
- Plotnick, J. (n.d. [a]). Organizing an essay. In *Advice/ Planning and organizing*. Writing at the University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/planning-and-organizing>
- Plotnick, J. (n.d. [b]). Using quotations; Paraphrase and summary. In *Advice/ Using Sources*. Writing at the University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/using-sources>
- Procter, M. (2012). Standard documentation formats. In *Advice/ Using Sources*. Writing at the University of Toronto. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/using-sources>
- Song, B. (2006). Content-based ESL instruction: Long-term effects and outcomes. *English for Specific Purposes* 25, 420–437.
- Stoller, F. L. (2002). Promoting the acquisition of knowledge in a content-based course. In J.A. Crandall & D. Kaufman (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in higher education settings* (pp. 109–123). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Upton, T. A., & Lee-Thompson, L-C. (2001). The role of the first language in second language reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 23(4), 469–95.
- Williams, J. (2008). The speaking-writing connection in second language and academic literacy development. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela, (Eds.), *The oral-literate connection: Perspectives on L2 speaking, writing, and other media interactions* (pp. 10–25). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Writing at the University of Toronto. Advice on Academic Writing. Retrieved from <http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/>
- Writing instruction for teaching assistants (WIT) project: A description*. (2011). University of Toronto. (Internal document received from Dr. Andrea Williams, WIT Coordinator, November 29, 2012).
- Yang, L. (2010). Doing a group presentation: Negotiations and challenges experienced by five Chinese ESL students of commerce at a Canadian university. *Language Teaching Research* 14, 141–160. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168809353872>
- Zamel, V. (2004). Strangers in academia: The experiences of faculty and ESOL students

across the curriculum. In Vivian Zamel & Ruth Spack (Eds.), *Crossing the curriculum: Multilingual learners in college classrooms* (pp. 3–37). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Appendix A. Reading to Write: About Previewing

It is common for students to dive into an academic text and begin reading in a hurry, which is often counterproductive. When reading for academic purposes, it is preferable to read with certain goals in mind. This will enable you to place your focus on the proper elements of the reading and to avoid wasting time on elements which aren't important for your purposes.

Your professors and TAs may read with their research goals in mind. As a student, your primary purposes in reading are shaped by the course you're taking and/or the papers you're writing. Spend a few minutes previewing a text before starting to read, in order to orient yourself toward what is important for *you* in this reading. Here is a basic method which can be applied to many texts. Not every question will be relevant for all texts, and you may find additional questions to ask yourself.

1. Read the **title**—don't skip over it! Titles are chosen to orient the reader and should give a sense of the central concepts in the text.
2. Think about the **subject matter**: Have you read about this topic before?
3. Where and when? What do you already know about it, or what might you guess? Is it linked in some way to your personal experience? Do you already have opinions about some aspect of this topic?
4. **Who** wrote this text? What information do you have about this **author**? Does any information about the author appear anywhere on the title page or elsewhere in the text? If the author is an historical figure, what do you already know about him or her?
5. **Where** was this text originally **published**? What type of publication is this, and where does it fit into this field of study? Who would be the **audience** for this kind of writing? What would the audience expect to find in it?
6. When was this text originally published? What is the significance of this time period in this field of study? Is the text historical? Current? Or is it possibly outdated? What were the major events or theoretical trends around the time the text was written or published?
7. Read the chapter titles or the headings that break up the chapter or article. What seems to be the general progression of ideas here?
8. Why has your professor assigned this text? Where does it fit into the course as a whole? What kinds of facts and ideas are you expected to retain from this reading?

Appendix B. Reading to Write: Visual Mapping

Many people find it easier to absorb reading material by creating a visual map of an article, book chapter, or an important section of a piece of writing. A visual representation of concepts has the advantage of showing on a single page the complex logical relationships that an author may develop in many pages of writing. The map can provide a useful reminder of these relationships to refer back to as you move through a text. Additionally, it can function as a study tool, reminding you of key concepts that you've read and heard lectures about in greater detail. Depending upon your personal learning style, a visual map may be a superior means of memorizing material for tests and can also aid in the writing of longer papers. The map may be drawn by hand or made on the computer; sophisticated “mind-mapping” software programs also exist for this purpose. Here are some examples of visual mapping:

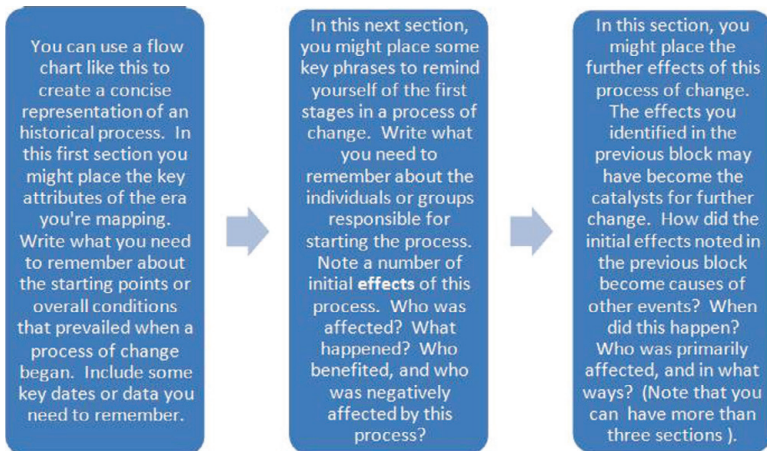


Figure 1

Note that this chart could also be added to in any way you find helpful. If you need to keep events that occurred in several regions or countries clearly separated, an individual chart could be made for each region. Alternatively, you might organize your chart to show the causes and effects that occurred across regions and countries. Quick flow charts made by hand during a lecture may also make your class notes more understandable when it's time to review them.

Here is another type of visual map which might be used to help distinguish between an overarching idea or thesis that runs through an entire article or section of a work, and the smaller details, examples, or points which help explain and illustrate that central concept.

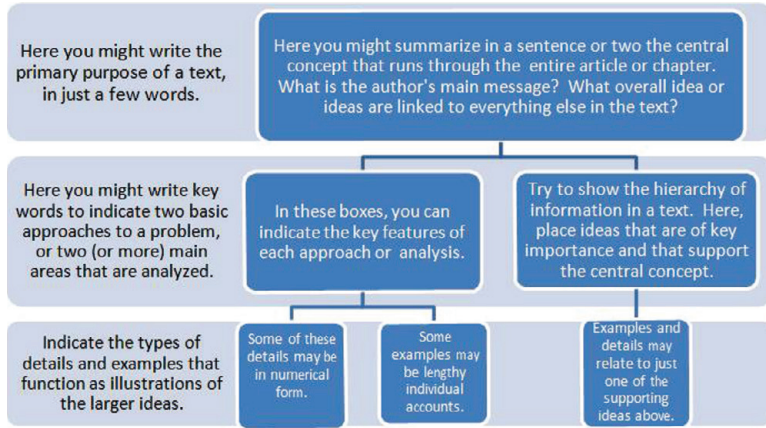


Figure 2

The two examples above were made using “Smart Art”, which appears under the “Insert” button in Word 2007. However, even a simple Word table like the one below can become a valuable visual aid. (This is made by clicking on “Insert Table,” and then specifying the number of rows and columns you want). Many students find that the time taken to create a table is worthwhile, as it helps in keeping track of ideas in a complex reading and can also allow a comparative look at several readings.

Examples in Table Form

<p>(Example 1)</p> <p>Here, you could place a summary of one author's point of view on a subject.</p>	<p>(1a)</p> <p>The centre column might hold the areas common to both the author and the sources cited by him or her.</p>	<p>(1b)</p> <p>Here, place contrasting evidence or ideas which the author may refer to or critique in the article.</p>
<p>(Example 2)</p> <p>Another way to use a chart is to use each column for some key area you're comparing across texts. Here, name the area.</p>	<p>(2a)</p> <p>This column could contain the relevant ideas from Article A which relate to the key area you're comparing.</p>	<p>(2b)</p> <p>This column could contain the relevant ideas from Article B which relate to the key area you're comparing, and so on. There may be many more columns and rows added.</p>