DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 372 359 CS 011 775

AUTHOR Henry, Diane E.
TITLE Whole Language Students with Low Self-Direction: A Self-Assessment Tool.
PUB DATE [94]
NOTE 71p.; Appendix D is not included.
PUB TYPE Tests/Evaluation Instruments (160) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Elementary School Students; Grade 1; Mixed Age Grouping; Primary Education; Reading Research; *Self Concept Measures; *Self Evaluation (Individuals); Student Attitudes; *Student Evaluation; Whole Language Approach
IDENTIFIERS Virginia

ABSTRACT

A study implemented a self-assessment tool developed to better address the needs of students with low self-direction in an integrated kindergarten/first grade whole language classroom. The tool is an adaptation of the plan/do/review model of the High Scope curriculum for early childhood instruction. The teacher targets students with low self-direction (as well as students with high self-direction, for comparison), and a survey of self-directed behaviors is given to all students. Base levels of on-task behaviors for targeted students are established. The tool is used for a period of 12 days; on-task behavior is measured again after this period, and the students are resurveyed for self-direction. Quantitative data from 6 of the 20 students in a multi-age whole language classroom in central Virginia supports the use of the tool for students with low self-direction. Observations and student interviews confirm results, and lend further insight into the helpfulness of the tool. (Contains 21 references and 6 tables of data. Four appendixes present student checklist forms.) (Author/RS)

WHOLE LANGUAGE STUDENTS WITH LOW SELF-DIRECTION: A SELF-ASSESSMENT TOOL

Diane E. Henry
Curry School of Education
University of Virginia

Running Head: SELF-ASSESSMENT TOOL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

Central to the whole language model of instruction is the reliance upon student responsibility for learning. However, a certain number of early elementary students lack the self-direction necessary to carry them through relatively unstructured periods of independent reading and writing, termed workshops. This study implements a self-assessment tool developed to better address the needs of students with low self-direction in an integrated kindergarten/first grade whole language classroom. The tool is an adaptation of the plan/do/review model of the High Scope curriculum for early childhood instruction. The teacher targets students with low self-direction (as well as students with high self-direction, for comparison), and a survey of self-directed behaviors is given to all students (developed using Skager's and Zimmerman's characteristics of self-direction). Base levels of on-task behaviors for targeted students are established. The tool is used for a period of twelve days; on-task behavior is measured again after this period, and the students are resurveyed for self-direction. Quantitative data supports use of the tool for students with low self-direction. Observations and student interviews confirm results, and lend further insight into the helpfulness of the tool.

PROBLEM

NEED

At the heart of the whole language philosophy is the belief that students create meaning from their surroundings. Whole language stresses the importance of student choice in reading and writing experiences, and posits that the teacher is the facilitator of such choice. Responsibility for one's own learning is central to the success of whole language. This is most evident in reading and writing workshops, periods of time averaging sixty minutes each in which student independence is a must. However, some students lack the self-direction necessary to make appropriate choices about their reading and writing without aid.

Currently, these students are helped to take appropriate risks in reading and writing with student-teacher conferences. These conferences require a substantial amount of time, and occur approximately once a week. The task of daily time management is ultimately left to the students, who are, in some cases, ill-equipped to handle it. There is a need to provide structure for these certain students without shifting the locus of responsibility from the student, without subverting the goals of the whole language philosophy.

PURPOSES

The purposes of this study are 1) to develop an appropriate self-assessment tool for daily use by students with low self-direction in a whole language classroom, and 2) to evaluate the extent to which this tool increases the on-task behaviors for students who demonstrate a lack of self-direction.

Teacher recommendations are used to target certain students with low self-direction and high self-direction. As in Biemiller and Meichenbaum's study, the teacher judges levels of self-direction based upon whether or not the children "know what needs to be done and do it" (Biemiller and Meichenbaum, 1991, p.16). Then a survey of self-directed behaviors, based upon the characteristics of self-direction developed by Skager and Zimmerman (see pages 10-11) is given to all students. Base levels of on-task behaviors for targeted children in the class are established, and all students use the tool daily for a period of twelve days. At the end of the twelve days, levels of on-task behaviors are re-evaluated, and targeted students again are given the self-direction survey. Targeted students are interviewed about the helpfulness of the tool. Throughout the experiment, the targeted students are observed. In examining the results, we expect to find that children with a demonstrated lack of self-direction will benefit most from the added structure, while highly self-directed students will find the tool unnecessary after a period of time.

HYPOTHESES

By providing students who lack self-direction with a tool which helps them monitor their own progress, they will be better able to manage their time in a workshop situation. This will be evidenced by increased on-task behaviors, and observations of increased student involvement.

It is expected that the tool will give students with low self-direction a greater sense of responsibility for their work habits, as evidenced by the change in self-direction checklist answers, and that its reception will be positive, as evidenced by student interviews. It is proposed that students with high self-direction will find the tool unnecessary after a period of time, while students who lack self-direction will want to continue its use. First, through a review of the literature, I will demonstrate that there is the need for just such a tool, within the framework of the whole language classroom.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

As this paper studies self-direction within a whole language framework, the review of the literature will first explore whole language, and then examine the characteristics of self-direction. A link between self-direction and achievement will be established, a link between self-direction and motivation will be established, and a specialized need for a tool to promote self-direction in a whole language classroom will be discussed.

PRINCIPLES OF WHOLE LANGUAGE

The basic premise of the whole language philosophy is that literacy is a natural extension of human language development (Goodman and Goodman, 1981). Just as a baby learns to speak when given a need to speak in an environment of speech, so too (whole language advocates posit) a child learns to read when given a need to read in an environment of print. It would be absurd for babies to acquire language by practicing its separate parts (i.e. pronunciation, sentence formation, inflection, etc.), assembling the parts, and commencing speech; babies acquire language by using it. Yet this "bottom up" method is the one universally accepted to teach reading in public schools

(Goodman, 1979). As Bess Altwerger says in her article "Whole Language, What's New," the whole language approach proposes that the most effective way to learn to read and write is through real use, not segmented practice exercises (Altwerger, 1989). As Goodman puts it, "literacy...is self-motivated if language is functional" (Goodman, 1979, p.661). Contrary to traditional "bottom up" models, or parts-to-whole approaches, whole language has been referred to as a "top down" model, or a whole-to-parts approach (Goodman, 1979).

Two central axioms of a whole language view are that 1) the comprehension of meaning is always the goal of reading and listening, and that 2) the expression of meaning is always the goal of writing and speaking (Goodman and Goodman, 1981). Because the focus is on language as a tool for understanding, other subjects, like science, social studies, and math, hold a prominent position in the whole language curriculum. Real and relevant texts are used, and children's literature is preferred to basal readers (Goodman, 1979). Whole language views reading as an interaction between reader and text, since "what the reader brings to the text is as important as what the author did in understanding the meaning a given reader constructs" (Goodman, 1979, p.660).

At the core of whole language is the understanding that students are the

constructors of their own meaning; the authors of their own education (Goodman, 1979). In this sense, the teacher can motivate and facilitate, but cannot instill learning in students. It is the student's responsibility to learn; to become a self-reliant risk-taker. Teachers assess by "kid-watching," or monitoring the progress of pupils in their work and seeing their strengths and problems in action, in order to discover where to go next with the material and methods (Goodman, 1979). Contrary to traditional testing, the purpose of evaluation in a whole language classroom is primarily to inform the learners of their areas of strength and weakness (Watson, 1989). Sharon Rich states in her article, "Restoring Power to Teachers: The Impact of Whole Language," that "the whole language teacher establishes a delicate balance between freedom and control" (Rich, 1989, p.228). The teacher encourages student choice by providing students with appropriate instructional "invitations," appropriate to the child and to his/her level of self-direction (Watson, 1989). The students must accept these "invitations" for learning to occur.

This is only a brief overview of the operating principles of whole language. Having established that whole language demands self-direction in its students, we now step outside the framework of whole language to examine the nature of the self-directed learner. Thus we incorporate the nature of self-direction into the goals of the whole language philosophy.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SELF-DIRECTED LEARNER

Self-direction is the motivation to choose learning, and to act upon that choice (Skager, 1984). Self-direction is a component of metacognition, the ability to think about one's own thought processes. Metacognition involves an awareness of skills and strategies needed to perform a task, and an ability to self-regulate to ensure the completion of that task (Gearheart, 1985). As Biemiller and Meichenbaum put it, self-directed learners "know what needs to be done and do it" (Biemiller and Meichenbaum, 1991, p.16).

The main characteristics of the self-directed learner, as Skager (1984) defines them, are as follows:

1. *Self-Acceptance:* the positive views held of the self as learner
2. *Planfulness:* the ability to diagnose one's own needs, set appropriate goals, and devise strategies to meet these goals
3. *Intrinsic Motivation:* the persistence of learning in the absence of external controls, and the increased likelihood of learning outside the traditional learning environments
4. *Internalized evaluation:* the ability to assess one's own progress and performance
5. *Openness to Experience:* the willingness to take risks and play an active part in learning

6. *Flexibility:* the ability to adapt to different learning situations by changing goals or methods

7. *Autonomy:* the ability to make decisions about desired learning independent of externally enforced expectations

Barry Zimmerman (1989) includes these characteristics and adds the following learning strategies:

1. *Organizing:* the tendency to arrange one's thoughts to order one's actions

2. *Seeking Information and Assistance:* the identification of a need for help and the ability to procure help from a number of different sources

3. *Environmental Structuring:* the ability to manipulate one's environment, making it more conducive to learning

4. *Reviewing:* the ability to reflect upon and evaluate one's actions

These characteristics paint a portrait of the self-directed learner, and were used in developing the survey for screening levels of self-direction of participants of the study.

We have seen that whole language demands self-direction from students, and have examined self-direction. But is self-direction a component of the successful student? We look at evidence which supports the premise that self-direction is linked to achievement.

SELF-DIRECTION AND ACHIEVEMENT

There is a close relationship between a student's ability to self-direct and a student's success in school learning (Wang and Peverly, 1986). In his article "Self-Directions and Achievement: Are They Related?" Fred Wood described his study of the correlation between grade point average of high school students and their own ratings of their levels of self-direction. He found that the percentage of students rating themselves as having low self-direction increased as their G.P.A. decreased, and the percentage of students rating themselves as having high self-direction increased as G.P.A. increased (Wood, 1975). Thus, students who are low achievers have the perception that they have not taken control of their own learning, while high achievers perceive that they have taken on this responsibility.

Rodney Skager (1984) studied four schools which implemented strategies to foster self-direction in their students, and found a link between intelligence and self-direction. All students took a non-verbal intelligence test and a test of abstract thinking, and in all four schools, students who had been identified by their teachers as high in self-direction scored significantly higher on both tests than those identified as low in self-direction. He writes, "it is possible that learners with superior cognitive ability would more readily develop patterns of self-direction because of repeated experiences of success in

independent learning and problem solving" (Skager, 1984, p. 185).

Biemiller and Meichenbaum conducted a study in which they analyzed the verbalizations of students, grades 1-6, and found that children identified as high in self-direction demonstrated greater levels of expertise in school than students identified as low in self-direction (Biemiller and Meichenbaum, 1991). In "The Nature and Nurture of the Self-Directed Learner," they state that, "one source of the differences between the highest- and lowest-achieving children is the degree to which they become self-regulators of their own learning" (Biemiller and Meichenbaum, 1992, p. 75). High achieving students use strategies like planning and self-monitoring. Gearheart (1985) agrees that self-direction requires a higher level of thinking in order to perform the higher order tasks of metacognitive evaluation. "The concepts of reflection and self-regulation are essential to the total learning process and are important features of growth and change" (Gearheart, 1985, p. 129).

These studies establish a correlation rather than a causal relationship: the occurrences of self-direction and high achievement are associated. This certainly does not mean that we can expect only those students high in ability to self-direct their learning. Biemiller and Meichenbaum (1992) warn teachers against "doing for" the low-achieving student; by planning and monitoring their learning for them, well-meaning teachers can push these students even further

behind. We should not see the proven link between self-direction and achievement as a limitation, but rather as an opportunity to stimulate higher achievement by training younger students in self-directive techniques. These students may be just as capable of self-direction as high-achieving students; however, it just may not come as naturally to them (Smith, 1991).

If we accept that we can stimulate higher achievement by stimulating a higher occurrence of self-directed behaviors, we stumble across the problem of how to instill self-motivation in students who have not previously evidenced it. The answer lies in the simple fact that choice itself is a motivator. Students become motivated as they are expected to self-regulate. Let us examine the evidence which suggests this fact.

SELF-DIRECTION AS A MOTIVATOR

Student self-direction is essential to the success of whole language. Fortunately, the elements of student responsibility and decision-making are the greatest motivators for student achievement within the whole language framework (Watson, 1989). For this reason, the proposed assessment tool will encourage and facilitate students in decision making, rather than put the responsibility of decision making back in the teacher's hands. As Watson puts it, "whole language teachers do not select all the books for students to read, or

all the topics for students to write about...'teachers do not do things for students that students can do for themselves'" (Watson, 1989, p.137).

In interviews conducted with upper elementary students in a whole language classroom, Penny Oldfather (1993) found that choice was essential to their engagement in the material. Students themselves put it best, "'if you want to learn something--it's fun' and 'even if you're younger you should still have choices'" (Oldfather, 1993, p.10). Students most wanted to choose which books to read, which topics to write about, and especially, how to pace their work. "Reading and writing workshops provided a flexible structure that enabled students to set their own goals" (Oldfather, 1993, p.11). All of these areas of student choice have been incorporated into this study's assessment instrument.

Studies have shown that students with special needs also benefit from the choices available in whole language classrooms. As low self-direction is a type of special need, it behooves us to apply these examples to our discussion of offering help to students. JoBeth Allen (1991), along with two other classroom teachers found that the presence of real choices was particularly essential to their at-risk students; "developing responsibility for one's own learning is especially important for children who view themselves as failures" (Allen, 1991, p.461). Whole language has also been shown to work with the

behaviorally disordered. A case study of one classroom showed that reader's and writer's workshops allowed these students to better express their emotions, helped soothe them, and awakened in them a love of reading and writing which caused them to choose language activities during free play time. Of course, the transition to independence was a slow one and many of these students needed a more structured way of making choices (Cutler, 1988). This study's tool provides low self-directed students with just that: a more structured way of making choices.

We now pursue more evidence which suggests that certain students are unprepared for completely unstructured decision-making in the whole language classroom. For these students, the level of teacher guidance in a whole language program has been shown to make or break their own achievement.

NEED FOR MORE STRUCTURE

It has been assumed in the implementation of the whole language approach that students prefer to make choices in their education; in the previous section we have found this to be true. However, few studies have addressed the possibility that some students would not be used to having these choices, and would have to learn how to make the best choices for themselves. Michael Smith (1991) discusses how unprepared a class of fifth grade at-risk

students were for taking on this responsibility:

> "...the fifth graders had little experience in a learner-centered classroom--a fact that became evident the first week of school. Children seemed confused when they were given choices about what learning experiences they were to engage in. They were waiting to be told what to do, and when no direction was given, they took advantage of their new-found freedom to create discipline problems.... It can not be assumed that children are going to fit into a learner-centered approach naturally" (Smith, 1991, p.7).

These students were unprepared because they had become used to teacher direction in their previous years of education; some kindergartners and first-graders prove unprepared because they have become used to parent direction in their previous years of life. This effect is certainly evident in certain pupils in the study's chosen classroom. A grace period of experimentation with self-directive behaviors is to be expected; when a student seems slow to catch on, some extra help is called for.

A study which looks at low achieving first-grade students explains that unaided choice may indeed be harmful in certain situations. Melinda Lindsay (1989) found that the low achievers in a whole language classroom made little progress in learning to process text after the teacher eradicated weekly student-teacher conferences. When these students were given the freedom to choose their reading material, they didn't choose material appropriate for their limited

decoding skills. When both the teacher's opportunity to guide students to appropriate text choices and the teacher's ability to assess what students were doing during silent reading were eliminated, low-achieving students didn't progress very far. Clearly, a constant dialogue between teacher and student and a systematic way of ensuring appropriate choices are required: the assessment tool provides a means for both.

ANSWER: SELF-ASSESSMENT

Through a review of the literature, we have found thus far that students with high self-direction achieve more in school, are highly motivated, and evidence planning and reflective behaviors. We have seen that in a whole language classroom, students are expected to be self-directed, but that certain students have difficulty fulfilling this expectation. There is a need to give these students aid without detracting from the goal of encouraging self-direction. We can meet this need with an assessment tool the student uses to plan and review his or her own activities in a workshop situation.

This study has developed two examples of a tool, one for reader's workshop and one for writer's workshop (Appendices C and D). Each necessitates that the children plan which types of activities they will take part in during the workshop, and that the children review what they've done and

compare it to their plan. The tool is an adaptation of the folded plan which a Charlottesville early childhood educator uses to encourage the plan/do/review model of the High Scope Curriculum, to which she subscribes (M. Comfort, personal communication, February 23, 1994).

The early childhood High Scope curriculum is a cognitively oriented approach which encourages active learning in preschoolers (Hohmann, 1979). It incorporates aspects of self-directed learning, namely planning, doing, and reviewing. There are a number of different play activities children may choose from, and children must plan which activities they will engage in, and then check back during the review time to see if they've carried out their plans. In the High Scope handbook, they state, "we want children to feel that they're doing things they've planned to do, rather than things to please the teacher" (Hohmann, 1979, p.19).

In this aspect of child-centeredness, they resemble whole language theorists. High Scope's plan/do/review model, used to organize students' play choices, incorporates the important aspects of planning and reflecting to stimulate self-direction (Hohmann, 1979). High Scope gives a rationale for teaching children how to plan; "children who plan for themselves see that they can make things happen. Children begin to view themselves as people who can decide and who can act on their own decisions; they have some control

over their own activities" (Hohmann, 1979, p.62).

The High Scope curriculum, then, values and promotes student self-direction. In the magazine "High/Scope ReSource" which High Scope distributes, Manager of Development and Services Clay Shouse (1989) describes further the effect the plan/do/review sequence has on the students:

> "...they develop trust in themselves, realizing they are able to make decisions and solve problems effectively....they also develop self-control. This self-control is real power--not over other people or materials, but over oneself. Because children have the freedom to make choices about how to interact with and shape their environment, they grow to understand it. They realize that those around them are genuinely interested in what they say and what they do, and, just as important, they realize their own capacity to achieve success in their activities by following the plan-do-review process" (Shouse, 1989, p.10).

We can see that the plan/do/review process encourages many of the skills in demand in a whole language classroom. Students are expected to monitor themselves through metacognition, they make choices about their own instruction, they are aware of their own progress, and they are expected to take on some of the responsibility for their own learning.

I have modified the folded plan to be more appropriately used in an elementary whole language classroom. The tool is designed to meet the specific needs of the study's K-1 classroom, but still allows for student choice,

planning, self-reflection, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. It is anticipated that presenting low self-directed children with a structure for making and carrying out plans will help these children to grow in independence as they become accustomed to taking responsibility for their actions during workshop situations.

STUDY

SETTING

The tool developed is implemented at an elementary school in a Central Virginia suburban area. The specific setting is a multi-age whole language classroom with 20 students: 7 kindergartners and 13 first-graders. The multi-age environment is very supportive of literacy development and creates a sense of belonging; kindergartners emulate the first-graders who are reading, first-graders gain a sense of importance in modeling responsibility to the kindergartners. First-graders who are slow readers do not feel conspicuous, nor do kindergartners who are early readers. The teacher rarely makes distinctions along grade level lines. There is a teaching assistant in the room for the morning hours, during which time the workshops occur.

The periods of day which are studied are reader's workshop and writer's workshops. Students are in the classroom for a block of three hours, from 8:15 to 11:15 a.m. each day. Normally, a mathematics lesson is given two or three mornings a week. The remainder of the morning hours is reserved for those two workshops. Reader's workshop generally lasts approximately 60 to 75 minutes, and writer's workshop normally lasts 45 to 60 minutes.

Reader's workshop typically begins with a group meeting, in which the

teacher reads one or two books to the children, asking questions and sparking discussions. At this time, the teacher may present a mini-lesson on a current theme, a concept of print, or a reading strategy, meeting student needs as determined by "kid-watching," or observational assessment. Then students are dismissed for private reading. For a period of approximately 30 minutes, students take their reading tubs (filled with self-selected books appropriate to their reading level) and read or look at books independently and quietly. They also have available to them many books from current units or author studies. Then commences another period of time in which students are permitted to read with a friend: buddy reading. In general, students are encouraged to practice a book in their tubs until it "sounds like talk," at which time they tape record their reading of the book. They are also encouraged to select challenging new books from time to time to add to their tubs. They have weekly reading conferences, during which they read a book to the teacher or assistant, and the adult notes which strategies they are using, assesses their progress, and sometimes suggests new books the child may work on next. Often, however, students low in self-direction will seek out adults with whom to read many other times during the week.

Teachers assess reading levels through an examination of conference sheets and informal observation. The teacher tries to guide children towards

choosing challenging, but not frustrating, reading materials. The children take home two books to read with their parents for "homework" each night. If children are making inappropriate choices, the teacher plays a more active role in helping the child choose books.

Writer's workshop usually follows directly after reader's workshop and snack. To begin, the children are brought together, and the teacher invites young authors to share their work. This may include children sharing their journal writings, their published books, or their rotating class journals, written in at home. At this time, the teacher may teach a lesson about writing conventions or about the writing process. The students then retrieve their journals and write an entry for the day. They are to write about themselves and every day happenings; writing stories is reserved for book publication. Students may also take up unfinished work and put it through the writing process for publication; this includes rereading, getting peer feedback, teacher editing, and illustrating. Students are required to share their journals and other work with a teacher before the conclusion of writer's workshop. Teacher expectations vary for different students according to their grade level. Normally, students know how many sentences they are expected to write in their journal, or how far they are expected to get with the publication of a book.

The teacher keeps a portfolio of each student's writing for assessment purposes. Common trends of errors in decoding or printing are recognized by the teacher and are worked on during conferences, or if the trends are noticed class-wide, they are addressed with mini-lessons. Children are encouraged to prepare their favorite pieces for publication, and the teacher helps students through the writing process, which includes peer editing, proofreading, and illustrating.

The students are generally productive during these workshops; they rely upon each other for help, and are engaged with their reading and writing. However, there are some students who run counter to this productivity; who through a lack of engagement, busy themselves by daydreaming, wandering, or bothering others. There are some students for whom this is the most difficult, or sometimes, least favorite time of day.

PARTICIPANTS

The study differentiates between grade levels, studying low self-directed kindergartners during reader's workshop, and low self-directed first graders during writer's workshop. The rationale for this differentiation lies in the fact that during writer's workshop, first graders are expected to write more text than illustrations, which presents a challenge to them to stay on-task. As all first

graders are readers, staying on-task during reading workshop presents more of a challenge for the kindergartners.

Participants are chosen by teacher recommendation. For reader's workshop, two kindergartners who exhibit low self-direction are chosen, one high self-directed kindergartner is chosen for comparison. Similarly, for writer's workshop, two first graders who exhibit low self-direction are chosen, and a counter-example from the first grade is also studied. Students with low self-direction are chosen mainly on the basis that they have difficulty getting appropriately engaged without many reminders; they have trouble "knowing what to do and doing it." Students who are high self-directed are chosen because they are more likely to become engaged independently, and less distractable when they become engaged.

There are six participants in all. Jack and Erica are the low self-motivated kindergartners, Sarah is the high self-motivated kindergartner. Greg and Patty are the low self-motivated first graders, Randy is the high self-motivated first grader. It should be noted that Sarah and Randy evidence higher achievement in the chosen areas than the other students; Sarah is reading at a higher level than the other kindergartners, Rachel is writing more sophisticated stories and evidences a higher level of decoding skills than the other first graders. Thus, the link between achievement and self-direction,

then, can be observed in the very first years of schooling. There is a clear need to intervene on the low self-directed students' behalf, before differences in achievement become more marked and impediments to their success become insurmountable.

METHOD

The study follows a basic structure of assess, use, reassess. All students are given a survey of self-direction. Targeted students are measured for base levels of on-task behaviors. Students are given the tool to use for twelve days. Observations are taken during this period. On-task behaviors for targeted students are measured again. The self-direction survey is given again to targeted students. Students are interviewed about the helpfulness of the tool.

Students were introduced to the tool before they used it the first day. I asked for a volunteer to describe what a "plan" was, we discussed "reviewing," and then I told them that, for the next two weeks, they were going to make plans and review them for reader's and writer's workshops. I introduced them to the tool for reader's workshop, and then gave each student a copy. They took a few minutes to plan, and I spoke to them about making realistic plans. They were excused to read privately, and were reminded to write down the titles and authors of the books they read in the appropriate categories, and

record how they felt about each book (Appendix C). The rationale for having them record how they felt with a smile, a neutral face, or a frown was that students would be reminded to reflect upon what they read, and would give books more than a cursory glance.

After reader's workshop, students were brought together again to review. They were asked to compare what they had planned with what they had done, and circle a check or an "x" to reflect whether or not their plans and their actions matched. At this time I collected their reader's plans and gave out their writer's plans. They were to plan their workshop activities, and come back together for review.

All the students in the class used the tool for twelve school days. Students were encouraged to make realistic plans, planning independently and reviewing independently. Researcher was present to observe the participants of the study, and to provide help when requested.

Self-Direction Survey

The students were given an orally-dictated survey, developed using Skager's and Zimmerman's characteristics of self-direction, to assess how self-directed they thought they were (Appendix A). Two children were absent. Class results (as shown in table 1, which follows) demonstrate that, on the

whole, students had concerns about their own levels of self-direction. The areas for which 50% or more of those surveyed had trouble were: motivation, planning, completion, and environmental structuring. The characteristic of self-directed learning from which each question is derived is as follows: items #1 and #2 address the level of intrinsic motivation (Skager's characteristic of intrinsic motivation), items #3 and #4 address how well children have internalized what is expected of them and how well they can make decisions about what they expect from themselves (Skager's characteristic of autonomy), items #5 and #6 address the extent to which children plan their activities beforehand (Skager's characteristic of planfulness), item #7 addresses how well children pace themselves in a workshop situation (Zimmerman's strategy of reviewing), item #8 addresses how well children can manipulate their environment to make it conducive to learning (Zimmerman's strategy of environmental structuring), and items #9 and #10 address to what extent children can keep themselves on task (Skager's characteristic of internalized evaluation).

Table 1: Self-Direction Survey, Class Results

QUESTION:	YES	MAYBE	NO
1. I like reader's workshop.	9	8	1
2. I like writer's workshop.	13	2	3
3. I always know what to do in reader's workshop.	15	3	0
4. I always know what to do in writer's workshop.	16	2	0
5. I think about which books I'm going to read before reader's workshop.	9	6	3
6. I think about what I'm going to write about before writer's workshop.	15	1	1
7. I always finish my reading and writing before workshops are over.	5	7	6
8. When things get noisy around me, I always get up and move.	9	8	0
9. I always do what I'm supposed to in reader's workshop.	10	7	1
10. I always do what I'm supposed to in writer's workshop.	13	4	1

When we examine how each of the target students responded to each of the questions, we must keep in mind that we are not seeing the whole picture. For the participants of the study, results may be skewed, because children low in self-direction also have lower levels of self-awareness: a lack of metacognition, as discussed in the review of the literature. It can be assumed that children who responded "maybe" have a demonstrated problem with that specific issue. Conversely, students high in self-direction also evidence higher levels of metacognition, and may give answers which demonstrate a more reflective and self-critical frame of mind.

The table which follows is an analysis of the target students' responses. All names have been changed to protect the students. We can see that both the kindergartners with low self-direction do not like reader's workshop, and Erica is not sure of expectations. The first graders with low self-direction, Patty and Greg, have trouble with completing their work during writer's workshop. In addition, Patty does not like writer's workshop, and has trouble restructuring her environment. Greg admits that he doesn't stay on task in either workshop. The children were quite accurate in identifying their own problems; the problems they pinpointed were those observed by the teacher.

On the whole, the participants high in self-direction rated themselves as lower in self-directed behaviors than the other participants, due to a higher

level of metacognition. Sarah wasn't sure she liked reading workshop, Randy didn't like writer's workshop. They love reading and writing, this is clear from observation; it is the workshop situation they find restrictive. Still, the results are telling, and are worth noting, with these factors in mind. What follows, in table 2, is an item analysis for the identified students, high and low, in the study.

Table 2: Self Direction Survey, Target Student Base Results

Grade/Level	Name	Items:Yes	Items:Maybe	Items:No
K/HIGH	Sarah	#2-4,6,9,10	#1,5,8	#7
K/LOW	Jack	#2-10	#1	0
K/LOW	Erica	#5-10	#3,4	#1,2
1/HIGH	Randy	#1,3-6,9	#7,8,10	#2
1/LOW	Patty	#1,3-6,9,10	#2,8	#7
1/LOW	Greg	#1,2,4-6,8	#3,7,9,10	0

BASE LEVELS OF ON-TASK BEHAVIOR

The targeted students were observed for a period of thirty minutes each during the workshop for which they were to be studied; the kindergartners during reader's workshop, the first graders during writer's workshop. The

checklist used was developed with the specific classroom in mind. It was determined that a minute-by-minute analysis of behavior would be more informative than an evaluative assessment, as this specific kind of knowledge was not available from the teacher. The format of the observation and checklist was influenced by the observation instrument Tallman and Reed (1985) used in their study of Ohio's Otsego School District.

This study's checklist differs considerably from Tallman and Reed's checklist as observations in a whole language classroom must differ from those in a traditional classroom. Verbalizations, for example, are not necessarily off-task behavior in a whole language classroom. Katzen and Clarke studied the oral language of third and fifth graders during the writing process and found that although the students exhibited a great deal of oral language, more than 95% of it was task-related (Katzen and Clarke, 1986). Hence, the checklist uses "non-related talk" to describe language which is off-task.

The behavior checklist (Appendix B) asks the observer to determine which activity best reflects how the child was engaged during a minute of observation. The observer makes a tally mark in this category; the observation results in thirty tally marks. Base levels of task-related behaviors, as described by the checklist, were tabulated.

We can see from table 3 that high self-directed students were on task

for a greater percentage of time than low self-directed students. When students with high self-direction did get off task, it was a transition or an interruption. When students with low self-direction went off task, they were much more likely to engage in non-related talk, being more easily distracted from their work. They needed to be reminded of requirements by the teacher, and were more likely to daydream or wander to a new seat. Erica's teacher conference was initiated by Erica; often low self-directed students will seek out teachers to read with when they don't know what to do.

Observation supports teacher identification of high and low self-direction. The main difference between the two levels of self-direction lies with student's level of personal engagement in his or her work. Students with high self-direction were not as susceptible to internal or external interruptions from the work at hand.

Table 3: Base Levels of On-Task Behavior

OBSERVED BEHAVIORS	Sarah	Jack	Erica	Randy	Greg	Patty
Attending to work	23	8	12	27	2	17
Interrupted--other						
• By teacher						1
• By student	3				1	
• By noise						
Transition--other			2		1	1
• Finding new seat		1	2		1	1
• Getting new book	4	2	4	3		1
• Getting pencil						1
Inattentive--other						
• Non-related talk		19	3		8	8
• Wandering			2			
• Daydreaming			4		10	
• Reminded of requirements			1		3	
• Playing					4	

Need for Redesign

From the first day, I observed students changing their plans to fit their actions, or filling in their plans after they had participated in their activities. I was able to identify one factor which caused this behavior: students didn't like to circle an "x" if they didn't follow their plan. I assured them that it was perfectly acceptable to mark that they had not followed their plan, as that would help them make plans the next day. However, I decided to redesign the tool, removing the "x" (Appendix E).

Other smaller changes were also made. The new reader's plan enlarged the "new book" category and reduced the "tape" category to fit the classroom's needs. The new writer's plan included a "yes or no" list for the "do" section, because students were confusing the use of the check: they used it to answer "did I do it?" instead of "does it match my plan?" From the fifth day of the study, the students used this version of the tool.

Observations

On the first day of use, three of the four targeted students with low self-direction came up to me and asked me what they were supposed to do, thereby reinforcing the teacher's evaluations. Of the two high self-directed students Sarah relished the structure, and picked up its use immediately, being a very

organized child. Randy, on the other hand, rejected its use early on, preferring the freedom of changing her plans throughout the workshops as she saw fit. The targeted students' responses to the tool as they used it over the period of twelve days were recorded.

The students with low self-direction had difficulty with the planning process at first. Days one and two were dedicated to introducing the tool to the whole class; no special attention was paid to the targeted students. As to be expected, it showed. The concepts of planning and reviewing were not natural to the students with low self-direction. As a result, the plans they made were unrealistic, and left unreviewed. Beginning on day three, I helped the low self-directed students plan, monitor, and review. When Jack planned on day three, he circled "no" for every category, remarking, "I don't want to do anything today." This suggests an acquired distaste for reader's workshop.

On day five, a tremendous difference was observed in three of the four students targeted for low self-direction; all but Patty stayed on task and followed their plans. I attribute these differences to the amount of time I took with the students to plan and review. Help from a teacher was clearly necessary to introduce this type of structure to these students. Jack got a "specialized" plan; having trouble sticking with books, he was told to write in his plan the title of the one book he was going to read that day. On day five,

Erica showed her plan to the classroom teacher, excited about her accomplishments. The teacher said, "you're really on-task today! That plan must have helped you!" to which Erica responded, "it sure did!" On day six, Erica asked me to plan with her. It is clear that the guidance provided in using the plans was necessary to this student.

The researcher was not present for aid or observation from days eight to eleven. Observations before this period show that students with low self-direction benefit from the tool when given guidance in using it. On-task levels taken on day twelve address the question of whether or not targeted students were able to use the tool without further aid. An analysis of these results follows.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

Aside from observation of the targeted students, the effects of the study were measured by a final tally of on-task behaviors, a final survey of self-direction, and interviews held with the participants. The results from each of these measures confirm the effectiveness of the tool and are discussed below.

ON-TASK BEHAVIORS

By examining the table of final levels of on- and off-task behaviors, we realize that we cannot use these numbers to identify which students are high self-directed and which are low self-directed, as we could with initial levels. Non-related talk is the greatest manifestation of off-task behavior for most students. In general, however, the targeted students were all on-task for the majority of the time they were observed.

Qualitatively, there were some changes which the tally marks do not show which should be noted. Erica managed to stay on task without resorting to reading with an adult, her old strategy to shift responsibility for her learning onto a teacher. Jack, who before used changing his seat to avoid engaging with his reading material, now was observed changing his seat to get away

from noise so his reading wouldn't be disturbed. Although Patty did not show much improvement in on-task behavior, she was less susceptible to talking with neighbors than in the initial observation. In addition, during the final observation, Patty moved out into the hall in an attempt to better structure her environment. This indicates that she has taken on more responsibility for her learning. Table 4, which follows, indicates the final levels of on-task and off-task behavior for the six target students.

Table 4: Final Levels of On-Task Behavior

OBSERVED BEHAVIORS	Sarah	Jack	Erica	Randy	Greg	Patty
Attending to work	25	21	21	22	22	18
Interrupted--other						
• By teacher						
• By student						
• By noise						
Transition--other						
• Finding new seat		2				1
• Getting new book	2	2	5			4
• Getting pencil						
Inattentive--other						
• Non-related talk	3	1	4	5	8	5
• Wandering						
• Daydreaming		2		3		
• Reminded of requirements		1				
• Playing		1				2

We now look at the differences in levels of on-task behavior. The base levels were taken before the introduction of the tool; the final levels were taken on day twelve of the study. We can see that the students with high self-direction were minimally effected by the use of the tool: Sarah and Randy varied only a few minutes from the initial levels. If anything, the tool had a negative effect on Randy. This can be explained by her disdain for using the plans. The targeted students Jack, Erica, and Greg showed a marked increase in on-task behaviors; Patty's change was minimal. Results were as expected, then; students with high self-direction were not helped by the introduction of the tool into the workshop situation, while the students with low self-direction were helped by its implementation.

Table 5: Comparison of Minutes On-Task

STUDENT	BASE	FINAL
Sarah	23	25
Jack	8	21
Erica	12	21
Randy	27	22
Greg	2	22
Patty	17	18

SELF-DIRECTION RESURVEY

The self-direction survey was given to targeted students after the twelve day period to see if there were any changes in the way they perceived themselves and their work habits in the workshop situation. Changes reflect one of two things; either a change in work habits or a change in the level of metacognition. Answer changes for the two high self-directed students were minimal and were not recorded. Answer changes for the students low in self-direction are discussed below.

Table 6 refers to the changes recorded for the four participants with low self-direction, only. It indicates the number of participants who responded yes,

no, or maybe in the original survey and in the final survey. All students saw improvement in themselves for at least one self-direction skill surveyed. Jack became more able to complete his work. Greg became more aware of expectations, and Patty became more aware of expectations and became better able to structure her environment. Erica showed the most perceived improvement, saying she now liked both workshops and now knew what to do in both workshops.

Negative changes were also recorded for three of the four targeted participants. Erica showed a change in her view of how effectively she structured her environment. Greg changed his answer for how often he truly planned before workshops. Patty found she didn't always know what to do, and Greg found he didn't always like doing it. However, observations and on-task post levels show that improvement was evident; negative changes in participants' views of their own self-direction were not translated into a decrease in self-direction. Therefore, we can attribute these changes to increased levels of metacognition as a result of tool use.

Table 6: Self Direction Survey: Answer Changes

SURVEY QUESTION	PRE			POST		
	Y	M	N	Y	M	N
1. I like reader's workshop.	2	1	1	4	0	0
2. I like writer's workshop.	2	1	1	3	1	0
3. I always know what to do in reader's workshop.	2	2	0	3	1	0
4. I always know what to do in writer's workshop.	3	1	0	4	0	0
5. I think about which books I will read before reader's workshop.	4	0	0	3	1	0
6. I think about what I will write about before writer's workshop.	4	0	0	3	1	1
7. I always finish my reading and writing.	2	1	1	2	2	0
8. When things get noisy around me, I always get up and move.	3	1	0	2	2	0
9. I always do what I'm supposed to do in reader's workshop.	3	1	0	3	1	0
10. I always do what I'm supposed to do in writer's workshop.	3	1	0	3	1	0

INTERVIEW RESULTS

Each target student was interviewed about the helpfulness of the tool. All students were asked the same questions, but the quality of the answers varied widely based upon the level of thoughtfulness and articulation each student exhibits. For example, Greg, whose journal entries are replete with statements such as "it was neat" and "it was fun" gave exactly those answers orally when asked if he liked using the tool. The questions asked are listed below:

1. Did you like using the plans?
2. Did they help you? How?
3. If you had a choice, would you like to keep using them?
4. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about the plans?

I will go through the results of each question, analyzing the general content of the responses, as well as specific examples of the responses generated.

All four of the students targeted for low self-direction liked using the tool. Jack was pleased with the freedom of choice they offered, saying, "you can put *no* and *yes* on it" and "you can decide what you want to do." Erica found that the plans increased her motivation in workshops, saying "they help me like reader's workshop good. I said I didn't like it before and now I do."

However, for both the students with high self-direction, the tool met with a more reserved reception. Sarah, a very organized student, seemed to

enjoy using the plans the first week, but when asked if she liked using them after two weeks of use, answered, "maybe--sometimes I would use the plan." Randy was less ambivalent. When asked if she liked using them, she answered "no! I just wanted to start my reading and writing." Clearly, students who were already intrinsically motivated and could direct their own activities found the added structure restrictive.

To the second question, addressing the helpfulness of the tool, answers varied. All students, with the exception of Randy, found that the tool helped increase their productivity in workshop situations. Erica replied, "I always read now," while Greg said, "it helps me write more." Jack found it kept him on-task "a little more," and Sarah said "it helps me plan what I'm going to do." The most specific information came from Patty, who said, "they keep good track of me. They're good to use because you don't get messed up and forget what you're doing--you can always go back and check. Or if the teacher gets mad at you and says 'what have you been doing?' you can show her your plan." This testimony, combined with observations of Patty demonstrate that although the on-task levels do not demonstrate a significant improvement, using the tool did help her.

The results to the next question, regarding the desirability of continued use, also were divided along self-direction lines. All four of the low self-

directed wanted to continue use, while the two high self-directed were ambivalent or negative in response. Sarah answered "maybe" to this question, while Randy said quite accurately, "I don't need it." Low self-directed students wanted to continue using the tool because they enjoyed the success they had been achieving for the past twelve days; high self-directed students were already enjoying their successes.

The fourth question, soliciting additional information, proved to be an opportunity for the students to share with me their feelings of accomplishment. Erica added, "I can plan by myself," which was not true the previous week. Jack replied, "I can do lots of things good now." Randy used this opportunity to say that she made a plan for her mother to use to get the sewing done, which is typical of this gifted child's ability to apply what she has learned to other areas in her life.

Student interviews provide useful information which is not available in any other form. The students' perceptions can be considered the most important measure taken to evaluate the study, considering that the study itself emphasizes student self-direction of learning. By acknowledging the worth of student interviews, we also implicitly acknowledge the worth of student self-evaluation. Regard for student self-evaluation is the very motivation for a study of this nature.

SUMMARY

Ongoing observations and student interviews provide valuable qualitative information which complements the quantitative information collected by on-task assessment and self-direction survey analysis. Both qualitative and quantitative measures serve to support the hypotheses made at the outset of the study. The two corroborating types of data lend validity to the study which neither type of data could do independently. This cross-validation of the hypotheses proves that students low in self-direction benefit from using a structured plan to become more self-directed.

Important to note was that students could only grow in their abilities to self-direct their activities when they were given appropriate guidance in using the tool. This does not mean that teachers should "do for" the student, as Biemiller and Meichenbaum warned against. This study, rather, is about showing the student how to do for him or herself.

CONCLUSIONS

The study hypothesized that providing low self-directed students with a tool to use in workshop situations would result in increased on-task behaviors, while students with high self-direction would find the tool unnecessary. We have found these hypotheses to be true. The study proposed that participants originally low in self-direction would look at themselves as more self-directed and have positive feelings for the tool's use; this has been confirmed with the survey and interview results. But is the tool the direct cause of increased on-task behaviors? If we truly believe in student responsibility for learning, we must reject this behavioristic interpretation in favor of the belief that these students made a choice which resulted in staying on-task. We must examine why using the tool would result in students making such a choice, so that we may facilitate such choices in the future. The explanation lies within the realm of student attitudes.

In the review of the literature, links were established between self-direction and achievement, between self-direction and motivation. A logical, but inadequately researched link lies between motivation and achievement. Recall Rodney Skager's speculation: "it is possible that learners with superior cognitive ability would more readily develop patterns of self-direction because

of repeated experiences of success in independent learning and problem solving" (Skager, 1984, p.185). In other words, students who achieve using self-directive techniques will hold positive attitudes which reinforce these self-directive techniques. We must help create situations for low self-directed students in which positive attitudes arise from being self-directed learners. In short, success feels good. But success which is self-created feels even better.

Students who are self-directed are self-motivated, and students who are self-motivated achieve more. It is a logical sequence of events towards which we must direct more current research efforts. When students can succeed on their own, they hold a positive view of themselves as learners, and of the learning process itself. If independence alone creates feelings of accomplishment, imagine what independence paired with tangible achievement can do! In essence, this is what self-direction is: independence paired with success. In whole language classrooms, children with high self-direction are experiencing these feelings of accomplishment; children with low self-direction are not. And something must be done.

The history of education in America is a series of waves; the tide comes in with a radical new reform, but the wave breaks and recedes "back to basics." The whole language movement is on the crest of that wave now, and if we are not careful, history will repeat itself. Whole language advocates must listen to

the critics who complain that some children are coming out of these classrooms without the basic skills. Because the critics have a valid point. The student in kindergarten who wanders without engaging in an activity, the student who constantly needs reminding, the student who cannot monitor his own learning is the student whose learning will suffer in a whole language environment. We recognize these children in our classrooms; now we must do something to encourage the self-direction so central to their achievement. The study's tool is just one example of a means to help these children experience the power of self-direction. Listen to the children themselves: "I can do lots of things good now" (Erica, personal communication, March 18, 1994). These children have had a taste of self-made success. Just watch them come back for more.

REFERENCES

Allen, J. (1991). Reducing the Risks of Literacy Learning. Reading Teacher, 44(7), 458-72.

Altwerger, B., Edelsky, C., & Flores, B.M. (1989). Whole Language: What's New? In G. Manning & M. Manning (Eds.), Whole Language: Beliefs and Practices, K-8 (pp. 9-23). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

Biemiller, A., & Meichenbaum, D. (1991). Task-Related Discourses as an Indicator of Elementary "Expertise" (Report No. PS 019 895). Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Seattle, WA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 341 455)

Biemiller, A., & Meichenbaum, D. (1992). The Nature and Nurture of the Self-Directed Learner. Educational Leadership, 50(2), 75-80.

Cutler, C., & Stone, E. (1988). A Whole Language Approach: Teaching Reading and Writing to Behaviorally Disordered Children. In M.K. Zabel (Ed.), Teaching: Behaviorally Disordered Youth (monograph, vol. 4). (Report No. EC 212 585, pp. 31-39). Reston, VA: Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service

No. ED 305 785)

Gearheart, W.R. (1985). Learning Disabilities: Educational Strategies. St. Louis, MO: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing.

Goodman, K.S. (1979). The Know-More and Know-Nothing Movements in Reading: A Personal Response. Language Arts, 56(6), 657-63.

Goodman, K.S. & Goodman, Y.M. (1981). A Whole Language Comprehension-Centered Reading Program. (Report No. CS 006 373). Paper for the Arizona Center for Research and Development, Tuscon, AZ. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 210 630)

Hohmann, M., Banet, B., & Weikart, D.P. (1979). Young Children in Action: A Manual for Preschool Educators. Ypsilanti, MI: The High/Scope Press.

Katzen, W.C. & Clarke, B.K. (1986). A Study of 3rd and 5th Grade Students' Oral Language During the Writing Process in Elementary Classrooms. (Report No. CS 210 226). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association World Congress on Reading, London. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 277 025)

Lindsay, M. (1989). The Curricular Experiences of Low Achieving First Graders in a Whole Language Program. (Report No. CS 010 060). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, Austin, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 319 007)

Oldfather, P. (1993). Students' Perspectives on Motivating Experiences in Literacy Learning, Perspectives in Reading Research No. 2. (Report No. CS 011 319). Athens, GA: National Reading Research Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 358 423)

Rich, S.J. (1989). Restoring Power to Teachers: The Impact of "Whole Language." In G. Manning & M. Manning (Eds.), Whole Language: Beliefs and Practices, K-8 (pp. 220-228). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

Shouse, C. (1993). Early Childhood Education and Substance Abuse Prevention--Georgia Sees the Connection. High/Scope ReSource: A Magazine for Educators, 12(2), 1-13.

Skager, R. (1984). Organizing Schools to Encourage Self-Direction in Learners. Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education.

Smith, M.S. (1991). The Difficulties of a Curriculum Helper in an Urban School. (Report No. UD 029 063). Paper presented at the Bergamo Conference, Dayton, OH. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 357 090)

Tallman, C.W. & Reed, R. (1985). On-Task and Off-Task Student Behavior at Otsego Local School District. Spectrum, 3(2), 20-24.

Wang, M.C. & Peverly, S.T. (1986). The Self-Instructive Process in Classroom Learning Contexts. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 11(4), 370-404.

Watson, D.J. (1989). Defining and Describing Whole Language. The Elementary School Journal, 90(2), 129-141.

Wood, F.H. (1975). Self Directions and Achievement: Are They Related? High School Journal, 58(4), 161-169.

Zimmerman, B.J. (1989). A Social Cognitive View of Self-Regulated Academic Learning. Journal of Educational Psychology, 81(3), 329-339.

APPENDIX A

Name_____

	YES	MAYBE	NO
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			
10.			

APPENDIX B

Watch subject 30 minutes. At end of each minute, assess what happened most during that minute.

NAME _____ DATE _____

Attending to work	
Interrupted - OTHER	
By teacher	
By student	
By noise	
Transition - OTHER	
Finding new seat	
Getting new book	
Getting markers/pencil	
Inattentive - OTHER	
Non-related talk	
wandering	
Daydreaming	
Reminded of requirements	
Playing	
Miscellaneous	

Reader's Workshop

PLAN

NAME _____ DATE _____

Circle one

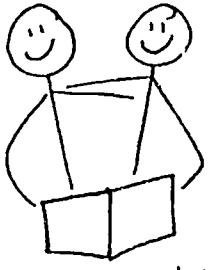
TUB

I will read books from my tub.

YES

NO

BUDDY

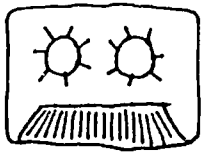


I will read books with a buddy.

YES

NO

TAPE



I will practice a book for tape, so it sounds like talk.

YES

NO

NEW BOOK

I will put a challenging new book in my tub.

YES

NO

DO

I felt ☺, 😐 or ☹ for each book I read.

Title and Author	
TUB	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
BUDDY	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
	○
TAPE	○
	○
	○
NEW BOOK	○
	○
	○

REVIEW

✓ OR ✗

✓ OR ✗

✓ OR ✗

✓ OR ✗

Appendix D

NAME _____ DATE _____ DO

REVIEW

I worked on a piece for publication. → ✓ OR ✗

I drew pictures to illustrate. → ✓ OR ✗

I worked on a new piece. → ✓ OR ✗

I wrote in my journal. → ✓ OR ✗

I wrote this many sentences: ____ → ✓ OR ✗

I wrote about: → ✓ OR ✗

I felt like this about writing today. ☺ 😐 ☹

Writer's Workshop

PLAN

Circle one

I will work on a piece for publication. → YES NO

I will draw pictures to illustrate. → YES NO

I will work on a new piece. → YES NO

I will write in my journal. → YES NO

I will write this many sentences: _____

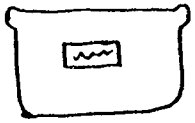
I will write about:

Reader's Workshop PLAN

NAME _____ DATE _____ DD

Circle one

TUB

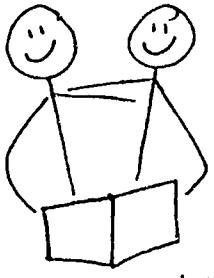


YES

I will read books from my tub.

NO

BUDDY

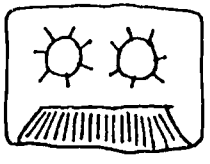


YES

NO

I will read books with a buddy.

TAPE



YES

NO

I will practice a book for tape, so it sounds like talk.

NEW BOOK

YES

NO

I will put a challenging new book in my tub.

66

Title and Author

I felt ☺, 😐 or ☹ for each book I read.

TUB

BUDDY

TAPE

NEW BOOK

67

REVIEW

Appendix F

NAME _____ DATE _____

DO

REVIEW

I worked on a piece for publication. → YES NO ✓

I drew pictures to illustrate. → YES NO ✓

I worked on a new piece. → YES NO ✓

I wrote in my journal. → YES NO ✓

I wrote this many sentences: ____ → ✓

I wrote about: → ✓

I felt like this about writing today. ☺ 😐 ☹

Writer's Workshop

PLAN

Circle one

I will work on a piece for publication. → YES NO

I will draw pictures to illustrate. → YES NO

I will work on a new piece. → YES NO

I will write in my journal. → YES NO

I will write this many sentences: _____

I will write about: