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High School Students
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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

This is to certify that the Master's Thesis of Barbara B. Swenson has been approved by the Review Committee for the Thesis requirement for the Master of Arts in Leadership degree.

Date of Oral Defense: March 30, 1995

Committee: _____

Adviser

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Reader

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Reader

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Abstract

The impact of specific collaborative writing skill lessons on individual writing skills and attitudes of mainstream students in two Chaska High School English classrooms was the focus of this study. Students in the control class and the experimental class studied the same literary selections and skills; however, the process of the writing skill lessons was different. The experimental class received additional instruction in the collaborative process by learning group roles, writing collaboratively, and evaluating progress after each group skill lesson. In order to assess the impact of collaboration in the experimental class, a pretest and posttest were administered to both the control and experimental class at the beginning of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. Two readers from the English department and the author holistically scored the pretests and posttests. The experimental class written posttest scores did not significantly differ from those of the control class written posttest scores. Therefore, the collaborative writing process did not appear to have a significant impact on individual student writing skills. An attitudinal survey was administered to both classes in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter; the responses were categorized and tabulated into positive, negative, and neutral remarks. The experimental class attitudinal survey responses were not significantly different from those of the control class. However, the fact that the writing skills of students in both the experimental class and the control class improved was an important finding in this study.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Changes in writing methodology continue to have an impact on high school English instructors. One notes that in the last decade a great deal of research in cooperative learning by Johnson and Johnson (1984) has focused on the importance of students working together in the classroom. Research has revealed how cooperative learning helps students practice interpersonal skills such as listening and encouraging. Soon educators became aware how well-managed writing groups not only can benefit the teacher, but also how sharing among students and between teachers and students can benefit the students. Focusing on the issue of writing groups as a teaching method, Anne Gere relates how writing groups represent the social dimension of writing. In other words, the intellectual bias supporting the solo writer is shifting (Gere, 1987). Therefore, an examination of writing groups is important because of the new status they have attained in the past few years. An important contribution in the value of shared writing was made by Karen Spear as she affirms how writing is a social activity that encourages participation in writing classes and prepares students for a world in which writing is a team effort (Spear, 1988). Ideally, collaborative writing engages students in stimulating discussions leading to quality writing and revising sessions. The tasks are collaborative and can be accomplished within a cooperative framework. Thus, examining what happens to student writing and attitudes toward writing when students participate in collaborative writing activities is the purpose of this study.

Since this study focuses on the key elements which will improve specific individual writing skills and attitudes as they relate to collaborative writing, a main question and several subquestions are addressed. The main question is this: Is peer collaboration in writing an effective process for improving specific individual writing skills? The

subquestions are as follows: (1) Is there a difference in writing quality when students collaborate as opposed to individually writing? (3) How have the attitudes of students been affected by the collaborative writing process?

A literature review was conducted on the impact of collaborative writing groups on individual writing. A general historical perspective revealed how the terminology of writing groups is somewhat ambiguous. Writing groups have been referred to as response groups, team writing, collaborative writing, and many other names (Gene, 1987). The author's definition of collaborative writing is small groups of students working collaboratively on writing lessons in preparation for individual writing assignments. Further reading revealed how research on the effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts on the effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts on achievement and productivity have been studied in great depth (Johnson and Johnson, 1984). It was found that the essence of cooperative learning is positive interdependence, individual accountability, direct interaction among students, and interpersonal and group-building skills. Indeed, collaborative writing rests on several theoretical underpinnings: a sense of audience, the power of peer influence, the gaining of insights into one's own writing as other writings are critiqued, and the benefits of feedback through which students sense how well their writing is communicating (Gebhart, 1980). More importantly, peer response group members are sympathetic readers who suggest methods for writers to use to improve their writing. Therefore, an interest in collaboration has grown because some assumptions are changing in one or more areas of English instruction. Teachers are finding that peer tutoring, peer criticism, and classroom group work are often effective ways to learn material and gain valuable insights (Golub, 1988). Collaborative learning allows for student talk, and it is in this talking that much of the learning occurs. In other words, collaborative learning activities allow students to learn by talking about the lessons. However, if collaborative learning is to be an effective method of instruction, students

must be trained "to develop specific collaborative learning skills to ensure that they can work productively and harmoniously in pairs and in small groups" (Golub, 1988, 2).

In summary, the purpose of this study is to explore the impact of collaborative writing lessons on individual attitudes and writing skills of mainstream high school students in the English classroom. Specific instructional strategies were used in two mainstream sophomore English classes at Chaska High School, a high school located fifteen miles southwest of Minneapolis, Minnesota, in the suburban seven county metropolitan area. The study assesses writing skills before and after the writing lessons; the study assesses attitudes toward writing in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. A two day writing pretest was administered to two sections of Literature-Writing 10A. One section was the control group, and one section was the experimental group. When the writing pretest was completed, it was assessed by the author and two other English teachers in the department. Specific writing assessment guidelines, presented in a paper written by Doug A. Archbald and Fred M. Newmann (1988), were followed in the holistic scoring of the pretests. Both sections then studied literary selections from the five genres: short story, novel, poetry, drama and nonfiction. A variety of written and oral activities were given in each of the genres. Students in the control group wrote the assignments individually. However, the students in the experimental group first wrote the assignments collaboratively in small groups determined by the teacher and then wrote the assignments individually. Students in both the control group and the experimental group individually completed a posttest at the end of the quarter. Once again the author and the two other English teachers holistically assessed the posttest using the same writing criteria required in the pretest. Therefore, the goals of this study are to examine the impact of collaborative writing lessons on individual attitudes and specific writing skills. After reading the research on cooperative learning and collaborative writing, it is expected that the findings in this study will validate the premise that peer collaboration in writing

activities can be an effective process for improving individual attitudes and writing skills.

In conclusion, Chapter I has provided the broad parameters of this study in terms of its purpose, questions, terminology, and methodology. Chapter II will present a review of literature on collaborative writing groups in view of its impact on individual writing. Chapter III will describe the population, the methods, and the applications with an elaboration on the specific design and procedures used to explore a process for writing. Chapter IV will present the results, both quantitative and qualitative, of this study. Chapter V will include the summary, limitations, conclusions, recommendations, and implications.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on collaborative writing groups in view of its impact on individual writing. A general historical perspective, along with the theories and implications, will be explored in reference to the social dimension of writing. Elements of cooperative learning will be examined within the framework of the collaborative writing process. Also, the benefits of learning cooperative skills in the classroom in preparation for the workplace will be addressed. Finally, the role of peer response groups in English classes, the challenges and strengths of collaborative writing groups for both the students and the teacher, and the impact of collaborative peer response groups on serving the writing needs of the students will be discussed and validated through the research presented in this study.

The History of Writing Groups

The terminology of writing groups is somewhat ambiguous. Writing groups have also been referred to as the Partner Method, Helping Circles, collaborative writing, response groups, team writing, writing laboratories, teacherless writing classes, group inquiry technique, the round table, class criticism, editing sessions, writing teams, workshops, peer tutoring, the socialized method, mutual improvement sessions, and intensive peer review (Gere, 1987). Nevertheless, all of these names refer to a process which provides "...response with an immediacy impossible in teachers' marginalia of reviewers' evaluations" (Gere, 1987, 3). Specifically, writing groups highlight the social dimension of writing. Writing has its solitary side, but the authority of individual creation can coexist with the authority of the group.

Writing groups are new and old. The history of writing groups can be traced back

to the early days of the United States. Writing groups emerged from several institutions and intellectual traditions. College literary societies began forming during the colonial period. The concern with political issues and the need for a social outlet was the impetus for forming literary societies. Faculty support and participation provided a major source of intellectual vitality, and faculty members took an active role in their formation. In fact, libraries were established by literary societies. From their earliest days, many literary societies critiqued their own exercises. Criticism extended to both written and oral language, and responding to one another's writing was part of the routine of most societies through the middle of the nineteenth century. When they began presenting and receiving criticism on their works, students in literary societies inaugurated what is known as the phenomenon called writing groups (Gere, 1987).

Cooperative Learning and Groups

Cooperative learning is not a new idea, and the use of cooperative learning in the classroom is not new. In the last three decades of the nineteenth century, Colonel Francis Parker's instructional methods of promoting cooperation among students dominated American education. Following Parker, John Dewey promoted the use of cooperative learning groups. In the 1940's, Morton Deutsch proposed a theory of cooperation and competitive situations that have formed the foundation on which subsequent research and discussion of cooperative learning have been based. Since the 1920's, there has been a great deal of research on the effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic efforts on achievement and productivity, including the 20 research studies by Johnson and Johnson (Johnson and Johnson, 1984). The research of Johnson and Johnson indicated that cooperative learning experiences, compared with competitive and individualistic ones, promotes "...more positive attitudes toward both the subject area and the instructional experience, as well as more continuing motivation to learn more about the subject area

being studied" (Johnson and Johnson, 1984, 17).

Not only is it revealed through findings that cooperative learning can promote constructive socialization, but also it can promote commitment and caring among students. In fact, cooperative learning experiences, compared with competitive and individualistic ones, can promote higher levels of self-esteem. Moreover, achievement can be higher when learning situations are structured cooperatively rather than competitively and individualistically. The essence of cooperative learning is positive interdependence, individual accountability, direct interaction among students, and interpersonal and group-building skills (Johnson and Johnson, 1984).

Furthermore, cooperative learning teaches values and academics through the instructional process. The benefits are prosocial behavior, interpersonal skills, self esteem, and mastery of subject matter. There are several kinds of cooperative learning and a variety should be used. To maximize success in cooperative learning, the teacher must articulate to the students how it is a classroom goal, teach the skills needed to cooperate, engage students in reflection, and assign roles to group members (Lickona, 1991). In fact, attachment to groups helps children value other people and feel loyalty to something larger than themselves. "Cooperative learning is another ally in that cause, because it teaches children that they can do more together than they can alone" (Lickona, 1991, 207).

In summary, students need to become skillful in communicating trust, providing leadership, and managing conflict. The basic premise for developing cooperative skills is that without skill "...in cooperating effectively, it would be difficult (if not impossible) to maintain a marriage, hold a job, or be part of a community, society, and world" (Johnson and Johnson, 1984, 52).

The Importance of Teamwork and Feedback in Collaboration

Collaborative writing rests on several theoretical underpinnings. The benefits of collaboration are as follows: "...the rhetorical sense of audience; the psychological power of peer influence; the transfer-of-learning principle by which students gain insights into their own writing as they comment on the work of others; and the principle of feedback through which student sense how well their writing is communicating" (Gebhardt, 1980, 69). Although feedback has emotional benefits, teachers sometimes turn away from the emotions toward the intellectual material and skills students can learn from group feedback. Not only do teachers need to find ways to allow groups to provide emotional support, but also teachers need to allow feedback to occur early in the writing process. More importantly, collaborative learning needs to be emphasized rather than just collaborative evaluation. Collaborative writing strategies should be applied to finding a topic, generating details on a topic, and locating the audience for a paper. This all helps give moral support to the writer, and it creates a dimension of a broader point of view throughout the writing process (Gebhardt, 1980).

Challenges of Peer Response Groups

Conflict and confusion can exist as students work collaboratively on writing. These interrelated problems can occur within writing groups: "(1) confused expectations about the group's purpose and the individual's role in it, (2) inability to read group members' texts analytically, (3) misperception about the nature of revision and of writing as a process, (4) failure to work collaboratively with group members, and (5) failure to monitor and maintain group activity" (Spear, 1988, 17-18). Moreover, groups face the doublesided problem of disharmony among themselves and the intrusion of a teacher whose expectations may vary dramatically from their own. Therefore, it is important students view themselves as participants in an ongoing experiment aimed at making the

process work, and teachers should enlist suggestions and feedback from the students. Consequently, the teacher's most effective function in maintaining collaborative writing groups is to confront problems openly and recognize them as a part of the process. Teachers need to be aware that what determines effective group composition is the nature of the activity, the nature of the student, and the teacher's goals for both group and writing development (Spear, 1988).

Collaboration in the School Setting

Reading and writing and arguing together can become a powerful source of motivation for students working in peer groups. Hence, the task of the teacher must involve engaging students in conversation among themselves in both the writing and the reading process (McClure, 1990). When the author discussed with Jan Baker, a Chaska High School English department member, the importance of involving the students in the writing process, she made this statement:

> My view on writing has developed and changed over
> the years. Twenty years ago I had a simplistic view of how
> I might teach writing. Through trial and error I have discovered
> and now understand that the student – or one's own peers –
> is the most effective means in effecting or bringing
> about change in writing (J. Baker, personal communication,
> March 14, 1995).

In fact, teachers must expand the uses of collaborative techniques to include conversations on all aspects of classwork, joint or group authorship of papers, and tasks thought of as belonging only to the teacher (McClure, 1990). Similarly, it is important and necessary that teachers collaborate with their peers. Since the writing process involves many of the same steps as the speaking process, a Chaska High School English department member specializing in the area of speech shared information on supporting material (D. St. Germain, personal communication, September 14, 1994). Not only can collaborative methods reduce a student's sense of alienation, but also it can break the

confrontational nature of classroom learning. Collaboration among professional peers appears to reduce a teacher's sense of alienation.

Teachers must challenge their students to have fun in class, to entertain one another, to make each other laugh, and to just play (McClure, 1990). Lew Vygotsky's psychology of learning (1978) reveals how play "...is a leading factor in development, and collaborative methods are uniquely adaptable for the purposes of play" (McClure, 1990, 67-68). From merely using collaboration as an effective method of giving student response to using collaboration as a way of knowing and acting, students could develop a sense of belonging and experience success when they see their words provoke their classmates to either laughter or argument.

Moreover, research has demonstrated that small groups have a powerful emotional influence on their members. In fact, interest is growing in the use of productive teams in many work sites (Walberg & Wynne, 1994). Unfortunately, the effectiveness of learning groups has a design flaw: each group has a short life span so group relationships are too brief. Yet group persistence is of value for stimulating learning. Stability, persistence, and intimacy are the characteristics of influential groups. In schools cooperative learning is a force for learning. However, "some students may be frustrated by poor teachers or unattractive companions" (Walberg & Wynne, 1994, 530). Nevertheless, adults have a responsibility to teach young people that wholesome and even great relationships evolve over time and pass through a number of tensions. In other words, students need to understand the challenge of sound friendships is to learn to tolerate, as well as to enjoy, each other. Students can be helped to learn how to get along with others.

Collaboration in the Workplace

The value of learning how to be a productive group member is not only a school-related issue today. An article in the Houston Chronicle in the summer of 1994 revealed

the importance of teams in the workplace: "Companies that use teams of employees to design special projects or run the regular assembly line are starting to change their compensation structure to match" (Sixel, 1994, 9J). In other words, instead of rewarding individual employees for their efforts, employers are rewarding the teams for good work. In fact, companies rely on those same groups for innovation, better cost control, and better morale. The key is to set up worthwhile goals that are easy to measure. If the team reaches their goal, the company will give the team a set amount of money. If the team exceeds the goal, the company will give an even larger bonus. However, the team would receive nothing more if it did not reach its goal. Also, teams of employees do not work if there is not a trusting work relationship. Consequently, companies need to train team members on interpersonal and problem-solving skills. Members of the team must feel control over the process. Moreover, if any member is not performing up to the standards of the group, the team can recommend a performance improvement program, probation, or even termination. In fact, team members help hire new employees. While team-based incentives sound good, superstars often get frustrated and slackers present problems. Even though most employers still pay team members individually, a few employers are changing the rules by rewarding teams for good work.

Peer Response Groups

Effective peer response group members view papers as "works in progress" and are sympathetic readers suggesting methods for writers to use in improving their papers. In order to experience success in peer response groups, students need to study what peer response groups do and practice using peer response techniques. McQuade and Sommers provide an introduction to the peer response process, recommending the use of observations, evaluations, and end comments in responding to papers (Barron, 1991). Observations are nonjudgmental statements, evaluations assess the strengths and

weaknesses of the draft, and end comments provide writers with guidance to help them set goals for the next draft.

Other methods of improving peer response groups would be for the teacher to duplicate good examples of peer response work from former students and to invite a group of students from the previous year's class to conduct a mock peer response conference for the students currently taking the class. Another method could involve videotaping a good response group and reviewing it together in class. Finally, in-class practice with a teacher draft with the teacher revising the draft according to the comments from the students could have a positive impact on the students (Barron, 1991).

The membership in peer response groups can be determined in a wide variety of ways, ranging from random selection to a planned balance. According to Barron, four students in a group is probably the best size. These peer response groups should meet twice for each composition assignment. The students should read their papers to each other, write down the advice they receive from their group, and provide copies of their paper to the group members. The teacher should monitor the groups, make individual conference time available for students who request it, and provide guide sheets if necessary. The success of peer response groups requires the following conditions: "(1) tolerating and respecting other members in the group, (2) working outside of class, (3) focusing the group response, (4) presenting alternative, not ultimatums, and (5) indicating both strengths and areas where revision is needed" (Barron, 1991, 30, 33). One of the purposes of a composition course should be to make students feel more confident and independent as writers. Peer response groups, according to Ronald Barron, help accomplish this purpose.

Tutorial and Peer Response Groups

Both tutoring and response groups are student-centered approaches that rely on collaboration among students to promote interaction between reader and writer, to promote dialogue and negotiation, and to heighten writers' sense of audience. Also, "...both move the student from the traditional passive stance of receiving knowledge from an authority to an active involvement which makes talk integral to writing" (Harris, 1992, 369). Collaborative writing is writing involving two or more writers working together to produce a joint product, each writer may take responsibility for a different portion of the work, and there may be group consensus or a collective responsibility for the final product. However, tutoring in writing is a collaborative effort in which the tutor listens, questions, and offers advice in order to help the student to become a better writer, not to fix the particular paper the student brought to be reviewed. While writing groups usually focus on whole papers, tutors are often asked by students to focus on a specific section that seems weak. Nevertheless, the tutor's task is primarily to help the student with the larger abilities involved. Peer response groups generate four kinds of verbal activity: "...asking questions, proposing suggestions for revision, agreeing or disagreeing with the recommendations of peers, and explaining intentions about stylistic choices" (Harris, 1992, 377). However, the tutor's role is in helping the writer to find his or her own answers and in guiding the student by questioning rather than by telling or explaining. In other words, peer response groups emphasize informing; tutorials emphasize the student's own discovery. Yet, tutoring and peer response groups are similar, for they both share a commitment to collaborative talk that helps writers return to their writing with a better sense of where to go and how to do it. Nevertheless, for peer response groups to be productive, class time needs to be spent in developing group skills and in learning to offer and receive responses (Harris, 1992).

Peer Criticism

Peter Elbow and Pat Abelanoff's peer response exercises work best in tandem in the collaborative classroom because they capture the struggle between individual expression and social constraint that most writers experience. These exercises prod peer criticism and get the reader to think more about a piece of writing and to focus on writing as a process of revision. The writer chooses what response he or she wants and in what form; the student can write, read, or orally respond to the piece of writing. Elbow and Belanoff's exercises provide a variety of ways to initiate students' interaction with one another: "'Sayback', for instance, is an exercise in which a student listens to another student read a passage; then the listener 'says back' what has been heard. 'Pointing,' in which a student merely underlines words or phrases or passages that appeal to her or him, is a wonderful way for students simply to enjoy classmates' writing before having to explain why. Others include 'what's almost or implied', in which the reader or listener notes implications of the writer's words which may not be explicitly stated; 'believing and doubting', which asks the reader to both accept and reject (in turn) what the writer is saying; and finally, 'movies of the reader's mind', in which the reader is asked to say what was on her mind while reading the paper" (Holt, 1992, 388). It is this interplay of the subjective and the socially-mediated exercises which insures that students write imaginatively as well as analytically.

Collaborative Writing

Ideally, collaborative writing can engage students in intellectually stimulating discussions leading to superior writing. The tasks are collaborative and are achieved within a cooperative framework. However, cooperative learning skills need to be modeled and practiced. More importantly, research by Sheila Clawson has revealed that

collaborative writing can improve individual writing skills, perception of individual writing ability, and attitudes towards writing (Clawson, 1993). Through the use of surveys, questionnaires, interviews, and observations, it was discovered that collaborative writing had an impact on individual writing in the following ways: number and development of ideas, quality of writing, risks taken with vocabulary and sentence structure, and the length of papers. But the real measure of success is the individual assessments of students' own writing. The following quotations are representative of what students cited as advantages and disadvantages to collaborative writing: (1) "You get a lot of different viewpoints and opinions in one piece of writing" (Clawson, 1993, 62). (2) "I now pay more attention to who my audience is" (Clawson, 1993, 64). (3) "I dislike collaborative writing because I like working alone. More people means arguments" (Clawson, 1993, 63). Clawson's results confirmed Spear's (1988) findings that developing student interaction skills enhances composing skills. In fact, collaborative writing and cooperative learning can powerfully impact individual writing.

Responses to Collaborative Writing

Collaborative writing is a team effort, not a solitary one. Recommendations to high school English teachers are as follows: "(1) Begin with a Good Assignment. (2) Select Writing Teams with Care. (3) Conduct Writing Workshops. (4) Allow for Variation in Writing Processes" (Brockman, 1994, 60). Collaborative writing reduces the workload, fortunately, for the teacher. Another advantage can be found in the sharing of ideas and testing of arguments with one's peers.

Yet, students have found it difficult to merge writing styles, and the group itself may be detrimental to the progress of the group. Elizabeth Blackburn Brockman asked eight former students to respond to what they thought about collaborative writing. They shared these thoughts: groups of three are good, members need to work well together to

be successful, a mixture of creative minds is too much, and it is beneficial to share ideas and receive comments from peers (Brockman, 1994).

Mary Kaszyca and Angela M. Krueger revealed how the last four years of the I-Search project supported students learning best in a collaborative environment. Also, conversations in peer groups enhanced learning and gave students both confidence and independence as writers and thinkers. In fact, learning as a transforming experience was the goal of this I-Search project. The students were encouraged to reflect and converse with peers, friends, family members, and teachers on their writing. At the end of the project each writer was asked to pause and reflect and write about the process itself. The researchers made this statement in response to the metacognition of the students: "What we find important in these reflections is the voice in the writing and the sense of ownership and personal responsibility for learning they reveal" (Kaszyca and Krueger, 1994, 95).

Another research project involved a university supervisor and a ninth grade English teacher who collaborated on collaborative writing for a quarter. They formed writing groups of three students each, they modeled coauthoring an essay on a topic selected by the class, and students were audiotaped. Process became more important than the product. Each group had one person who took notes on what the group was saying; each group planned on paper and wrote the paper together as a group. As the teachers observed the groups, listened to the tapes, and interviewed the students, it became clear that the students discovered their own strengths and weaknesses and used this information to divide writing responsibilities within the group structure (Dale, 1994). When the students engaged each other in productive cognitive conflict, they evaluated ideas which led them to revise as they wrote. The researchers discovered the "...interactions and negotiations of collaborative writing at its best are often planning, composing, revising, and editing all together" (Dale, 1994, 70).

Another researcher, Romana P. Hillebrand, devised a collaborative writing assignment for her first-year composition class. Groups of three were formed according to strengths of form, creativity, and mechanics. Not only did the teacher assume the role of a guide, but also she allowed students a choice to submit a group essay instead of an individual one. Unfortunately, her groupings and choice option proved to be counterproductive to the collaborative process with too much control by the teacher. Moreover, the students needed more class time and time to get acquainted. The teacher liked the product and the students disliked the process. The teacher learned that groups needed "...to practice experimenting with the collaborative mode, and ... to practice collaborating with each of their classmates in ever-changing small groups that work together on smaller tasks" (Hillebrand, 1994, 74).

Summary

In summary, one notes that writing groups are both new and old. Instructors interested in using writing groups in their classes can find studies on the methodological dimensions of writing groups. Research has been conducted in the following areas: when and how to form groups, strategies for training students, ways to establish criteria for evaluating writing, variations on group procedures, advantages inherent in using groups, and evidence of the effectiveness of writing groups in improving writing. In fact, peer collaboration in writing can be an effective process for improving individual writing skills. Improvements in the quality of writing and in the attitudes of students toward writing are two major advantages of the collaborative writing process. Although writing has its solitary side and conflicts do occur in writing groups, the new status writing groups have attained in recent years strengthen the notion that writing groups highlight the social dimension of writing. Collaborative relationships empower the participants. More importantly, the most potent source of power is the power of modeling, giving, and

receiving support. Moreover, not only can collaborative writing groups encourage creativity, but also growth can occur in the collaborative relationship in both the social and intellectual realm. Most importantly, growth occurs in a collaborative relationship. In other words, nurturing growth in the classroom and in the workplace is a challenge that can be addressed through collaborating groups. Collaborative writing has the potential to unlock the writer's potential and maximize the skills of all the students in the group. In fact, collaborative writing has the potential to enhance individual writing and positively affect the individual's attitude towards writing.

Collaborative writing can engage students in intellectually stimulating discussions leading to quality writing. Most importantly, the tasks are collaborative and are achieved within a cooperative framework. Research has revealed that collaborative writing can improve individual writing skills and attitudes toward writing. Chapter III elaborates on how this study utilized specific instructional strategies in two mainstream high school English classes for the purpose of assessing writing skills and attitudes in one control class and in one experimental class.

CHAPTER THREE

Overview of Instructional Design and Procedures

Introduction

This chapter is an elaboration on how this study explores a collaborative writing process. This process utilizes specific instructional strategies in two mainstream sophomore English classes at Chaska High School, located fifteen miles southwest of Minneapolis, Minnesota, in the suburban seven county metropolitan area. The purpose of the study is to assess the impact of collaborative writing on writing quality and attitudes toward writing.

In the first week of the quarter, a two day writing pretest on a generic topic of high interest to all students was given to two classes of Literature-Writing 10A. The specific written pretest and posttest assessment instructions (see Appendix B) were adapted from the Richfield High School English department assessment procedures with special permission from the department chairperson (M. Abele, personal communication, May 19, 1994). One class was the control group, and one class was the experimental group. When the writing pretest was completed, it was holistically scored by the author and two other English teachers who followed the written assessment instructions (Appendix C) on the specific criteria to be assessed. Both the control class and the experimental class studied the same literary selections during the quarter from the five literary genres: short story, novel, poetry, drama, and nonfiction. A variety of written and oral activities were given in each of the genres. The control group wrote the assignments individually after direct teacher instruction followed by individual student practice lessons. However, after direct teacher instruction the experimental group engaged in collaborative group practice lessons on specific parts of the writing assignments before each student wrote the assignment individually.

In the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter, students in both groups evaluated the writing process used in their class. In the last week of the quarter, a two-day writing posttest on the same topic was administered to both the control and the experimental group. Once again the author and two other English teachers assessed the posttests using the same criteria for holistic written assessment (see Appendix C). The goals of the author were to examine the impact of collaborative writing lessons on individual attitudes and specific writing lessons. Now let us turn to the specific details on the composition of the classes, the curriculum of the classes, and the questions on the writing process and content in the classes.

Sample

Two sections of sophomore students in the mainstream Literature-Writing 10A English classes taught by the author of this study involved approximately 50 Chaska High School students. One class was the control group, and the other class was the experimental group. The mainstream classes generally have one to three special education students; therefore, these students participated in all the writing lessons. However, their written assessment scores and attitudinal responses were not included in the results of the study. Each class had a mixture of ability levels, sexes, and leadership qualities; however, these two Literature-Writing 10A English classes were basically composed of average to below-average learners.

Procedures

The study itself began the first week of the 1994-1995 school year, and it concluded in the ninth week of the first quarter. Students and parents signed a letter of consent granting the author permission to collect data for a study in two Literature-Writing 10A classes (see Appendix A). In the first week of the quarter, students in both classes took a pretest in order to assess specific writing skills. Then the students in both classes

studied these five literary genres: short story, novel, poetry, drama, and nonfiction. Each unit of study, based on historical periods ranging from colonial America to modern time, involved oral activities, written assignments, videos, and group work. The major difference between the control class and the experimental class was in the writing process lessons. Whereas the control class worked individually during the six writing process lessons, the experimental class first worked collaboratively and then individually during the six writing process lessons.

In the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter, students in both classes were asked to evaluate the writing content and the process used in their classes. A pilot survey was given to the students in both classes in order to give the teacher feedback on the clarity of the questions. The survey questions were revised and these five questions were given to each student: (1) How do you feel about the content of the writing lessons? (2) How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons? (3) What have you learned from the lessons? (4) What has helped you in the lessons? (5) What has not helped you in the lessons? The author recorded the anecdotal responses by conducting a contextual analysis which noted the kinds of language used, such as the positive, negative, and neutral words, in order to compare the initial evaluations to the evaluations written at the end of the quarter (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In the last week of the quarter, students in both classes completed a posttest in order to assess their progress in writing.

Instructional Procedures in Both Classes

The instructional methodologies for the control and experimental groups were similar in many ways. Both groups completed the same written pretest and posttest and answered the same five attitudinal questions during the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. Also, both the control class and the experimental class studied the same literary genres and literary selections. Moreover, both the control class and experimental

class were given the same direct teacher instruction for the writing process lessons, the same writing assignment topics, and the same required written criteria. The major difference was in the writing process. The control group worked on the writing lessons individually after direct teacher instruction, and the experimental group worked collaboratively in small groups on the writing lessons after direct teacher instruction.

Control Class Methodology

The control group in the Literature-Writing 10A class was given a two day written pretest at the beginning of the quarter. The writing pretests question, which has been used successfully in previous composition classes by the author of this study, was as follows: What is your opinion of Chaska High School? The directions were to write a three, four, or five paragraph essay, and a handout was given to each student on the specific directions (see Appendix B). The students were given one day to plan, prewrite, and compose a rough draft. The second day was the typing day on the word processor in the computer lab. Then the class studied the five literary genres of the various historical periods. Oral and written work was completed as students studied specific literary selections. Five attitudinal questions were administered to students in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. A two day written posttest at the end of the quarter was administered to the control class. The writing posttest question was as follows: What is your opinion of Chaska High School?

The methodology used in the control group was highly structured by the author of this study. Student involvement included individual assignments, small group discussions, and class discussion. Writing process lessons based on the literary selections studied in class consisted of direct teacher instruction and individual work on six writing skill lessons. Lesson one was the supporting material (see Appendix D); lesson two was the comma (see Appendix E); lesson three was the semicolon (see Appendix F); lesson

four was the colon (see Appendix G); lesson five was sentence structure consisting of sentence types and varied sentence beginnings (see Appendix H); and lesson six was the form of an essay (see Appendix I). Randomly selected writings from individuals were transferred to the chalkboard for all the students to critique. Proofreading by partners and self-assessment were required in each of the individual writings.

Experimental Class Methodology

The experimental class in Literature-Writing 10A was given a two day written pretest at the beginning of the quarter. The pretest question was the same question given to the control class: What is your opinion of Chaska High School? The directions were to write a three, four, or five paragraph essay, and a handout on the specific directions was given to each student (see Appendix B). The students were given one day to plan, prewrite, and compose a rough draft. The second day was spent typing on the word processor in the computer lab. Then the class studied the same five literary genres intermingled with the various historical periods. Oral and written work was completed as students studied specific literary selections. Five attitudinal questions were administered to students in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. The same two day written posttest was administered to the experimental class at the end of the quarter. The writing posttest question was as follows: What is your opinion of Chaska High School?

The methodology used in the experimental group was different from the control group in the writing process. The author structured the collaborative writing groups based on the six suggestions by Lisa Ede and Andrea Lundford (1985). The collaborative learning experiences involved the following strategies: (1) mixing ability levels, sexes, and leadership qualities in the groups, (2) structuring the group tasks so students understand the goals, (3) organizing class discussion groups, (4) assigning a group grade, (5) allowing time to guide the group activities, and (6) addressing concerns and anxieties

about group work. Moreover, the author asked one group to model how to arrive at consensus, look at the issue from different viewpoints, listen and be respectful of others, and infer sound conclusions (Ede and Lunsford, 1985). The writing assignments included the same topic, directions, and list of criteria as those given to the control group. However, the students in the collaborative writing group lessons would talk, negotiate, debate, argue, and reach consensus at every stage of the writing process from the topic selection to the final revision. Most importantly, a warm-up lesson was scheduled for practicing the various roles and strategies to be used in the writing process lessons. Student involvement was in the individual assignments, small group discussions, small collaborative writing process lessons, and class discussions.

Specific writing skill process lessons based on the literary selections studied in class consisted of direct teacher instruction, collaborative work, and individual work on six writing skill lessons. Lesson one was the supporting material (see Appendix D); lesson two was the comma (see Appendix E); lesson three was the semicolon (see Appendix F); lesson four was the colon (see Appendix G); lesson five was sentence structure consisting of sentence types and varied sentence beginnings (see Appendix H); and lesson six was the form of the essay (see Appendix I). Each group shared a specific part of the assignment with the rest of the class by using the chalkboard. An oral debriefing session for each of the six group writing lessons involved all the students with the teacher as the facilitator of the discussion. These three questions were asked of the class: (1) What worked well in your group? (2) What could your group work on for the next writing lesson? (3) What else would you like to comment on today regarding the process? After the debriefing session was completed, the students individually completed a writing assignment. Proofreading and self-assessment were required in each of the individual writings.

Instruction for the students in the experimental class was peer-centered with guidance offered from the author at the appropriate times. The highly interactive instructional collaborative groups were monitored in all phases of the writing process.

Summary

In both the control class and the experimental class the specific writing skill process lessons followed this format:

1. Teacher instructions on process and content will be given along with a model presented on the overhead.
2. Teacher selected groups of four students will arrange their desks so they face each other.
3. Handouts on group instructions on the roles, the time limit, the grading process, and the specific activity will be picked up by a designated group member.
4. Group speakers will then share with the class.
5. Group work will be handed in to the teacher.
6. A debriefing session involving all the students with their desks arranged in a circle will be facilitated by the teacher.
7. An individual assignment to check understanding will be written.
8. The teacher will model on the overhead how to proofread the assignment.
9. Individuals will then give their essay assignments to partners of their choice to be proofread.
10. Partners will return proofread assignments so revisions can be made.
11. Individual assignments will then be handed in to the teacher.
12. The teacher will score the individual assignments.

The control class completed only steps 1, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12.

Overview of Assessments

Evaluation of Group Experiences

Evaluation gives direction to a learning situation. It assists the teacher in determining future learning experiences; it helps the teacher to know whether the students are challenged to study and learn. More importantly, it allows the teacher to know if the amount of instruction, the kinds of ways used to motivate learning, and the rate at which learning is taking place are effective. It gives the learner and the teacher a sense of

accomplishment, or it can be a signal to improve or change the approach to learning. Consequently, the teacher and the group members should be constantly evaluating their learning experiences. Before the session, the teacher should plan for ways to evaluate the session for the day. During the session, the teacher and the group members (see Appendix K) should be aware of the happenings to determine whether real and effective learning is taking place. After the session, the teacher and the group members should allow time to determine what experiences have been effective and what experiences should be improved (Leypoldt, 1972).

Everyone who is involved in the learning experience should have an opportunity to participate in the evaluation process. Everyone has a different perspective on the learning situation; therefore, without participation by everyone, evaluation cannot be valid. "Since evaluation provides an opportunity to determine whether goals are achieved, and since the goals set are stated in terms of changes that are desired in the learners, evaluation must determine what, if any, changes have taken place" (Leypoldt, 1972, 118). The desired changes are in the areas of knowing, feeling, and doing. Some indications of changes in feeling can be given by questionnaires. Also, changes in action can be assessed by the overt behavior of individuals. The most widely used means of evaluation is a post-reaction sheet which gives the group members an opportunity to express their thoughts and feeling about the learning situation at the end of the session. Three questions can be asked of the group members: What did you like best? What did you like least? What was most helpful to you? In conclusion, evaluation is not the end of the learning experience. It is the beginning of progress (Leypoldt, 1972). This kind of post reaction format was used in this study after each writing skill lesson.

Assessing Academic Achievement

Besides evaluating the effects of group work qualitatively, the teacher needs to evaluate the impact of group work quantitatively. Techniques have been developed which yield quantitative information used to describe progress or change in individual students as well as comparative success of groups to students (Archbald & Newmann, 1988). It is often useful to break achievement into discrete parts in order "...to measure proficiencies under standard conditions that permit comparisons over time and between student groups, and to assign numbers that stand for varying degrees of success so that assessment can be summarized in a simple indicator and aggregated" (Archbald & Newmann, 1988, 6). Grading essays using holistic scoring procedures not only will help the teacher to identify students who need extra writing instruction, but also it will help the teacher to identify strengths and weaknesses in writing instruction. Teachers can use guidelines with written criteria corresponding to each of four possible scores: 1 (highly flawed, not competent), 2 (unacceptable, not competent), 3 (minimally competent, acceptable), 4 (competent, clear mastery). Specific criteria for each of the scores range from usage errors to effective paragraph transition (Archbald & Newmann, 1988). Holistic scoring was used in this study to assess the quality of both the pretests and the posttests.

Grounded Theory as a Qualitative Research Method

In order for the teacher to analyze attitudinal responses in a written survey, a qualitative methodology known as grounded theory can be used in the reporting of the procedures used in the particular study. Grounded theory is "...a qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 24). Its procedures are designed so the method meets the criteria for doing the following : significance, theory-observation compatibility, generalizability, reproducibility, precision, rigor, and verification. The issue

here is how the canons are interpreted and defined in the grounded theory approach.

To discover meaning in data the researcher needs theoretical sensitivity and the ability to visualize with analytic depth what is there. In fact, in the early analytic stages the researcher needs ways of opening up his or her thinking about the phenomena being studied. This is where questioning becomes helpful. Questioning helps one think of potential categories, their properties, and their dimensions. The basic questions are Who? When? Where? What? How? How much? and Why? (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Yet, the researcher does not always need a list of questions in order to examine the data. This can be done with the analysis of a word, phase, or sometimes with a single word. The analysis of a word, phrase, or sentence can teach the researcher "how to raise questions about possible meanings, whether assumed or intended, by a speaker and those around him or her" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1981). This type of analysis helps bring out one's assumptions about what is being said and forces one to examine and question them. When the words are placed in categories, the data will take on new meaning for the researcher. This word analysis approach is called contextual analysis. Thus, the examination of negative, positive, and neutral words in an attitudinal survey administered to students will help the teacher in the analysis of the responses by the students. This strategy was used in this study to analyze the attitudinal surveys.

Research Instruments

This study incorporated two major evaluation tools. The first one was the holistic scoring for written work, and the second one was the contextual word analysis for the attitudinal survey. The writing pretest and posttest question on the topic of Chaska High School was selected because it had been used successfully in the past in the author's composition classes (see Appendix B). The criteria for holistic scoring required in both the pretest and posttest has proven to be a reliable and valid measurement in the author's past

composition classes for holistically assessing improvement in specific individual writing skills. The scores ranged from 4 (the highest) to 1 (the lowest).

The questions to measure students' attitudes about the writing content and the writing process with the group writing skill lessons and without the group writing skill lessons were given in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter (see Appendix L). The author examined anecdotal remarks by conducting a contextual analysis which noted the kinds of language used, such as the positive and negative words, in order to compare the evaluations written during the middle of the quarter to the evaluations written at the end of the quarter (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Positive responses were ones which suggested something good or helpful; negative responses suggested something not good or not helpful; neutral responses suggested something was both good and bad or was stated in the form of advice.

Holistic Scoring Procedures

The overall procedures followed in this study will now be discussed. First, this study involved the author and two other English teachers from the author's department in two evaluation sessions on the writing pretests and posttests. In the first evaluation session ten benchmark tests were randomly pulled out from the pretest stack and duplicated for each of the other two department readers. The three teachers holistically scored them (Archbald & Newmann, 1988), and the scores were compared and discussed. Then the teachers reached consensus on each of the benchmark papers. The remaining tests were divided evenly into three stacks, and each of the pretests were read twice. The teachers holistically scored the pretests independently by recording the numbers next to the code numbers listed on a separate sheet of paper (see Appendix N). When the pretests were scored twice, two readers compared their scores. If there was a one point difference, the two readers reread the pretest and agreed on a score. If there was a two point difference

between the scores, the third reader read the pretest and assigned it a score. The pretest scores of the two classes were compared by the author to see if the students were in the same ability range.

During the second evaluation session ten benchmark tests again were randomly pulled out from the posttest stack and duplicated for each of the other two department readers. The three teachers holistically scored them (Archbald & Newmann, 1988), and the scores were compared and discussed. Once again the teachers reached consensus on each of the benchmark papers. Then the teachers holistically scored the remaining posttests independently by recording the number scores next to the code numbers listed on a separate sheet of paper (see Appendix N). The same process of reading each posttest twice and reaching consensus on a score was followed. The author listed the posttest scores of all three readers on one sheet (see Appendix O).

Next, the author separated and tabulated the posttest scores of the control class and the experimental class (see Appendix P). The writing posttest scores of the control class and the writing posttest scores of the experimental class were then compared by the author; the differences in the scores were measured to determine the impact of the experimental class methodology as opposed to the control class methodology.

In assessing the five attitudinal questions, the author of this study recorded anecdotal remarks written by the students during the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter. A contextual analysis was conducted to note the kinds of language used in terms of three categories: positive words, negative words, and neutral words. Then the author of this study compared the anecdotal remarks written by the students during the middle of the quarter to the anecdotal remarks written at the end of the quarter (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Since the intent of this study was to examine the impact of collaborative writing on the individual writer's attitude and skills, the following questions were examined by the

author: (1) Have attitudes toward writing changed? (2) How has the experimental group improved? (3) Has the experimental group improved more than the control group? (4) What worked in this study? (5) What did not work in this study? (6) If this study was to be replicated, what would be done differently?

Summary

By using the same attitudinal questions and the same written pretest and posttest, having both groups study the same literary genres, asking both groups the same discussion questions, having both groups work on the same writing lessons, and giving the same topic list and criteria list for the writing assignments in each unit of study, reliability is assured. The methodology used in the control class was teacher directed and involved individual writing lessons. In contrast, the methodology used in the experimental class involved modeling of group behavior and tasks, group work on specific writing skill lessons, feedback in terms of debriefing sessions after each of the group collaborative writing lessons, and written feedback on individual writing from other group members (see Appendix M). In other words, the experimental class spent time on the group learning process during the writing lessons, and the control class was not involved in group work during the writing skill lessons. Therefore, the two classes were not on the same time schedule. Since this study involved two new groups of students during the first quarter of the new block schedule at the high school, this variable made the endeavor an unique learning experience for both the students and the teacher.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results of Study

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine what happened to individual student writing skills and attitudes toward writing when students participated in collaborative writing activities. A pretest, six writing skill lessons, and a posttest were presented to a control class of high school sophomore students in Literature-Writing 10A and to an experimental class of high school sophomore students in Literature-Writing 10A. The only different variable between the two classes was in the writing process when peer collaboration was practiced in the experimental class in order to assess the impact of peer collaboration on individual writing skills of students. An attitudinal survey was administered to both classes in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter to assess the thoughts and feelings of students toward the content and process used in the classroom.

The results and findings of this study in terms of the written pretests and posttests, the writing skill lessons, and the attitudinal surveys will now be analyzed for both the control class and the experimental class in Literature-Writing 10A.

Control Class

This class, Literature-Writing 10A, met second block in the morning and consisted of 18 boys and 9 girls. One student was in the gifted program, one Asian student had English as a second language, one student needed to feel in control of the class, one student was a teacher-pleaser, and three students performed at a high academic level. The other 20 students ranged from talkative and likable students who needed personal and positive feedback from the teacher daily to several students who refused to take notes and were inattentive. In other words, the students were physically active and verbal.

Basically, all types of ability levels were represented in this class; however, approximately nine students performed at an academically below-average level on their class assignments.

<u>Written Assessment</u>

A written pretest was administered to this control class at the beginning of the quarter and at the end of the quarter in order to assess individual writing skills in terms of ideas, organization, supporting material, transitions, sentence structure, and punctuation. The author of this study and two other English teachers holistically scored the pretests (see Appendix C). The scores ranged from 4 (the highest) to 1 (the lowest). Table 1 shows the results of the control class pretest scores.

Table 1: Control Class Pretest Scores

Score	Students Who Achieved This Score
4	0
3	3
2	14
1	10

<u>Writing Skill Lessons</u>

During the next six weeks one writing skill lesson per week was introduced, practiced, and applied to a specific literary selection currently being studied in class. All the writing skill lessons followed the same format; therefore, only lesson two on the comma will be specifically discussed. The specific writing skill process lessons used in the control class were outlined in twelve steps in chapter three. The teacher instruction on the use of the comma in writing consisted of a concept attainment lesson in which sample

sentences were written on a transparency and put on the overhead for the students to view. After two sample sentences were reviewed on the overhead, students were asked to write sentences of their own which would match the pattern of the two sentences modeled by the teacher. Then the teacher asked for a volunteer student to write his or her sentence on the chalkboard. Next, the teacher asked the class what common sense rules could be written to explain how to use this first type of comma. After several rules were generated by the students, a handout on the textbook rules was given to the students. This process was followed for the four comma rules: series, main clause, parenthetical, and appositive. The students were instructed to practice the latter four types of commas in a one-page diary response by imagining they were John Proctor, from The Crucible by Arthur Miller, and record his thoughts and feelings based on Act I. As the students were writing this 15-minute response, the teacher scored the practice sentences written by the students by putting a pass or finish grade on the top of the paper. When the students completed the 15-minute response on John Proctor, the teacher modeled how to provide feedback to the writer. The students exchanged the one-page writing, read them, signed them, and put them in a basket on the front table. The teacher selected six at random to be read to the class. These writings were scored by the teacher with a 3 (excellent), 2 (satisfactory), or 1 (needs more work). When the drama The Crucible was completed in class, the students were assigned a one-page character sketch on a character of their choice, and they were to include specific requirements in the writing. One of the requirements was to include three out of the four commas in the writing. The teacher assigned a letter grade of A, B, C, D, or NG (incomplete process) to the finished product. The practice sentences and diary response took two class days, the character sketch was a homework assignment with three 15-minute writing sessions three days in a row with teacher assistance, and one 45-minute word processing session was scheduled in the computer lab.
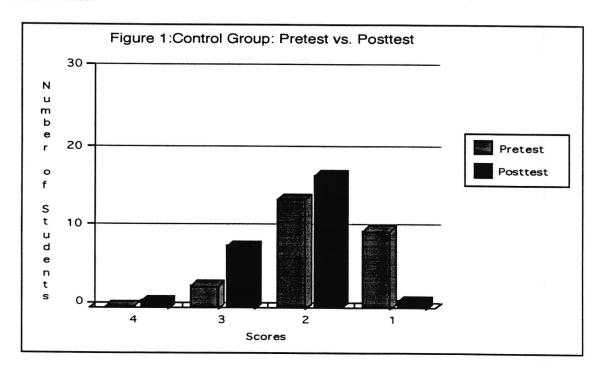
 At the end of the quarter, the same pretest question was administered to the control

class students as their written posttest. Once again the intent of the posttest was to assess individual writing skills in terms of ideas, organization, supporting material, transitions, sentence structure, and punctuation. The author of this study and two other English teachers holistically scored the posttest. The scores ranged from 4 (the highest) to 1 (the lowest). Table 2 shows the results of the control class posttest scores.

Table 2: Control Class Posttest Scores

Score	Students Who Achieved This Score
4	1
3	8
2	17
1	1

In summary, Figure 1 compares the pretest scores to the posttest scores in the control class.

Figure 1: Control Group: Pretest vs. Posttest

<u>Attitudinal Survey</u>

In the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter, students in the control class were administered an attitudinal survey. These survey questions were given to each student: (1) How do you feel about the content of the writing lessons? (2) How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons? (3) What have you learned from the lessons? (4) What has helped you in the lessons? (5) What has not helped you in the lessons?

After the students completed their written responses, the teacher tabulated all the positive responses, all the negative responses, and all the neutral responses. Positive responses were ones which suggested something good or helpful; negative responses suggested something not good or not helpful; neutral responses suggested something was both good and bad or was in the form of advice. The positive responses totaled 91. The three responses made most frequently were as follows: "covered topics just fine," "learned how to do evidence and punctuation," and "content helpful in writing lessons." The negative responses totaled 47. The three responses made most frequently were as follows: "long work assignments," "went too fast," and "noise." The neutral responses totaled 4. Three responses made by students were as follows: "ok," "do rules first," and "sometimes taught lesson I already know." The questions were worded to evoke both positive and negative responses (see Appendix L), and the number of positive responses were approximately double the negative responses.

Then the attitudinal survey was once again administered to the control class at the end of the quarter. After the students completed their written responses, the teacher tabulated all the positive responses, all the negative responses, and all the neutral responses. The positive responses totaled 88. The three positive responses made most frequently were as follows: "very good content," "learned about commas, semicolons, colons, and composition writing," and "writing given a better structure." The negative responses totaled 50. The three negative responses made most frequently were as follows:

"needs to be explained better," "go slower," and "everyone talking." The neutral responses totaled 7. Three responses made by students were as follows: "confusing, but effective," "first hard, then easier," and "not best, but ok." The positive responses decreased and the negative responses increased at the end of the quarter. This is realistic. Students tend to be more critical with the passage of time and the pressures at the end of the quarter.

Experimental Class

This class, Literature-Writing 10A, met block 4 at the end of the school day and consisted of 15 boys and 10 girls. On the first day of the class, an assertive student exclaimed, "I can't work except in groups!" One student had a hearing loss, one student was in special services with an attendance problem, three students were on behavior contracts with parents calling the teacher every two weeks for progress reports, one student received an award for exceptional classroom participation at the end of the quarter, four students performed at a high academic level, and one student was repeating the class. Of the remaining 14 students, five reported to class from a block 3 physical education class, and they continued to be physically aggressive in the classroom. The other 9 students performed at an academically average or below-average level on their class assingments. In other words, this class was a diverse mix of challenging students.

Written Assessment

A written pretest was administered to this experimental class at the beginning of the quarter and at the end of the quarter in order to assess individual writing skills in terms of ideas, organization, supporting material, transitions, sentence structure, and punctuation. The author of this study and two other English teachers holistically scored the pretests. The scores ranged from 4 (the highest) to 1 (the lowest). Table 3 shows the results of the experimental class pretest scores.

Table 3: Experimental Class Pretest Score

Score	Students Who Achieved This Score
4	0
3	8
2	10
1	6

Writing Skill Lessons

During the next six weeks one writing skill lesson per week was introduced, practiced, and applied to a specific literary selection currently being studied in class. All the writing skill lessons followed the same format; therefore, only lesson two on the comma will be specifically discussed. The specific writing skill process lessons used in the experimental class were outlined in twelve steps in chapter three. The teacher instruction on the use of the comma in writing consisted of a concept attainment lesson in which sample sentences were written on a transparency and put on the overhead for the students to view. After two sample sentences were discussed on the overhead, students were instructed to write sentences of their own which would match the pattern of the two sentences modeled by the teacher. Then the teacher asked for a volunteer student to write his or her sentence on the chalkboard. Next, the teacher asked the class what common sense rules could be written to explain how to use this first type of comma. After several rules were generated by the students, a handout on the textbook rules was given to the students. This process was followed for these four comma types: series, main clause, parenthetical, and appositive.

It was at this point in the lesson where the collaborative learning activity was introduced. A handout on the roles of group members was given to each student. The

roles of facilitator, recorder, supervisor, and speaker were explained (see Appendix J).

Then the teacher assigned a group activity with specific directions involving the names of

the group members, the time limit, the grading process, and the specific group writing

assignment. Once the group members put their desks together, they had the option to

select one of these topics for their group writing: homecoming, summer, Minnesota,

television, parents, school, or pollution. After the group roles had been decided, the

facilitators of each group picked up the assignment cards from the teacher and proceeded to

complete the group assignments. The instructions on the card were to write sentences

collaboratively relating to the selected topic which would illustrate each of the four comma

types. When the sentences were completed, the supervisor was to show the completed

sentences to the teacher for a pass or finish grade. When the group received the acceptable

pass grade, the next step was to write one group paragraph on the topic incorporating a

topic sentence, the four types of commas, and a clincher sentence. After the paragraph

writing was completed, the speaker of each group read the paragraphs aloud to the rest of

the class. This part of the lesson seemed to be an enjoyable one, for the class listened

attentively to the oral readings by the student speakers.

Immediately following the group readings, a debriefing session on the group work

was facilitated by the teacher. The students gave feedback to the teacher on these three

questions: (1) What worked well in your group today? (2) What could your group work

on for the next writing session? (3) What else would you like to comment on today

regarding the process? The responses to question one were generally about how the group

focused on the assignment; the responses to question two generally stressed the need to

have everyone involved in the group task; the responses to question three were how the

groups worked well together, but needed more time.

The next day of class the experimental class was given the same assignment as the

control class on the drama The Crucible. They were instructed to practice individually the

four comma types in a-one page diary response by imagining they were John Proctor and writing his thoughts and feelings based on Act I. As the students were writing this 15-minute response, the teacher scored the group paragraphs with a pass or finish. After the 15-minute limit passed, the teacher modeled how to provide feedback to the writer. The students were then instructed to get into their assigned groups from the previous day, rotate the roles, and select one writing from the group to be read by the speaker to the rest of the class. All the writings from all of the students were then given to the teacher to be scored with a 3 (excellent), 2 (satisfactory), or 1 (needs more work). When the oral reading of the drama The Crucible was completed in class, the students were individually assigned a one-page character sketch on a character of their choice, and they were to include specific requirements along with three out of the four comma types. The day before the final copy was to be typed in the computer lab, the groups worked together and used the assignment sheet as a checklist to see if all the requirements were included correctly in the drafts. The students were then instructed to revise their drafts according to the proofreading suggestions of the group.

The practice sentences, group work, debriefing session, and diary response took three class days. The character sketch was homework with one 45-minute proofreading session; one 45-minute word process session was scheduled in the computer lab the day after the group proofreading session. Once again the entire process of learning how to incorporate the comma correctly into writing assignments and practicing group social skills involved more time than anticipated. It took the experimental class an extra 90-minute class block of time to cover the material as compared to the time used by the control class.
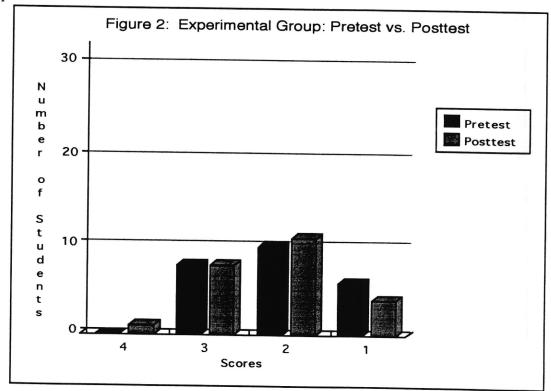
At the end of the quarter, a written posttest question (the same question as the pretest) was administered to the experimental class. The intent of the posttest once again was to assess individual writing skills in terms of ideas, organization, supporting material,

transitions, sentence structure, and punctuation. The author of this study and two other English teachers holistically scored the posttest. The scores ranged from 4 (the highest) to 1 (the lowest). Table 4 shows the results of the experimental class posttest.

Table 4: Experimental Class Posttest Scores

Score	Student Who Achieved This Score
4	1
3	8
2	11
1	4

In summary, figure 2 compares the pretest scores to the posttest scores in the experimental class.

Figure 2: Experimental Group: Pretest vs. Posttest

Attitudinal Survey

In the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter, students in the experimental class were administered an attitudinal survey. These survey questions were given to each student: (1) How do you feel about the content of the writing lessons? (2) How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons? (3) What have you learned from the lessons? (4) What has helped you in the lessons? (5) What has not helped you in the lessons?

After the students completed their written responses, the teacher tabulated all the positive responses, all the negative responses, and all the neutral responses. The positive responses totaled 91. The three positive responses made most frequently were as follows: "correctly use semicolons and commas," "use of examples helpful," and "learned alot." The negative responses totaled 30. The three negative responses made most frequently were as follows: "too long to do," "writing sentences on board did not help," and "people talking." The neutral responses total 5. Three neutral responses made by students were as follows: "go over it more than once," "wasted time, but helped me," and "writing lessons might be helpful to others, but I don't like them." The questions were worded to evoke both positive and negative responses (see Appendix L), and the number of positive responses was triple the negative responses.

Then the attitudinal survey was once again administered to the experimental class at the end of the quarter. After the students completed their written responses, the teacher tabulated all the positive responses, all the negative responses, and all the neutral responses. The positive responses totaled 84. The positive responses made most frequently were as follows: "types of commas, colons, sentences improved," "group work helped," and "good process." The negative responses total 48. The three negative responses made most frequently were as follows: "too fast," "too long," and "homework

frustrating for I am busy." The neutral responses totaled 1. The neutral response made by one student was as follows: "have no answer on what did not help." The positive responses decreased and the negative responses increased at the end of the quarter. This is realistic. Students tend to be more critical with the passage of time and the pressures at the end of the quarter.

Comparisons of Written Pretest and Posttest Assessments

Pretests and posttests were administered to the two classes. Four logical comparisons were made. Tables 5 and 6 compare one class to the other on each of the tests. Tables 7 and 8 compare the pretest to the posttest results within each class.

Table 5: Comparison of Pretest Scores in Control and Experimental Class

Class	Mean $\overline{x}$	Variance s^2	Count n	Unpaired t-value	p
Control	1.808	.482	26		
				1.120	.2117
Experimental	2.043	.589	23		

A t-value of 1.120 for this size group shows no significant difference between the pretest scores of the two classes. The students in the two classes were at the same performance level in their writing skills as assessed by the pretest.

Table 6: Comparison of Posttest Scores in Control and Experimental Class

Class	Mean $\overline{x}$	Variance s^2	Count n	Unpaired t-value	p
Control	2.423	.334	26		
				.705	.4844
Experimental	2.217	.632	23		

A t-value of .705 for this size group shows no significant difference between the posttest scores of the two classes. The students in the two classes were at approximately the same level of performance in their writing skills as revealed by the posttest assessment.

Table 7: Comparison of Pretests and Posttests in Control Class

Test	Mean $\overline{x}$	Variance s^2	Count n	Unpaired t-value	p
Pretest	1.808	.482	26		
				4.924	.0001
Posttest	2.423	.334	26		

A t-value of 4.924 for a group of 26 does indicate a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores for the control class. The students in the control class performed at a higher level in the posttest assessment than in the pretest assessment.

Table 8: Comparison of Pretests and Posttests in Experimental Class

Test	Mean $\bar{x}$	Variance s^2	Count n	Unpaired t-value	p
Pretest	2.043	.589	23		
				1.447	.1619
Posttest	2.217	.632	23		

A t-value of 1.447 for a group of 23 shows no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores for the experimental class. The mean score reveals an overall improvement in the posttest assessment. However, the experimental class did not have a significant level of improvement in the posttest assessment.

Tables 5, 6, and 8 reveal no significant difference. However, Table 7 does show a significant difference in comparing the pretest and the posttest scores of the control class.

Results and Conclusions

As the author compares the control class to the experimental class, the pretest scores and the posttest scores were not significantly different. The t-test revealed no statistically significant difference between the experimental class pretest and posttest scores. It can be concluded the intervention was not effective in improving writing scores. Moreover, the teacher instruction in both classes had a more positive impact than a negative impact based on the anecdotal responses in the attitudinal surveys. In other words, the attitudinal survey results revealed no significant differences between the experimental class and the control class. Most importantly, the writing performances in both classes were basically the same.

In conclusion, what was learned from the written assessment scores and the attitudinal survey responses was as follows: (1) collaborative work involved modeling and practicing of social skills which required a longer time to learn specific writing skills, (2) the curriculum restraints of teaching a variety of literary selections affected writing progress, (3) the time of day affected productivity and attitudes, and (4) the student population in the classroom affected the attitudes of students. In other words, the variables identified above constituted a challenge for both the teacher and the students.

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary and Conclusions

Summary

Introduction

This study focused on the impact of collaborative writing activities on individual attitudes and writing skills. The main question addressed was this: Is peer collaboration in writing an effective process for improving specific individual writing skills? The subquestions were as follows: (1) What combination of factors best ensures that high school students will improve in their writing skills? (2) Is there a difference in writing quality when students collaborate as opposed to individual writing? (3) How have the attitudes of students been affected by the collaborative writing process? The response to these questions are addressed in the following sections.

Peer Collaboration as a Process

Peer collaboration in writing is an effective process for improving specific individual writing skills. However, it is just one process among many for helping students improve in their writing skills. Direct teacher instruction, partner work, and peer collaboration in small groups add variety to skill writing lessons: therefore, all three strategies are beneficial to the students. Moreover, since peer collaboration involves learning specific roles (facilitator, encourager, recorder, and speaker), time needs to be set aside to model and practice these roles. In order to devote an adequate amount of time to learn these collaborative skills, the amount of literature studied needs to be decreased. It simply is not possible to devote the same amount of time to literature and to writing if collaborative skills need to be addressed. In other words, more time spent on the writing process and less time spent on literature would increase the likelihood of greater student gains in the written posttests. If the students were allowed a longer time to work on the

specific writing skills, they would not be as frustrated. Hopefully, this would translate into more positive attitudes toward the writing process. It takes time for specific writing skills to be satisfactorily learned, and it takes more time than one quarter to build trusting relationships among the students and with the teacher. Therefore, when peer collaboration is used in the classroom, a semester or year long course would definitely be beneficial to both the students and the teacher.

Effect of Process on Skill Development

The intent of this study was to examine the impact of collaborative writing on the individual writer's skills and attitudes. The impact of the collaborative writing skill lessons on the quality of writing in the experimental class as revealed in the posttest scores was not significantly different from the quality of writing as revealed in the posttest scores of the control class ($t = 0.705$, $p > 0.4844$). What was significant was that the posttest scores revealed overall improvement in writing skills by most of the students. However, not evident were the challenges confronting the teacher. Not only did the teacher need training in writing effective collaborative lessons and in defining the group roles, but also the teacher needed to monitor the progress of each group and address all the concerns of each individual within the various groups. In other words, a great deal of time and energy was spent by the author during the first half of the quarter in introducing collaborative roles and writing lessons to students in the experimental class. Nevertheless, the experimental class was able to achieve approximately the same posttest scores as the control class. Therefore, the weekly skill lessons and practice of the skill learned previously did benefit almost all the students in both the experimental and the control class. The posttest scores revealed most students in the experimental class improved in their assessment score. Collaboration did not produce lower scores. In other words, the collaborative process did not have a significant impact on the development of specific writing skills of the students.

Effect of Process on Attitudes

Now let us turn to the question of differences dealing with the impact of the collaborative writing process on the individual attitudes of students in the experimental class as opposed to the individual attitudes of students who were in the control class. During the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter, students in both classes were asked to evaluate the writing process used in their class. The five questions asked in the attitudinal survey were as follows: (1) How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons? (2) How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons? (3) What have you learned from the lessons? (4) What has helped you in the lessons? (5) What has not helped you in the lessons? The answers to these questions were organized into categories of positive words, negative words, and neutral words. As the data was analyzed it was evident that once again the differences were not significant. More positive responses were given than negative responses in both classes, the number of negative responses were approximately the same in both classes, and the neutral responses were few in both classes.

However, what was not measured was the variable in the experimental class dealing with the amount of time needed to learn how to work cooperatively in small groups and the problems that arose when students needed to practice unfamiliar group roles. Moreover, the particular classroom climate varied according to makeup of the particular students, the time and mood of the particular day, and the relationship the teacher had with individual students within the classroom. For example, the control class in the morning had two students who were a distraction to others, and the experimental class in the afternoon had six students who were a distraction to others. These variables did have an impact on the attitudes students had toward the class, and it affected how they responded to the questions. Many of the answers to the attitudinal survey questions were in the affective

realm and not the cognitive realm. In spite of these variables, the experimental class responded in a similar manner as the control class in the attitudinal survey.

In summary, the number of positive and negative remarks concerning the writing process in the experimental class has helped the author to realize that group work is a complex endeavor which involves a building of trust among students and a commitment by the teacher to continue to develop meaningful group writing assignments. However, these two endeavors may not be fully accomplished in a nine week quarter.

Limitations

The limitations of this study can be found in a variety of factors which influenced the outcomes. These factors are in the areas of curriculum, the schedule of the school day, the teaching strategy of cooperative learning, and the composition of the classroom.

The sophomore curriculum for the 1994-1995 school year was different from the previous year. This was the first year sophomore students were offered a third component in the English curriculum. Not only were there an honors level and mainstream Literature-Writing 10A and Literature-Writing 10B level, but also American Studies was a choice offered to sophomores. This course incorporates both English and history and is a year long course. The significance of these three offerings to sophomores is the fact that a larger number of students of higher academic ability selected the honors classes and American Studies courses, and a larger number of students of average and below-average academic ability selected the Literature-Writing 10A and 10B courses. In other words, this is a tracked curriculum. Since the author also teaches American Studies, this is an observation one could find significant. In other words, fewer positive role models existed in the Literature-Writing 10A classes than in the American Studies class. Consequently, the students in the mainstream Literature-Writing 10A needed more individual attention and

exhibited more aggressive behavior than those students in American Studies. In summary, the composition of the classroom affected student behavior, and student behavior affected student achievement.

In addition to the curriculum offerings and the composition of the various classes, student behavior was also influenced by the schedule of the school day. The 1994-1995 school was the beginning of a new schedule. Block scheduling, with 90-minute classes instead of 50-minute classes, involved changes for both the students and the teacher. Fortunately, the author was able to prepare for the block scheduling by completing two courses in the summer on curriculum writing for the new schedule. However, the students did not have an opportunity to prepare for a longer length of time in the same classroom. Students became restless after 45 minutes, and many of them needed a break. It took some students almost the entire quarter to adjust to this new schedule, and it was a challenge for the author to prepare a variety of activities in the daily lesson plans. Not only was it necessary to prepare for two hours instead of one, but also it was imperative the author plan an activity for students to get up and move around. In other words, the new block schedule of 90-minute classes instead of 50-minute classes affected student behavior and performance.

The other factor which influenced student behavior was in the teaching strategy of cooperative learning. Although the benefits of cooperative learning have been cited in the literature review, the author learned that cooperative learning was just one strategy for learning writing skills. Some students had learning styles which resisted working with others. They preferred to work alone. However, collaboration involved social skills and flexibility. At the beginning of the collaborative group work, the author observed individuals working in the presence of others. In fact, the physical closeness of the group members was a deterrent for some of the group members. Building trust among the group members takes more than nine weeks. In order to build good working relationships

among students, it would have been helpful to work with these same students for a semester or year. As soon as the author began to notice improvement in group social skills and in individual writing skills and had developed a rapport with most of the students, the quarter ended. Just as it takes time for students to learn collaborative skills, so too does it take time to note progress and change in student achievement and attitude.

Conclusions

The goals of this study were to look at the potential of the collaborative process strategy and to assess the individual writer's attitude towards writing. The outcomes were examined in terms of these questions: (1) Have attitudes toward writing changed? (2) Has the experimental group improved more than the control group? (3) What worked in this study? (4) What did not work in this study? As the author examined the data in both the control and experimental classes, it was noted that in both classes students made more positive remarks than negative remarks. Growth in writing did occur for most of the students, and this had a positive effect on the students. In other words, the students appeared confident about their writing, and the posttest scores revealed they wrote better compositions. In fact, the posttest scores revealed most students improved in the areas of organization and sentence structure.

In comparing the control class to the experimental class, the author must first explain the familiarity she had in the teaching strategies used in both classes. The author taught what she normally had taught, but she had normally taught just some of these writing skills over a semester's time. Since the author now was concentrating on collecting data on the skills learned and the attitudes of the students over a period of nine weeks, she found it was an intensive schedule to teach one writing skill per week. Even though the classes were now 90 minutes instead of 50 minutes, it still took time for students to absorb new information. The author observed both classes had students

who found the overhead transparencies and the chalkboard work helpful. At the same time the author observed that many students in both classes found the writing skill lessons to be long or not enough time was allowed to complete the assignment. After comparing the pretest and posttest scores of the two classes, the author noted the experimental class performed about the same as the control class. Therefore, the collaborative process did not have a significant impact on specific writing skills of individual students.

In every reflection on a technique used in the classroom, the teacher needs to examine what worked and what did not work. What worked was the individual writings were based on the literary selections studied in class, and the students had many opportunities in both classes to discuss the literary selections in depth. Next, the students in the control class were given time to ask the author individual questions while students in the experimental class were given time to work in groups. As the author monitored the group work, it was observed that the average to below-average student benefited from the group writing skill lessons. In fact, it was during this group work time the author was able to give attention to just a few students at a time which helped students both academically and socially. Moreover, the pretests in both classes revealed it was beneficial to almost all the students to work on the various writing skills, and the scores of the posttest revealed most students improved in their writing skills. This, indeed, was an important finding of the study.

Several factors accounted for what did not work in this study. One problem for both students and the teacher involved group makeup work. Absent students were organized into groups, and they were required to do the group makeup assignment. In fact, many times the original group complained about the absent members not being there to help with the group writing assignment. Another problem the author observed was that the higher achieving students did not like the group work as much as the lower achieving students, for they told the author they gave more input into the assignments than some of

the other group members. More importantly, the number of boys in each class was greater than the number of girls. The control class had 18 boys and 9 girls; the experimental class had 15 boys and 10 girls. Generally speaking, the boys were more overt in their behavior, and the girls were somewhat passive. A final problem was that each class lacked assertive, positive role models. It was only at the end of the quarter that some of the more reserved, academic students began to positively assert themselves into a leadership role in the classroom.

In summary, the challenge in this study revolved around the importance of the teacher in working with students in groups in order to develop a sense of the class as a learning and writing community who worked collaboratively to accomplish a goal. A valuable lesson the author learned was that the gains of writers do not totally depend on the students working collaboratively in the classroom. However, since the author did witness some successful collaborative efforts in the experimental class, the author is motivated to continue working on student competency in writing and collaborative skills.

Recommendations and Implications

If this study were to be replicated, the author has a variety of suggestions for further research in the area of cooperative learning and the collaborative writing process. First of all, the study needs to be conducted over a semester and ideally over a full school year. Then more time could be devoted to the strategy of role playing which could be modeled and practiced several times throughout the study. In other words, it takes time and practice to develop social skills. At the same time, the writing skill lessons could be spaced further apart in order for the specific writing skill to be modeled, practiced, and applied without a time restriction. Secondly, studying fewer literary selections in the Literature 10A curriculum would allow more time to satisfactorily address specific writing skills and the collaborative process. Next, the incorporation of a peer coach willing to

work in the cognitive model would be an asset to the teacher in terms of giving support and feedback as to what was working and what could be changed. Classroom observations could occur in the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the quarter. Therefore, growth in specific areas could be observed and discussed. In fact, this study could be a professional goal of two teachers who are team teaching a class. The study could be revised to fit the needs of the team teaching situation. Next, the study could look at the gender differences, for the sophomore year is one in which many girls lack self-esteem. Last, but not least, the study could be undertaken with juniors and seniors to see if the maturity level affected the quality of the collaborative group process, the collaborative writing product, and the individual writing product.

This study reaffirmed the necessity of a sequential skill-building approach to writing which incorporates the collaborative group process as just one of the strategies to be used in a semester or year long course in the mainstream high school English classroom.

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September 12, 1994

Dear Parent:

As a teacher of your son or daughter at Chaska High School, I wish to inform you of a study I will be conducting in my two Literature-Writing 10A classes this quarter as partial fulfillment of my master's thesis at Augsburg College. The purpose of this study is to collect data on the students' attitudes toward writing, the effectiveness of the writing process, and the quality of the written products.

I have been teaching composition skills for twenty-five years and am continually working to improve my teaching strategies. This school year I am adding another dimension to the composition curriculum of my two sophomore courses by collecting data on the written pretests, the written posttests, and the writing skill lessons. Students will be asked to assess the effectiveness of the writing process in the middle of the quarter and at the end of the quarter.

Each student will participate in the writing process portion of the course curriculum; however, each student is not required to participate in the study. In other words, the student is free to withdraw from the study at any time during the quarter. Whether the student elects to participate in the study or not to participate in the study will not affect his or her grade or present relations with Chaska High School or Augsburg College.

The records of this study will be kept private. After I collect and analyze the data with the assistance of my thesis committee, a summary of the results of my study will be available upon request to interested students and district personnel. All research records will be stored at my residence where only I will have access to them.

I have the approval to conduct this study from the school principal, the district director of instructional services, and the Augsburg College Institutional Review Board (acceptance #94-02-1).

If you have any questions, you may contact me at 448-8620 (ext. 0637). My college advisor, Vicki Olson, can be reached at 330-1131. Please return the statements of consent included below to me by Friday, September 17.

I look forward to working with your son or daughter this quarter.

Sincerely,

Barbara B. Swenson
English Instructor
Chaska High School

I have read the letter. I **will** or **will not** (circle one) participate in this study.

Signature of Student:_____   Date:_____

I have read the letter. I **allow** or **do not allow** (circle one) my student to participate in this study.

Signature of parent or guardian:_____   Date:_____

Introduction: Literature-Writing 10A students will write two essays this quarter. The
               first essay is the pretest to be written at the beginning of the quarter, and
               the second is the posttest to be written at the end of the quarter.
               Consequently, the teacher and the students will have information about
               how well they write. These two essays will be part of the final grade for
               this course.

Directions: I want you to provide a sample of your best writing during the next two
             class periods. The first day should be used for planning, prewriting, and
             composing a rough draft. Write on every other line so you can make
             changes easily. Remember to proofread the draft. The second day the
             final draft should be typed on the word processor in the computer lab.

Posttest Writing Assignment: In a 3, 4, or 5 paragraph essay, answer this question:
                              What is your opinion of Chaska High School?

Planning Process: Cluster for ideas and think about specific details to illustrate your
                   thoughts, feelings, and experiences.

Scoring: Your final draft will be scored on how well you do the following:
          * organize your ideas (introduction, body, conclusion)
          * use a variety of supporting material (evidence)
          * use transitional expressions
          * vary sentence structure (types and beginnings)
          * use appropriate punctuation

Reminders:
          * Do all the writing and typing during class period.
          * Use any reference materials in the classroom if necessary.
          * Remember the paper should be as long as you need to make it in order to
            complete the assignment.
          * Ask only the teacher to clarify the instructions.

Daily Instructions:
          * Write your first and last name above the code number on this instruction
            sheet.
          * Write your code number on all sheets of paper used during written and typed
            pretest and postest.
          * Staple this instruction sheet on top of your final copy with the rough draft
            under it.

Adapted from Richfield High School English department assessment form, 1994.

Figure 2.1

Criteria for Holistic Writing Assessment

1—Highly flawed—Not competent
— Ideas poorly communicated

— Frequent usage errors (such as: agreement, pronoun misuse, tense)

— Incorrect or erratic use of capitalization, punctuation, and spelling conventions

— Sentence fragments and run-ons; few complete sentences

— No concept of paragraph construction
— No attempt at paragraph transitions
— No variety in the supporting material

2—Unacceptable—Not competent
— Poor organization of ideas

— Frequent usage errors (such as: agreement, pronoun misuse, tense)

— Inconsistent use of capitalization, punctuation, and spelling conventions

— Sentence fragments and run-ons; few complete sentences

— Poor topic sentence; flawed paragraph development
— Ineffective paragraph transitions
— Little variety in the supporting material

3—Minimally competent—Acceptable
— Ideas sufficiently organized and communicated

— Only occasional usage errors (such as: agreement, pronoun misuse, tense)

— Basically correct capitalization, punctuation, and spelling

— Minimal number of sentence errors (fragments or run-ons)

— Paragraphs have topic sentences, supporting ideas, closing sentences

— Some attempt at paragraph transition
— Some variety in the supporting material

4—Competent—Clear mastery
— Ideas clearly communicated and of a fairly mature quality

— No usage errors

— Correct capitalization, punctuation, and spelling

— No fragments or run-ons

— Paragraphs have topic sentences, supporting ideas, closing sentences, and are developed in a mature fashion

— Excellent vocabulary

— Effective paragraph transitions
— Effective variety in the supporting material

0—Represents a paper that is illegible or off the point.
   A non-response is also a 0 paper.

Source: Division of Curriculum and Instruction, Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, Milwaukee (Wis.) Public Schools.

Adapted from Assessing Authentic Academic Achievement in the Secondary School by D. Archbald and F. Newman, 1988. Treston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

SUPPORTING MATERIAL EXPLANATION

When a speaker develops or defends an idea by proving that it is true, we say that he is supporting it. The four ways that we can support an idea are with quotations, examples, definitions, and statistics.

Your supporting material (i.e. quotations, examples, definitions, statistics) is placed under the statement it is developing or defending. Supporting material makes up the substructure of your speech. You will remember that the term substructure refers to the major points in support and sub points in support of your main idea. Substructure is the building blocks of your speech. Your supporting material holds up (supports) your main ideas.

The four types of supporting material can also be used for: an attention opening in your introduction, a summary in your conclusion, and a clincher in your conclusion.

Supporting materials can be used in all three parts of your speech, (intro., body, concl.) but they have the heaviest load to carry when they hold up your main ideas. In the following pages you will find our explanations of the four types of supporting material we will be using.

A. QUOTATION

To quote someone is to repeat or copy their words. Audiences are attentive to and impressed by quotations because quotations tell how someone else feels about what you are talking about. As the old saying goes, "Two heads are better than one."

When you use a quotation you must tell who said it and where you got it from.

There are three different types of quotations; they are Expert Opinions, Ordinary Opinions, and Literary Quotations. The following is a detailed explanation of each.

1. EXPERT OPINION

Expert Opinion is something stated by an authority, one whose reputation and training lead others to accept his opinion on matters in his special field. This type of quotation gives your speech a higher form of audience acceptance because the quotation has been stated by some famous authority. One of the best places to find expert opinions is in magazines (consult the Reader's Guide by subject). Books are also a possibility. Some of the books in our library that you can use to find quotations are Hoyts, Oxford Dictionary of Quotations, Bartlett's Familiar Quotations, The Quotation Dictionary, Magill's Quotations, Home Book of Quotations, and the Dictionary of Quotable Definitions.

2. ORDINARY OPINION

Ordinary Opinion is something stated by a person without any special training, knowledge, or experience in the matter under consideration. This is when you quote a friend, relative, or man on the street. A foreign language teacher, for example, is speaking as an untrained observer when he reports on progress in the construction of the freeway that runs by his house. A housewife testifies to what she saw during a bank holdup. An atomic submarine builder tells people what he observed about Russian schools. All of these are examples of people who are not authorities on the subjects but who feel called upon to speak because they were in a unique or favorable position to observe. The person quoted for ordinary opinion doesn't need to have special training on the subject at hand, but he should know something about it. You should usually give his name along with what he said. Surveys are another form of ordinary opinion.

3. LITERARY QUOTATION

Literary Quotation is something stated in a novel, short story, song, poetry book, or play. Some literary quotations can also be found in books like Hoyts, The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations, Bartlett's Familiar Quotations, The Quotation Dictionary, Magill's Quotations, Home Book of Quotations, and the Dictionary of Quotable Definitions. You copy the part you need in order to achieve your purpose; then you put quotation marks around it and list the source. Even though you should try to be creative with all of your supporting material, the literary quotation lends itself to giving us a new way of looking at your subject. It will probably catch our attention and add quality to the way we view your subject. It may be just the touch you need to make your idea come alive.

B. EXAMPLE

An example is a case or instance that illustrates the point you are making. Examples can significantly aid the speaker in making his ideas clear. When the speaker says, "let me give you an example of what I mean," the attention of his audience is immediately increased. His listeners say to themselves, "now is my chance to really understand what he's talking about." Examples that are long enough to be complete and meaningful but short enough to raise, rather than lower, interest in the main idea are most effective. There are four different kinds of examples; they are hypothetical examples, personal observation, analogies, and comparison/contrast.

1. HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLES

Hypothetical Examples are "made up" cases or instances. They can help you clarify what you are talking about. They might be introduced by phrases like "Suppose...," "What if...," "Imagine if...,"

2. PERSONAL OBSERVATION EXAMPLES

Personal Observation Examples are cases or instances that come from real life experiences. Personal observation examples will not only help you clarify your main point, but will also help you prove it. They might be introduced by phrases like "Yesterday I saw...," "We all know that..."

3. ANALOGY

Analogies are comparisons between unlike examples. "Treat your children like trees that need light and sun and air" is an example of an analogy because children and trees are two things that are basically different from each other but they are being compared in the above instance.

4. COMPARISON/CONTRAST

You are using comparison/contrast example when you talk about the likeness and/or differences of two things that are essentially alike. To impress an audience with the size of Disney World in Florida, you might use the statistics: "Disney World has an area of over forty square miles." During a television tour of the park, however, a show business personality put the same idea this way: "Disney World is bigger than the island of Manhattan." This last statement made the statistics more meaningful. It is a comparison because Disney World and Manhattan are two things that are basically alike.

C. DEFINITION

A definition is a statement or explanation of what a word or phrase means. When you use a definition you should tell where you got it from (Expert Definition) or we will assume that you made it up yourself (Personal Observation Definition). Definitions help your audience understand what you are talking about. When we communicate with people we often mistakenly think that the audience knows the meanings of all the words that we use. A definition will help you and your audience to interpret the words you use in the same way. Define words right when they come up so that you and your audience can be on "common ground."

1. EXPERT DEFINITION

An Expert Definition is an explanation of the meaning of a word or phrase by someone who is an authority on the subject. When you use someone else's definition make sure that the words used in the definition aren't so technical that neither you nor your audience knows what you are talking about. This will cause more confusion than clarification. If you find some words that you don't know in the definition, look them up too.

Expert Definitions can be found in articles, books and dictionaries. Don't be satisfied with Webster's Dictionary for everything. Some other places you can find definitions in our library are Chamber's Biographical Dictionary, Medical Dictionary, Science Dictionary on the Animal World, Mathematics Dictionary or the Oxford Companion to Music, etc.

2. PERSONAL OBSERVATION DEFINITION

When you use a Personal Observation Definition you are describing something with your own words. Personal Observation Definitions give you a chance to clarify the meaning of a word in your own way, based on your personal experiences. Be as specific as possible in the words that you select for you definition or description.

There are two reasons that you might want to give your own definition or description of something. The first reason is that you might want to describe a word or term that not everyone is familiar with. You should describe any word or phrase that is uncommon like magneto, woofer, tweeter, fascist, etc.

The second way you might use a personal observation definition is by defining or describing a common word in a new or unusual way. In doing so you could give us fresh insight into common words like love, peace, fear, etc. If you choose to define a common word don't insult our intelligence; rather make us say "Oh yeah, I never thought about it like that before."

D. STATISTICS

Statistics are a way of supporting a statement with exact numbers or percentages. When someone says to you, "prove it," statistics are one of the most impressive ways to do so.

Statistics can be either numbers (example #1: "There were 50 people killed in the crash.") or percentages (example #2: "Only half of the people on the plane died in the crash."). Example #1 and example #2 are both statistics because each of them has numbers or percentages.

When you use statistics it is important that you are specific about where you got them or they will lose some of their impact. Sometimes it's also a good idea to tell the date on which the statistics were given. It's not always necessary to tell the date, but when the date is given it adds greatly to your speech. Statistics can be found in magazines (consult the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature), books (consult the six sets in the library), and almanacs (the library has over twenty at your disposal).

Comma Rules

1. Rule 21a: Use commas to separate words, phrases, and subordinate clauses
   written in series.

   WORDS IN SERIES
   Books, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers cluttered the teacher's desk.
   (nouns)
   We played, swam, ate, sang, and danced. (verbs)
   He was a short, fat, good-natured man. (adjective)

   PHRASES IN SERIES
   Examinations will be given at the beginning of the term, at midterm, and at the
   the end of the term.

   SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN SERIES
   He declared that the roof leaked, that the windows leaked, and that the
   plumbing leaked.

2. Rule 21c: Use a comma before <u>and, but, or, nor, for,</u> when they join main clauses.

   RIGHT
   In the morning the custodian cleans the walks in front of our apartment
   house, and his wife straightens up the lobby.
   There are few islands in the Eastern Pacific Ocean, but there are
   thousands of them in the Western Pacific Ocean.
   I had to wait a long time at the airport, for the weather did not clear until
   noon.
   I'll go and I will not return. (clauses too short to require commas)

3. Rule 21b (2): Words used in direct address are set off by commas.

   RIGHT
   Please give us a hand, <u>Frank.</u>
   Yes, <u>my friend,</u> you are probably right.
   <u>Mr. Chairman,</u> I rise to a point of order.

4. Rule 21b (3): Parenthetical expressions are set off by commas.

   These expressions are often used parenthetically: <u>I believe (think, suppose,
   hope,</u> etc.), <u>on the contrary, on the other hand, of course, in my opinion, for
   example, however, to tell the truth, nevertheless, in fact,</u>

   RIGHT
   You have, <u>on the other hand,</u> nothing to lose.
   The speech, <u>in my opinion,</u> was a failure.

   *NOTE: These expressions, of course, are not <u>always</u> used as interrupters.

   NOT USED AS AN INTERRUPTER
   You must try <u>to tell the truth.</u>

   USED AS AN INTERRUPTER
   He is, <u>to tell the truth,</u> dangerous.

NOT USED AS AN INTERRUPTER
     I think these are the best students.

USED AS AN INTERRUPTER
     These are, I think, the best students.

*NOTE: A contrasting expression introduced by not is parenthetical and must be
          set off by commas.

RIGHT
     It is character, not money, that makes the man.

5. Rule 21b (1): Appositives with their modifiers are set off by commas.

     An appositive is a word or group of words which follows a noun or pronoun and
     means the same thing. An appositive usually gives information about the noun
     or pronoun that precedes it.

EXAMPLES
     Bergen, the fullback, played a good defensive game.
     Mr. Salt, owner of the ranch, offered me his own horse.
     I sent Joe, the school's plumber,
          In these sentences fullback, owner, and plumber are appositives.

*NOTE: When you set off an appositive, you include with it all words which modify it.

EXAMPLES
     Mike Casells, the custodian at our school, is always good-natured.
     Arnold Wilcox, the boy I met at the convention, gave me some inside information

     Sometimes an appositive is so closely related to the word preceding it
     that it should not be set off by commas. Such an appositive is called a
     "restrictive appositive." It is usually a single word.

EXAMPLES
     My brother Bill
     The composer Beethoven
     Her old friend Betty

6. Use a comma in certain conventional situations such as AFTER A NAME followed
     by Jr., Sr., Ph. D. etc.

EXAMPLE
     John Smith, Jr., is my grandfather.

1. Rule 22a: Use a semicolon between main clauses not joined by <u>and, but, or, nor, for, yet.</u>

   RIGHT
   The taxpayers voted in favor of a new school building; a site for the structure will be chosen next week.

   In cold weather she spent her afternoons on the skating pond; on warmer days she went to the indoor rink.

   In this use the semicolon acts like a period, for each main clause is really a complete sentence. Where the thoughts of the clauses are very closely connected, as in the examples above, a semicolon is better than a period.

2. Rule 22b: Use a semicolon between main clauses joined by the words <u>besides, accordingly, moreover, nevertheless, furthermore, otherwise, therefore, however, consequently, also, thus, instead, hence.</u>
   *NOTE: When immediately preceded by a semicolon, these words may or may not be followed by a comma with the exception of <u>however</u>, which is always followed by a comma. In general, omit the comma unless you wish to indicate a pause after the connective.

   RIGHT
   I thought the book much too long; however, I decided to read it all.

3. Rule 22c: Use a semicolon between main clauses if there are commas within the clauses.

   RIGHT
   This car, a revolutionary model, was invented by one of our engineers; but the high cost of manufacture prohibits large-scale production, and public demand would be too small to justify it.
   Helen Burgess, the girl who is running for president of the senior class, has an excellent chance to win; and if she does win, she will be the first girl ever to achieve that position.

4. Rule 22d: Use a semicolon before <u>for example, namely, that is, for instance, in fact, on the contrary,</u> when they join main clauses.

   *NOTE: When preceded by a semicolon, these expressions are followed by comma.

   RIGHT
   He came to the meeting quite unprepared; that is, he had forgotten his notes.

Rule 23b: Use a colon before a list of appositives or a list of items, especially when the list
                 comes after expressions like as follows and the following.

   RIGHT

                 At our school we have all the spring sports: baseball, track, lacrosse, tennis, and
                 golf. (appositives)
                 Congress is considering several ways of raising money: a property tax, a sales tax,
                 and an increased income tax. (appositives)
                 In his pockets we found the following: a piece of string, a broken jackknife, six
                 marbles, and several small sticks of wood.
                 The five largest cities of the United States are rated in size as follows: New York,
                 Chicago, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, and Detroit.

   *NOTE   Do not use a colon in a sentence like the following, in which there is no pause
                 before the series.
   RIGHT

                 I went swimming with Henry, Sam, and Walter.

Rule 23h (1):   Use italics (underlining) for the titles of books, works of art (Pictures,
                 musical compositions, statues, ect.), names of newspapers, magazines and ships.

EXAMPLES

                 The Adventures of Tom Sawyer
                 the Boston Herald or the Boston Herald
                 the American Boy
                 the Queen Mary
   *NOTE: When written in a composition, the words a, an, and the before a magazine or
                 a newspaper title are not italicized.

EXAMPLES

                 I was looking at a cartoon in the New Yorker.
                 He is a reporter for the Herald Tribune

ITALICS AND QUOTATION MARKS

        In general, the use of quotation marks for titles is going out of practice; the tendency is toward italics.
        Magazine articles, chapter heading, and titles of poems, when referred to in the course of a
        composition, may be placed in quotation marks. (Titles of book-length poems, of course, are treated
        like book titles.) All other titles (books, works of art, magazines, newspapers, ships) are
        italicized (underlined)

EXAMPLE
        I studied Chapter IV, "Tom Comes Home," in George Eliot's novel The Mill on the Floss: and I read an
        article in the Cosmopolitan entitled "They are a Funny Race."

Rule 23h(2)   Use italics (underlining) for foreign words, words referred to as words, and letters referred to as letters.

EXAMPLES
        . Picking your teeth at the table is not comme il faut.
          There are four and's in this sentence.
          Dot the i's and cross the t's.

Topic Sentence: The room is a rectangle.

details: 1. longer than wide
                  2. four sides
                  3. corners are right angles

        You can see from this that the room fits the requirements of a rectangle. Use a simple sentence in making one detail into a sentence. Use a compound sentence for another enlargement of detail. Use a complex sentence for the other detail enlargement.

1. A <u>simple sentence</u> has one subject and one verb or double subjects and single verb. It may have single subject and double verb, but it has only one-subject verb pair as an independent thought.

        Example: The <u>room is</u> a rectangle.

        Simple sentences of three and four words are those of early grade school reading level. Freshman reading level simple sentences contain many modifiers. Example: adverbs tell <u>how, when, where, to what extent</u> about the verb. The room is <u>uniquely</u> a rectangle, What question about the verb is answered? The room <u>in this corner of the building</u> is a rectangle. These are prepositional phrases used adverbially.
<u>Now</u> we judge this room to be a rectangle.   What question is answered?

2. A <u>compound sentence</u> is basically two simple sentences joined by <u>and, but, or, for,</u> or <u>nor.</u>

        Example: The room is a rectangle, <u>and</u> it fits the requirements of a rectangle.

* When these main conjunctions join two independent clauses, a <u>comma</u> is used before the main conjunctions. <u>And</u> connects equal ideas. <u>But</u> means a reversal thought in the second clause. We planned a hockey game, but the blizzard canceled it. <u>Or</u> signals a choice. <u>For</u> is an explanation after its use. <u>Nor</u> is a negative going with <u>neither.</u>

3. The <u>complex sentence</u> uses an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

        Example: Since the room is a rectangle, the length and width are unequal.

* Notice the comma comes at the end of the dependent clause when it is used in the beginning. But: The length and width are equal since it is a rectangle. No comma is necessary when the independent clause comes first. The comma in the first case is to signal the listener that the main clause is coming, thus a pause needed for clarity.

4. A <u>compound-complex</u> sentence contains two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses.

        Example: The book that I read was written by Kenneth Roberts, and I enjoyed it. (two main clauses and one subordinate clause)

From <u>English Grammar and Composition</u> by J. Warriner and F. Griffith, 1963. Chicago, Illinois: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

I. Sentence Variety

    A. Vary the beginnings of your sentence

        1. You may begin a sentence <u>with a single-word modifier</u>-an adverb, an adjective, or a participle.

           a. Suddenly the room seemed to lift for a moment; then it settled back into an ominous silence. (adverb)

           b. Cold and hungry, the survivors were brought into town. (adjective)

           c. Screaming, the frantic child beat her fists against the door. (present participle)

           d. Disgusted, the teacher refused to continue the lesson. (past participle)

        2. You may begin a sentence with a <u>phrase</u>: a prepositional phrase, a participial phrase, or an infinitive phrase.

           a. At the end of the game, the crowds swarmed across the playing field. (prepositional phrases)

           b. Having taken my position behind the wheel, I was ready for my first driving lesson. (participial phrase)

           c. Angered by the repeated insults, Draper clenched his fists and stepped forward. (participial phrase)

           d. To avoid the rough detour, they chose a different highway. (infinitive phrase)

        3. You may begin a sentence with a <u>subordinate clause</u>.

           a. After we had been gone half the day, our absence was discovered.

           b. When we planned the party in December, our idea was to have a dinner dance.

Paper Form - 5 paragraphs

I.   Introduction
    A. Introductory remarks - 2 sentences
    B. Thesis statement - theme
    C. Transitional sentence - title of novel and author

II.   Supporting Paragraph
    A. Topic sentence
    B. Evidence
    C. Clincher sentence

III.   Supporting Paragraph
    A. Topic sentence
    B. Evidence
    C. Clincher sentence

IV.   Supporting Paragraph
    A. Topice sentence
    B. Evidence
    C. Clincher sentence

V.   Conclusion
    A. Summary - 2 sentences
    B. Thesis statement - theme
    C. Clever end remark

COMPOSITION/WRITING

I. **Paragraph**

    A. Types
        1. Fact
        2. Value
        3. Definition
        4. Policy

    B. Structure
        1. Topic Sentence
        2. Evidence
        3. Clincher Sentence

II. **Paper**
    A. Types
        1. Fact
        2. Value
        3. Definition
        4. Value

    B. Structure
        1. Introduction
        2. Evidence
        3. Conclusion

III. **Kinds of Evidence**

    A. Example
        1. Fact
        2. Hypothetical
        3. Analogy
        4. Comparison/Contrast
        5. Personal Observation

    B. Statistics
        1. Source (title & Author)
        2. Date of Publication

    C. Testimony

    D. Quotation
        1. Expert Opinion
        2. Ordinary Opinion
        3. Literary Opinion

    E. Explanation

    F. Definition
        1. Expert Definition
        2. Personal Observation

IV. <u>Types of Introduction</u>
   A. Quotation
   B. Reference to Current Events
   C. Historical Reference
   D. Anecdote
   E. Startling Statement
   F. Question
   G. Personal Reference

V. <u>Introduction (Paragraph)</u>
   A. Introductary Remark
   B. Thesis
   C. Transitional Sentence

VI. <u>Conclusion (Paragraph)</u>
   A. Summarize Evidence
   B. Repeat or Restate Thesis
   C. Clever end remarks

VII. <u>Transitional Expressions</u> - use to move from sentence to sentence.

   A. Single Words

1.	First	11.	Meanwhile
2.	Secondly	12.	Moreover
3.	Third	13.	Thus
4.	Next	14.	Also
5.	Finally	15.	Then
6.	Conversely	16.	Besides
7.	Similarly	17.	Therefore
8.	Accordingly	18.	However
9.	Namely	19.	Furthermore
10.	Incidentally		

   B. Word Groups - use to move from paragraph to paragraph

1.	At first	10.	Another reason
2.	At last	11.	To begin with
3.	To repeat	12.	In addition
4.	In effect	13.	On the contrary
5.	Even so	14.	For example
6.	As a result	15.	Now let us turn to
7.	That is	16.	In spite of this
8.	In summary	17.	In other words
9.	In conclusion		

VIII. <u>Finding Evidence and Information</u>
   A. <u>Readers Guide to Periodical Literature</u> (magazines)
   B. Encyclopedia
   C. Biographical references
   D. Atlases
   E. Almanac
   F. Literary reference books
   G. Newspaper

Roles of Group Members

For each group session these four roles will be monitored by the teacher:

Facilitator
* gets material the group needs
* makes sure that the group understands the goal
* encourages each member to participate

Recorder
* writes down group discussion points
* gets each member to proofread and sign the writing
* revises and edits the writing
* makes sure each member has the necessary notes

Supervisor
* reminds group of time left for activity at regular intervals
* keeps each member on task
* maintains cooperation within the teacher

Speaker
* reads materials orally to the group
* summarizes discussion highlights during the group process
* summarizes discussion highlights to the whole class
* hands the group writing in to the teacher

These roles should be rotated among members of the group for each different group session.

Name: _____
Hour: _____

Group Work

1. What did you do for your group?

2. What did you learn?

3. Rank yourself: _____

4. Rank group members:
   Name: _____   Rank: _____
   Name: _____   Rank: _____
   Name: _____   Rank: _____

5. Rank quality of work: _____

Attitudinal Questions

Code number:
Class:
Date:

1. How do you feel about the content of the writing lessons?

2. How do you feel about the process of the writing lessons?

3. What have you learned from the lessons?

4. What has helped you in the lessons?

5. What has not helped you in the lessons?

[suitable for photocopying]
[195]

TO_____
(name of author)

RESPONSE OR FEEDBACK

A. <u>Appreciation</u>:

What I liked most about your piece of writing was . . .

B. <u>Sayback</u>:

As far as I could tell, the gist of your writing or the <u>MAIN POINT</u> you seemed to be making was this:

Is that what you were trying to tell me?

C. <u>Askback</u>:

<u>But not everything was quite clear to me.</u>

For instance, could you explain . . . .

Finally, I would enjoy your writing more or understand it more easily if you <u>added</u> some details or EXAMPLES of . . . .

Please let me know if any of my comments were helpful.

signed_____
(name of reader)

Step 1: Individual Score Sheet
Reader:
Date: _____
Time: _____
Pretest Code Number   Score

Pretest Code Number	Score
00100	
00101	
00102	
00103	
00104	
00105	
00106	
00107	
00108	
00109	
00110	
00111	
00112	
00113	
00114	
00115	
00116	
00117	
00118	
00119	
00120	
00121	
00122	
00123	
00124	
00125	
00126	
00127	
00128	
00129	
00130	
00131	
00132	
00133	
00134	

Note: Posttest sheet is the same.

Pretest Code Number	Score
00135	
00136	
00137	
00138	
00139	
00140	
00141	
00142	
00143	
00144	
00145	
00146	
00147	
00148	
00149	
00150	
00151	
00152	
00153	
00154	

Step 2: Final Scores of Pretests of Three Readers
Readers: _____
Date: _____
Time: _____

Code Number	Reader A Score	Reader B Score	Reader C Score	Final Score
00100				
00101				
00102				
00103				
00104				
00105				
00106				
00107				
00108				
00109				
00110				
00111				
00112				
00113				
00114				
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00131				
00132				
00133				
00134				
00135				
00136				
00137				
00138				
00139				
00140				
00141				
00142				
00143				

Note: Posttest sheet is the same.

Code Number	Reader A Score	Reader B Score	Reader C Score	Final Score
00144				
00145				
00146				
00147				
00148				
00149				
00150				
00151				
00152				
00153				
00154				

Step 3: Comparison of Block 2 Scores and Block 4 Scores

Readers: _____

Date: _____

Time: _____

Block Two		Block Four	
Code Number	Score	Code Number	Score
00127		00100	
00128		00101	
00129		00102	
00130		00103	
00131		00104	
00132		00105	
00133		00106	
00134		00107	
00135		00108	
00136		00109	
00137		00110	
00138		00111	
00139		00112	
00140		00113	
00141		00114	
00142		00115	
00143		00116	
00144		00117	
00145		00118	
00146		00119	
00147		00120	
00148		00121	
00149		00122	
00150		00123	
00151		00124	
00152		00125	
00153		00126	
00154			