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Taking Control of the Writing Process: Student Self-Regulation in the Writing Classroom

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*A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
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ABSTRACT

Self-regulation is considered to have a positive effect on student progress and achievement, effort, motivation and self-efficacy (2000a; 2011). However, while its place in successful learning is alluded to in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007), minimal research exists in regard to New Zealand students' views about the importance of self-regulation for their learning. The aim of this study was to examine Year 6 students' understandings and experiences of self-regulation within the context of the writing classroom.

An interpretive qualitative case study approach was used to examine how two teachers implemented a range of self-regulatory strategies into the writing classroom and how the students responded to these strategies. Data were generated through the use of semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and document analysis. The use of Zimmerman's (2000a) model of self-regulation underpinned the study and informed both data collection and analyses.

Findings indicated that although teachers promoted the use of a number of strategies associated with self-regulation, and also spent time building students' self-efficacy and outcome expectations in regard to writing a persuasive text, the implementation of particular strategies proved problematic. In turn, while students displayed a willingness to produce a persuasive text, the quality of their experiences compromised their ability to self-regulate in a deep manner. Specifically, a lack of comprehensive evaluative and productive knowledge and expertise hindered students' ability to revise and redraft substantive aspects of their writing in an ongoing, iterative and holistic manner.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“I think all good writing should have a meaningful thing behind it, even if it’s sort of hidden behind [and] you have to read between the lines to get it. It makes, in my opinion, the most effective pieces of writing.”

Sophia (Student Interview 4, p.12)

“I guess you’re going to go nowhere if you just sit and you don’t do anything. You’re going to go nowhere. So I guess if you want to get somewhere with your learning, just carry on.”

Lily (Student Interview 3, p.3)

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The intention of this chapter is to introduce the rationale of this study and place it within a research context. This chapter outlines the researcher's interest and motivation for exploring self-regulation within the context of writing. A brief description of each chapter is included.

Research Context

Equipping students with the knowledge, dispositions and strategies to learn, problem solve, be innovative, and responsive to challenges and change is considered an important goal for modern education, particularly in times of rapid technological, employment and economic change (Hampson, Patton, & Shanks, 2014; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005). The skills, knowledge and dispositions required to manage and adapt to these changes has been described as lifelong learning (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005) and is a key ideal of New Zealand's education system as outlined in the 'The New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium Teaching and Learning in Year 1-13' (NZC) (Ministry of Education, 2007). Within the current research and literature, these strategies, dispositions and skills embody and underpin the concept of self-regulation (Bandura, 1991; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2002). Researchers consider the development of self-regulation in learners important as it is linked to success in schooling, student engagement and is a process that leads to life-long learning (Bandura, 1991; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 1990; 2002).

Self-regulation describes a self-generated awareness and control that a person exerts over his/her thoughts, feelings and actions with a view to achieving a particular goal. Self-regulating learners are autonomous, exerting ownership over their learning. They utilise a range of strategies and behaviours to direct and influence their learning pathways, environment and resources (both human and physical) as they acquire expertise, knowledge and skills (Bandura, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2002). Explicit teaching embedded in authentic learning activities can help students develop and habituate the strategies and skills associated with self-regulation (Darr, 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 1989b; 1990).

The Researcher's interest in Self-regulation

The idea for this research grew from the researcher's interest in and responsibility for student learning and achievement. As a school leader, it has been my responsibility to promote effective teacher pedagogy, use of assessment information and the development of a responsive, student-driven curriculum in order to engage students in learning, accelerate progress and improve their achievement. Through the introduction of Assessment for learning practices (Absolum, 2006; Black & William, 1998) and Mathematics Problem solving approach (Hunter, 2010; 2012), I noticed increased student engagement and decision-making regarding their learning in reading and mathematics. This included

setting goals, peer feedback and making thoughtful choices regarding how to complete given tasks. Many of the strategies promoted by these pedagogies, such as self and peer assessment, reflection, and goal setting, also underpin the ideals of student autonomy and self-regulation. These practices, coupled with improved teacher pedagogical content knowledge, subsequently led to improved student progress, engagement and achievement in reading and mathematics. However, student progress, engagement and achievement in writing remained an area of challenge at my school, piquing my interest to inquire further into the use and effectiveness of self-regulation to create a change in this area.

In summary, the literature on self-regulation highlights the positive impact self-regulation has on student learning, agency, self-efficacy and motivation through the use of strategies such as goal setting, task planning, self-monitoring, feedback and reflection. Accordingly, the purpose of the current study was to examine Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom.

Aims of the current study

The current study aimed to investigate how self-regulation was developed in a writing context, identifying which strategies were promoted by the class teacher. Particular attention was paid to how a group of Year 6 students responded to this teaching and subsequently self-regulated when writing. Students' differing experiences and understandings of self-regulation in writing and the impact this had on their learning formed the core of this research. As such, this study and its findings addressed gaps in the New Zealand and international research regarding self-regulation in writing and, more importantly, the student perspective and experiences of self-regulation. The knowledge and evidence gained from this study will contribute to dialogue and discussion amongst interested researchers, teachers and those involved in education.

Specifically, the aim of this study was to examine Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom. The following research questions were addressed:

- What aspects of self-regulation [strategies] do teachers of Years 6 students intentionally promote in their writing programmes? How do they do this?
- How do students respond to these strategies?
- What differences are there in students' responses to these strategies?
- In what ways do students use self-regulatory strategies during writing?
- What value do students see in these strategies with reference to their writing?
- What factors help students to become self-regulating writers?
- What factors hinder students in becoming self-regulating writers?

Organisation of the current study

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. In chapter one, the study has been introduced by examining the researcher's interest and involvement in learning and pedagogy. The importance and justification of this research is highlighted and the questions which underpinned this research are identified.

A critical review of the literature regarding the nature self-regulation is contained within Chapter two. Within this chapter self-regulation is defined and the characteristics of self-regulated learning are identified. A model of self-regulation is used to explore key self-regulatory strategies and processes. The chapter concludes with a discussion regarding the importance of self-regulation for learners.

Chapter three includes an examination of self-regulation within the New Zealand Curriculum (NZC) (Ministry of Education, 2007). The relationship between self-regulation and the vision, values, principles, key competencies, assessment and recommendations for effective teacher pedagogy of the NZC is discussed. A closer inspection of the English learning area, particularly writing is made. This is followed by a discussion of research studies conducted with reference to self-regulation and writing. The purpose of the research and research questions are explained.

A description of the research methodology is contained within Chapter 4. A qualitative case study methodology was used to collect evidence of the use of self-regulatory strategies and processes when writing from six students and two teachers. How these participants and the site where the research took place were selected is described. Included in this chapter are detailed descriptions of data collection and analysis methods. Zimmerman's (2002) model of self-regulation was used as a framework with discourse and thematic analysis to code, analyse and interpret the data. Issues regarding ethics and plausibility are identified and discussed.

The fifth chapter examines the findings from the analysis of the teachers' interviews, observations and documents. This analysis is reported using the following headings:

- Context for study;
- Learning to write: an active process.

Chapter six examines the findings from the analysis of the students' interviews, observations and documents. This analysis is reported using the following headings:

- Choosing topics for writing;
- Knowing what is expected and what constitutes quality work;
- Setting goals;
- Selecting workshops appropriate to needs;

- Implementing strategies and skills to manage their learning and environment;
- Seeking and acting on feedback from a range of sources;
- Monitoring their work;
- Evaluating overall levels of achievement.

Chapter seven provides a discussion of the findings in relation to the literature.

Chapter eight concludes this thesis. Implications regarding the teaching and use of self-regulation when writing are presented. Recommendations for future research studies in relation to self-regulation are considered.

Chapter 2: The Nature of Self-Regulation

This chapter addresses contemporary theories and models of self-regulation and self-regulated learning. It begins with a comparison of various definitions of self-regulation and outlines the characteristics of self-regulated learning. The chapter then explores the various models of self-regulation with a close examination of Zimmerman's (2000a; 2002) seminal model. This exploration focuses on the strategies and processes used by individuals as they self-regulate. The chapter concludes with a discussion about why self-regulation is important for learners.

Self-regulation: Definition

A variety of statements exist that define and describe the process of self-regulation. Zimmerman (2000a), a seminal writer in the field, has defined self-regulation as the "self-generated thoughts and behaviours that are systematically oriented to the attainment of personal goals" (p.14). Winne and Hadwin (2010) have described it as a self-initiated process in which individuals use cognitive and metacognitive processes to "adjust products they create or methods they use to create products" with reference to "standards that characterise ideal or sufficient products and processes" (p.503). More recently, Zimmerman and Kitsantas (2014) described self-regulation as comprised of processes used "to activate and maintain cognitions, emotions and behaviours to attain personal goals" (p.145). Common to these statements was the idea that self-regulation is a process used by individuals to manage and adjust their thoughts, behaviours and emotions as they strove to achieve goals. Thus, at its core, self-regulation occurred when people have control over their behaviour, motivation and thoughts and have agency to make decisions and apply appropriate action to meet goals (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989b). Further, self-regulation is a complex process influenced by an individual's motivation, knowledge, beliefs, self-efficacy, emotion, volition and behaviour (Butler & Winne, 1995; Paris & Paris, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002)

Self-regulated Learning: Characteristics

While there has been general agreement about the definition of self-regulation, agreement regarding self-regulated learning has been more difficult to achieve due its connection to differing fields of research and their respective, often competing or overlapping, theories (Boekaerts, 1997; 1999). Some commonalities are evident across these differing perspectives and theories. Firstly, learner agency is a common feature (Bandura, 2001; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995). Paris and Paris (2001) noted self-regulated learning emphasises "autonomy and control by the individual who monitors, directs, and regulates actions toward goals of information acquisition, expanding expertise, and self-improvement" (p.89). Boekaerts (1997) described self-regulating learners as those who "govern their own learning process" (p.162) by setting goals; managing emotion, effort and motivation;

recognising and managing challenging aspects of the task, and selecting effective cognitive strategies to achieve their goals.

Secondly, self-regulated learning is a personally initiated process that is dependent on the use and control of: cognition, motivation, emotion, metacognition and behaviour as learners work to achieve their goals (Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Winne & Hadwin, 2010; Zimmerman, 1989b). Learners can choose to self-regulate or not. As such, they make decisions about the goals, tasks and strategies selected, including how they manage each aspect of the process. Zimmerman (1989b) indicates learners self-regulate when they “personally initiate and direct their own efforts to acquire knowledge and skill rather than relying on teachers, parents, or other agents of instruction” (p. 329).

Thirdly, self-regulated learning is a goal driven process. Goals establish an objective or standard to be achieved and are used throughout learning. Individuals monitor progress, the effectiveness of the learning strategies used and their motivation in relation to these goals (Darr, 2005; Dweck, 1986; Winne & Hadwin, 2010; Zimmerman, 2008). Effective self-regulated learners operate within a hierarchical set of proximal and distal goals aimed at the acquisition or mastery of a skill, strategy and/or knowledge. Learners with mastery or learning goals seek to improve their capabilities, knowledge and understanding. In contrast, those with performance goals strive a positive outcome judgement, such as praise or a grade (Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008)

Fourthly, feedback is integral to self-regulated learning. Generated by the monitoring of cognition, motivation, emotion and behaviour during the learning process, feedback provides information which learners can use to make adjustments with a view to meeting goals (Butler & Winne, 1995; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 1989a; 1990; 2000a). Information can be acquired from external sources or through the process of self-monitoring (Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 2002; 2008). Butler and Winne (1995) consider feedback, whether internally or externally generated, to be critical to the self-regulatory process as it provides information as to the quality and effectiveness of the learning strategies and processes employed to meet their goals

Finally, the perceptions and beliefs learners hold, with regard to their capability to learn and achieve goals, underpins self-regulation. Described as self-efficacy, these beliefs are influential in their impact on goal setting, task choice and engagement, affective reactions and motivation (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000b). Self-efficacy beliefs are predictors of outcomes and a vital aspect of one’s motivation to learn, yet they do not necessarily transfer from one domain area to another. As such, self-efficacy is task specific. Learners may demonstrate high levels of self-efficacy in relation to a specific task within a domain, such as undertaking statistical problems, yet be less efficacious when it comes to solving algebraic problems. Self-efficacy is also considered to be enactive, growing as

individuals experience success in overcoming challenges to achieve their goals (Bandura, 1997; Boekaerts, 1999; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2000b).

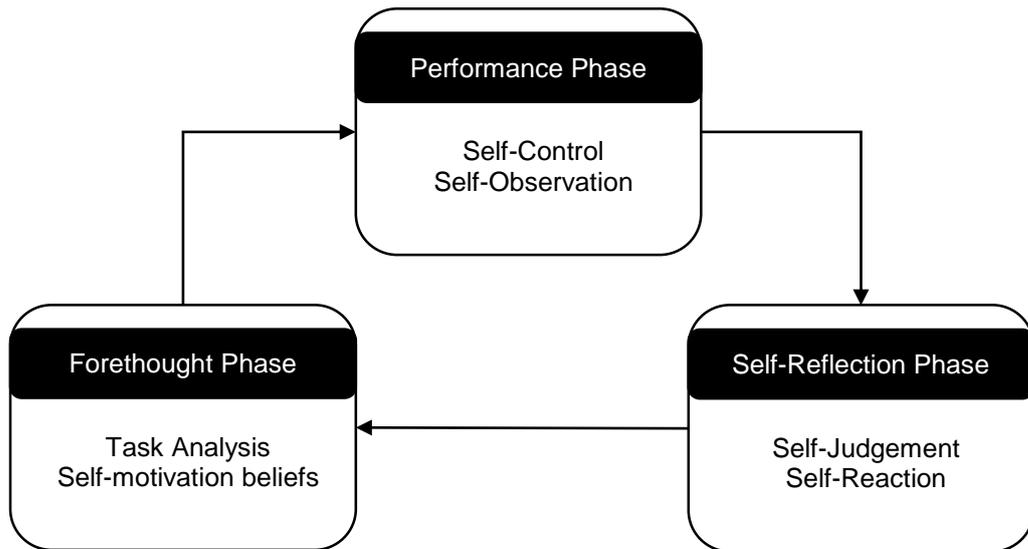
To summarise, self-regulated learning as depicted by Butler and Winne (1995) is a “deliberate, judgemental, adaptive process” (p.246) which involves the use of cognition, motivation, beliefs and knowledge. It is an interactive, recursive process, requiring learners to manage the various interactions that occur between various elements during learning with a continual focus on achieving goals (Boekaerts, 1999; Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002). Self-regulated learning is thus considered by experts in the field (e.g.: Boekaerts, 1997; 1999; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman, 1990; 2008; 2011) to be a complex, yet effective system for improving achievement and learning capability, and for development of a framework for life-long learning.

Models of Self-Regulation

A variety of models, have been devised to illustrate the complex interactions of cognitive, metacognitive and motivational processes that occur during self-regulation – see for example, Boekaerts (1997), Butler and Winne (1995) and Zimmerman (2000a; 2008; 2011). At their core, these models address the fundamental components such as: individual agency, use of prior knowledge and beliefs; motivational behaviour (self-efficacy and task engagement); task organisation (including goal setting, planning and organisation of the environment); selection of cognitive strategies and tactics, and application of metacognitive strategies (feedback, reflection and evaluation, self-observation, monitoring and recording). The processes of monitoring, reflection and adjustment highlight the recursive nature of self-regulated learning (Boekaerts, 1997; Butler & Winne, 1995; Winne & Hadwin, 2010). As learners regulate their thinking, behaviours and emotions, they continually monitor, revisit and modify their goals, learning strategies, motivation and behaviours; using feedback and reflection to make adjustments as they strive to achieve their goals (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2002; 2011). Each model recognises that self-regulated learning is most effective within an interactive social environment where learners have access to experts and peers for feedback and learning support (Boekaerts, 1997; Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002).

Developed from socio-cognitive theory and considered seminal, Zimmerman’s (2000a) model demonstrates the inter-related and interactive nature of the motivational, metacognitive and cognitive elements of self-regulated learning. The three phases of Zimmerman’s model and the elements within each phase are presented in Diagram 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1: Zimmerman's (2000a; 2011) model of self-regulation

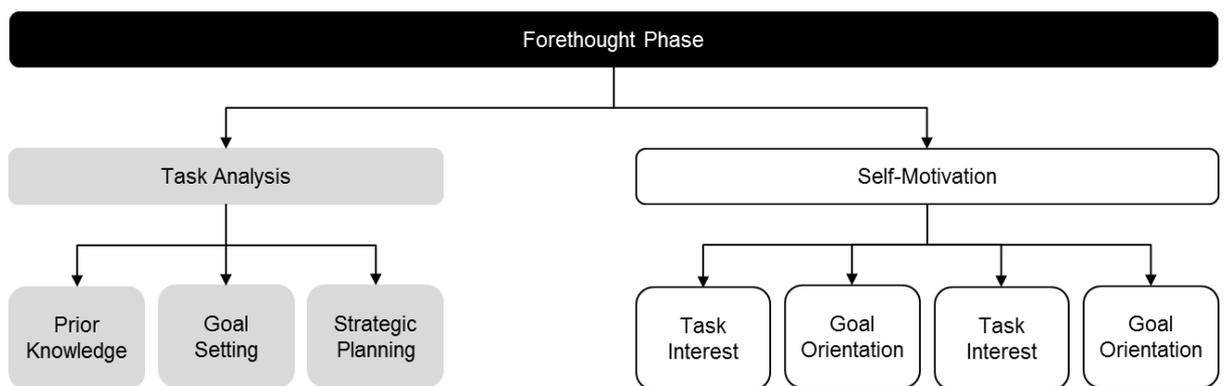


Zimmerman's model provides a useful point of reference to explore the key components of self-regulated learning identified earlier.

Forethought Phase

Self-regulating learners engage in the Forethought phase prior to learning, using metacognitive processes and motivational beliefs to prepare for the cognitive efforts of learning (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002; 2011). The key features of this phase, as illustrated in Diagram 2.2 below, are task analysis, and recognition of one's self-motivation beliefs and their impact on learning.

Figure 2.2: Components of Zimmerman's (2011) Forethought phase



(Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2014)

Utilisation of Prior Knowledge to analyse the task: Utilising prior knowledge and self-motivation beliefs are key components of the Forethought phase (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008; 2011). As individuals engage in task analysis, they draw upon their prior knowledge and personal experiences as these provide a foundation from which goals can be developed, actions planned and strategies selected (Butler & Winne, 1995; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989b). Prior knowledge consists of three aspects: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge. Declarative knowledge is related to the content of the task. Procedural knowledge refers to previously used learning strategies and their appropriateness, as well as preferred methods of task and environment organisation. It also includes knowledge of the task requirements, as this information influences selection of the goals and strategies. Knowing which aspects of procedural and declarative knowledge to access, when to use them and reasons for using them constitutes conditional knowledge (Butler & Winne, 1995; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman & Schunk, 1989).

Setting appropriate goals: Self-regulated learning is an intentional, goal driven process. During the forethought phase, learners utilise their agency, awareness of current capability and prior knowledge to select relevant and challenging goals. Having a goal directs attention to relevant activities and tasks, increases the amount of effort expended to reach the goal, encourages persistence and perseverance, and gives a sense of achievement when attained (Zimmerman, 2008). Goals thus have a motivational effect as they act as a point of reference and standard against which individuals monitor progress and the quality of their learning (Bandura, 2001; Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008; 2011). Challenging goals are set when learners have confidence in their ability to achieve and are willing to take risks. If overwhelmed by obstacles, individuals will withdraw effort, believing that failure is connected to the challenging nature of the task and goal (Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008; 2011).

It is considered important that goals are specific. In contrast to general, 'do your best' goals, the specific goals serve as a clear point of reference for feedback (Bandura, 2001; Dweck, 1986; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2011). Throughout this initial phase, learners must manage influences which can affect the priority, effectiveness and direction of goals (Bandura, 2001; Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). Self-selected goals, rather than goals assigned by others engender greater motivation and commitment (Boekaerts, 1999; Zimmerman, 2008). The goals learners create can be influenced by external expectations regarding learning priorities and direction, such as differing demands regarding behaviour, achievement or learning from teachers, parents and peers (Boekaerts, 1997; Boekaerts, 1999; Butler & Winne, 1995; Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). Zimmerman (2008) however indicates that appropriately challenging goals can be assigned to and accepted by learners if a valid and reasonable rationale is provided by the goal designer.

Individuals often have multiple domain and procedural goals for a task, creating a need to organise and manage them. From a hierarchical perspective, both distal and proximal goals are valuable. Distal goals enable individuals to set a long term direction for their learning while proximal goals trigger

metacognitive monitoring processes that facilitate relevant feedback (Bandura, 1991; 2001; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002; 2008). Once decisions have been made with regard to the type, organisation and quality of the goals, individuals then make decisions about the amount of effort needed to achieve them (Boekaerts, 1997).

The focus of goals is an important consideration as it has an impact on cognitive processing and subsequent behaviour (Butler & Winne, 1995; Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2011). Performance goals focus on task completion and the seeking of positive outcomes which can, if overused, limit the acquisition of skills and knowledge (Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). Individuals with a performance orientation will design goals and select tasks that ensure success and protect themselves from negative judgements. In contrast, learning or mastery goals focus attention on mastering new knowledge, understandings, skills and/or strategies (Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). Individuals with a learning orientation will select goals that maximise opportunities for development of new learning. They seek out challenges in the knowledge that competence develops over time through effort, persistence and practice (Dweck, 1986). While both performance and learning goals have been found to support learning, studies have shown the latter lead to greater gains in skill and knowledge acquisition (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997; 1999; Zimmerman, 2008).

Strategic Planning: Having established their goals, self-regulating learners engage in strategic planning to devise an action plan which includes a selection of mastery criteria to support monitoring of progress, and the selection of learning strategies and resources to enhance achievement (Bandura, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002). This selection is dependent on learners' procedural knowledge and the learning domain. Zimmerman defines learning strategies as "actions and processes directed at acquisition of information or skills that involve agency, purpose, and instrumentality perceptions by learners" (1990, p5). These strategies include seeking help, research, note-taking, practising skills, and preparing a plan or presentation (Zimmerman, 1990). A vital aspect of self-regulated learning is the continual development of a repertoire of learning strategies, as well as the ability to manipulate these strategies to suit the learning purpose and domain. This strategy knowledge can be acquired through interaction with peers, teachers and other experts, through observation, instruction, modelling, scaffolding and practise. As well as human resources, learners can also access physical resources, such as exemplars, textbooks and tools, to support their learning plan (Butler & Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2008; 2011).

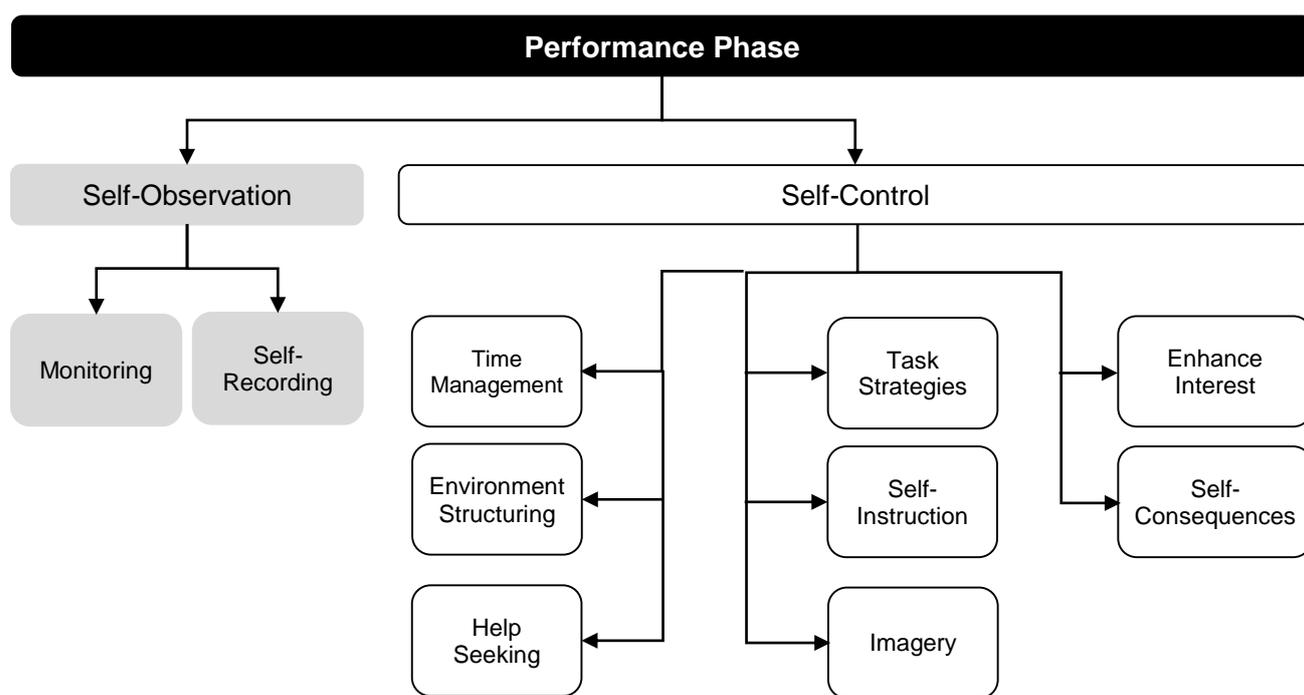
Motivation: Task analysis procedures are supported by the motivational beliefs learners hold with regard to their self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations and the value they attribute to the task or domain (Bandura, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2002; 2008; 2011). When the task or domain holds great value to learners, they demonstrate a greater commitment to achieving goals and engagement with learning. Attachment of value to a task may be due to the learners' intrinsic interest, their perceived competence, the usefulness of the learning or how much effort and time they think is

needed to complete the task (Boekaerts, 1999; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002; 2008; 2011). Similarly, the outcome expectancies held by learners have a motivational effect. Self-efficacious learners who believe they can achieve their goals are more committed to the task, and as a consequence, exert greater effort and demonstrate persistence and resilience in the face of difficulty (Bandura, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008; 2011).

Performance Phase

The Performance phase of self-regulation occurs during learning. During this phase, learners engage in metacognitive, cognitive and motivational processes. These processes have an effect on the learners' attention, effort and action (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). According to Zimmerman (2008; 2011), the key features of this phase are self-observation and self-control (see Diagram 2.3 below). These combine to support learners' task engagement and motivation to continue learning to attain their goals.

Figure 2.3: Components of Zimmerman's (2011) Performance phase



(Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2014)

Self-control: Self-control is a combination of metacognitive and motivational strategies that support learner engagement and cognitive processing, such as self-instruction, engagement, and organisation of the learning environment. These self-control strategies are of benefit to learners as they assist in the management of tasks, enhancement of motivation, the focus of attention, and facilitation of self-consequences and self-instruction (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2008; 2011). Self-regulating learners implement a range of cognitive and practical strategies to complete the task. Depending on

the task and context, these strategies may include note-taking, use of graphic organisers, problem-solving and creation of a first draft (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2008). Self-instruction and imagery are strategies used by self-regulating learners to verbalise or picture the procedures needed to follow or use so the task is successfully completed (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2008; 2011). To maintain motivation and recognise success in relation to learning and progress, learners identify self-consequences to reward themselves or to refocus their attention (Zimmerman, 2011).

During this aspect of the performance phase, learners use a variety of techniques to minimise distractions and improve their focus and attention, such as organising the learning environment so it is conducive to task completion. This may, for instance, involve reducing in noise levels, altering the space and furniture for the task, and accessing resources such as computers, textbooks and tools (Zimmerman, 2002; 2011). At this stage, learners make strategic decisions regarding task completion, such as whether to work with peers or individually. Learners seek support from others, be it peers or their teacher, to help overcome obstacles (Zimmerman, 1989b; 2008; 2011). These self-control choices assist learner to manage their volition and effort with regard to task engagement and motivation to persist (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2011).

Self-observation: Self-observation also involves use of metacognitive strategies to monitor cognitive and motivational aspects of learning while engaged with a task. These monitoring processes help learners evaluate their current performance and progress (Bandura, 1991; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). Recording the effectiveness of strategies, learning conditions and behaviour during the performance phase can help learners monitor the impact of actions on volition, motivation and affect (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2011).

Feedback: Feedback is considered “inherent catalyst” within the “deliberate, judgemental, adaptive process” of self-regulated learning (Butler & Winne, 1995, p245). Sadler (1989) makes a distinction between feedback and self-monitoring in terms of the source of the information: “If the learner generates the relevant information, the procedure is part of self-monitoring. If the sources of information are external to the learner, it is associated with feedback” (p.122). Individuals draw on both sources of information to alter and modify their learning behaviours, strategies and action plan in order to make progress (Paris & Paris, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989b). Much of this monitoring and modification process is automatic, unconsciously applied by learners as they engage in tasks. Crucial to the feedback process is a focus on information needed to implement change so goals can be achieved. This productive feedback may require the learner to learn new strategies or domain knowledge, adjust learning beliefs and effort, and/or revise goals and mastery criteria (Butler & Winne, 1995; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Some forms of feedback can limit or impede learning. Feedback that focuses on the correctness of the content of the task, personal qualities or achievement levels is ineffective in supporting deeper learning. The more powerful types of

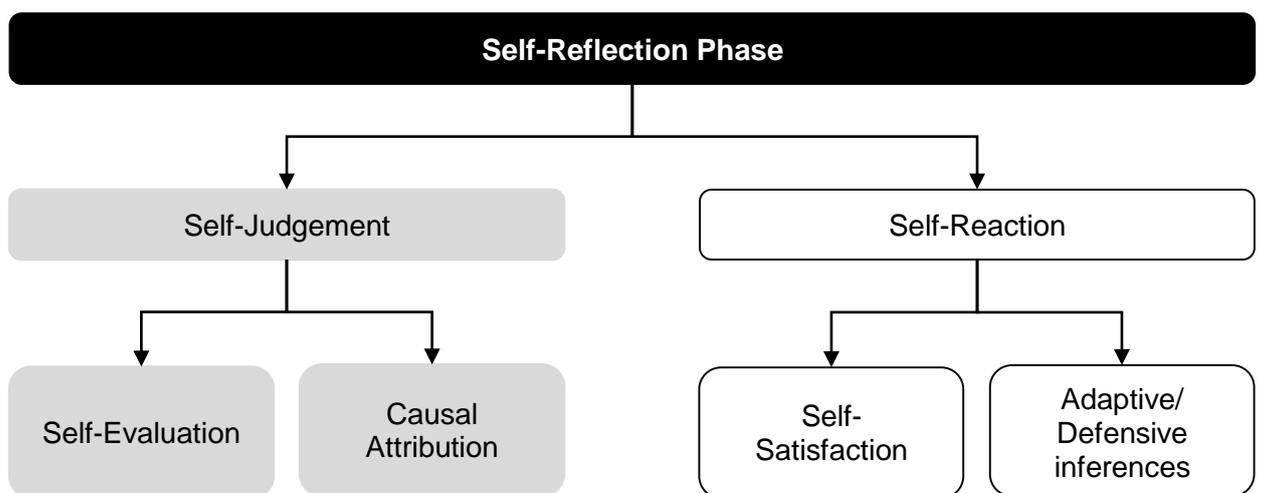
feedback address learners' cognitive processing and the use of self-regulatory strategies (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Managing Motivation: Maintaining motivation and self-efficacy is vital through the performance phase to ensure effort and persistence continue. Learners can use a variety of strategies, including self-consequences, self-talk and instruction, to help visualise the long term benefit of achieving goals and maintain interest in the task (Zimmerman, 2011). Intrinsic motivation is important (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). If learners are intrinsically motivated by the task and the self-regulatory process, they are more likely to demonstrate resilience, persistence and effort to achieve their goals, even when confronted by challenges (Boekaerts, 1997; Paris & Paris, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2011).

Self-reflection Phase

Learners engage in the Self-reflection phase at the completion of a task as they evaluate their performance and self-reactions. The key features of the Self-reflection phase, as illustrated in the diagram below, are self-judgement and self-reaction (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002; 2011). During this phase, self-regulating learners evaluate the quality of their completed task with reference to goals, mastery criteria and the action plan. They also evaluate the effectiveness of learning strategies used and their management of motivation, engagement and affect. The evidence gathered from these evaluative processes provides information to apply to the next learning situation, enabling learners to create more appropriate goals or select more effective cognitive learning strategies for the future (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). Self-reflection can enhance motivational beliefs, particularly self-efficacy, encouraging greater engagement with learning (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b; 2011).

Figure 2.4: Components of Zimmerman's (2011) Self-reflection phase



(Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2014)

Self Judgement: Learners evaluate the completed task and achievement of their goals with reference to mastery criteria (Bandura, 2001; Dweck, 1986; Zimmerman, 2008). They make use of resources, such as marking schedules and rubrics to assist in the process of making judgements about successes and failures (Darr & Fisher, 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008). Factors that impact on outcomes, such as the quality of task engagement, strategy selection, and appropriateness of goals and monitoring systems are addressed (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). The self-evaluation aspect of this phase also enables learners to identify aspects of their declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge that require further development. For self-regulating learners with high levels of self-efficacy, having this information is crucial knowledge and motivation which informs creation of new goals (Paris & Paris, 2001; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2008; 2011).

As part of the self-reflection phase, learners identify causal attributions for task related successes and failures. Efficacious learners are more likely to attribute their progress and achievement, whether adequate or inadequate, to the nature of their goals, strategy selection and use, task engagement and domain knowledge, as these are aspects of the learning process they have control over and can enact differently in the future. By attributing their success or failure to factors that are personally controllable, rather than their ability or an external source, learners limit negative self-reactions. This helps sustain motivation, persistence and resilience as they engage with the forethought phase of their next task (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989b; 2008; 2011).

Self-reaction: The second aspect of the self-reflective phase is self-reaction. Learners makes judgements with regard to how satisfied they are with their performance and identify the causes of their reactions (Bandura, 1991; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a; 2011). Self-reactions can be classified as self-satisfaction and/or adaptive inferences. Self-satisfaction refers to the emotional reactions learners have in relation to their learning performance. Such reactions may range from depression to delight (Zimmerman, 2008; 2011). Efficacious learners connect these feelings to controllable features, such as the achievement of goals or mastery of new strategies. This sense of self-satisfaction has a motivational impact on willingness to re-engage with the forethought phase for the next learning cycle, devising next learning goals and action plans (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008; 2011). Dissatisfaction can have a negative effect, causing the employment of defensive strategies such as task avoidance, helplessness and disengagement, and which can reduce self-efficacy (Zimmerman, 2008; 2011). Learners who have positively reacted to their learning progress and self-evaluation will adapt or modify the selection and use of learning strategies so they are more effective in the future. Such processes are known as adaptive influences.

To summarise, Zimmerman's (2000a; 2011) comprehensive model of self-regulation illustrates the interactions and connections which occur between cognition, motivation, behaviour and metacognition during learning. Particularly evident is the active participation of learners as they generate, direct,

modify and sustain learning processes and strategies while striving to achieve goals. Underpinning Zimmerman's model is a belief "that learning is not something that happens *to* students; it is something that happens *by* students" (Zimmerman, 1989a, p.22).

Why is self-regulation important for our learners?

Fosters Academic Success

Self-regulation has been identified as a key factor in academic success and achievement (Boekaerts, 1997; Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, De Groot, Calfee, & Schunk, 1990). Self-regulated learners, through the processes of monitoring, reflection and evaluation during learning, have a greater awareness of their strengths and weaknesses in terms of domain and self-regulatory knowledge, skills and strategies. They are proactive in determining goals, focus on designing and managing their learning, and seek assistance to enhance their capabilities (Bandura, 2001; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008). This self-management has a positive impact on motivation, achievement and self-efficacy, leading learners to set increasingly challenging goals, improve task focus, develop a repertoire of effective strategies, seek help, manage their environment and resources, and engage in the next learning task (Bandura, 2001; Boekaerts, 1997; Butler & Winne, 1995). It is pertinent to note that the skills, knowledge and strategies required to self-regulate can be acquired by all learners (Harris, Graham, & Mason, 2006; Joyce & Hipkins, 2005; Zumbrunn & Bruning, 2013).

Facilitates Learner Agency

Self-regulatory learners have agency and self-determination so they can manage and direct their learning, behaviour and motivation (Bandura, 2001; Darr, 2005; Martin, 2004; Winne & Hadwin, 2010; Zimmerman, 2002). The agency to make decisions and act increases individual motivation and commitment to engage with learning. Autonomous individuals make decisions regarding the acquisition of knowledge and skills which meet their learning needs, leading to greater progress and success (Bandura, 2001; Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 1990). Agency is emphasised in models of self-regulated learning developed from socio-cognitive perspectives on learning. Bandura (2001) describes four aspects of agency that occur during self-regulation: intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness and self-reflectiveness. These aspects of agentic behaviour, evident throughout the self-regulated learning process, strongly influence learners' motivation and self-efficacy. For self-regulated individuals, "agency thus involves not only the deliberative ability to make choices and action plans, but the ability to give shape to appropriate courses of action and to motivate and regulate their execution" (Bandura, 2001, p8).

Promotes Life-long Learning

According to Boekaerts (1997; 1999), self-regulation is seen not only as the key factor in success at school but in other contexts such as work and leisure. She believes self-regulatory skills, knowledge and behaviour, such as goal setting, monitoring and reflection, can be applied and transferred across domains and contexts. Being able to self-regulate enables people to continue to educate themselves beyond schooling, within work and leisure contexts. This supports the aim of schooling, to develop lifelong learners. Self-regulation develops and maintains the self-awareness, self-motivation and attitudes people need so they can continually learn and innovate (Darr, 2005; Zimmerman, 2002). The ability to self-regulate provides people with strategies and mechanisms to manage situations that occur throughout life, such as employment-related challenges, motivation to engage socially and economically, managing impulse and emotion, and persistence to overcome challenges (Charteris, 2013; Darr, 2005; Zimmerman, 2002).

Enhances Motivation to Learn

Motivation is a vital ingredient for successful learning and achievement. Individuals need to be intrinsically motivated to fully engage in self-regulated learning (Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; 2011). Learner motivation influences decision-making in regard to choice of goals and task, attention given to a task, and the effort and persistence an individual is willing to expend to overcome obstacles and achieve goals (Zimmerman, 2011). The metacognitive and cognitive processes used during learning not only provide feedback regarding progress, but also feedback to bolster motivation. When individuals successfully self-regulate, they are more motivated to learn and complete tasks (Zumbrunn, Tadlock, & Roberts, 2011).

Increases Self-Efficacy

Self-referent beliefs with regard to one's learning capability are considered a vital aspect of motivation to learn as well as a predictor of progress and successful outcomes. (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000b). Learners with high levels of self-efficacy for a task or domain believe they have the capability to master challenging learning goals and task requirements despite problems they may face. Efficacious learners willingly expend effort to achieve goals. Such learners are persistent in overcoming challenges, managing negative feelings that can occur if progress is not as planned (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000b). They utilise metacognitive strategies to monitor progress and make decisions in relation to the effectiveness of the cognitive learning strategies used. Discerning progress in this manner enhances learners' perceptions of their self-efficacy which positively reinforces engagement with tasks and engenders motivation to regulate learning (Bandura, 1997; Dweck, 1986; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000b).

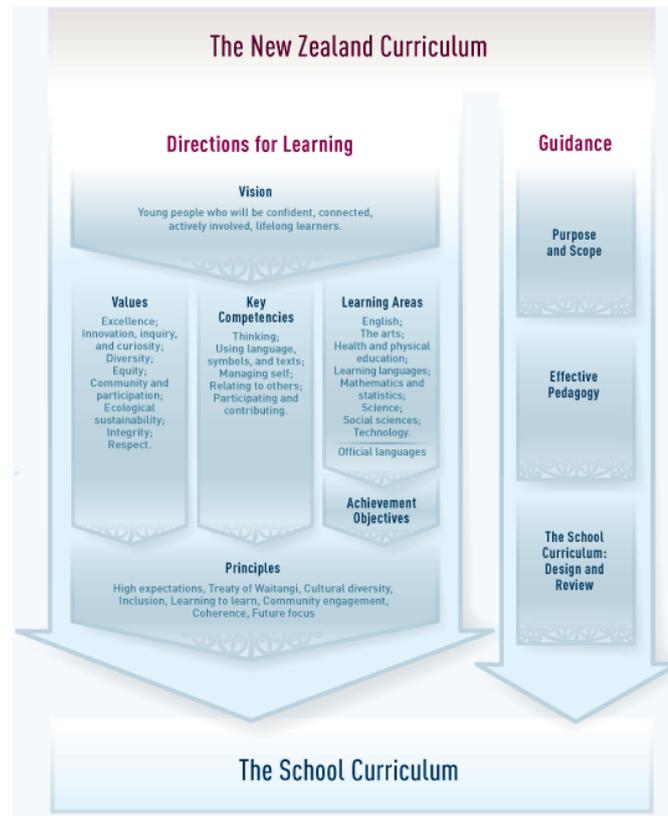
CHAPTER 3: THE NEW ZEALAND CURRICULUM: THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNERS

Self-regulation within the context of 'The New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium Teaching and Learning in Year 1-13' (NZC) (Ministry of Education, 2007) is investigated in this chapter. English as a learning area of the NZC is explored, with a close examination of Writing as core aspect of this learning area. This is followed by a discussion of contemporary research concerning self-regulation and writing. The chapter concludes with an examination of the aims and questions of the current study.

Self-regulation in the New Zealand Curriculum

The official statement of policy in relation to teaching and learning in New Zealand, 'The New Zealand Curriculum for English-medium Teaching and Learning in Year 1-13' (NZC) (Ministry of Education, 2007) is comprised of two parts, Directions for Learning and Guidance. This statement is used by schools to devise their own curriculum in response to the learning needs, interests and cultures of their students, school and community (Ministry of Education, 2007). The Directions for Learning section describes the vision, values, principles, key competencies, learning areas and achievement objectives for each learning area. Alongside this, the Guidance section provides information for schools and teachers with regard to the purpose and scope of the curriculum, effective pedagogy and the design and review of the school curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007). Diagram 3.1 provides an overview of the NZC statement:

Figure 3.1: Overview of the New Zealand Curriculum



(Ministry of Education, 2007)

While no direct reference is made in the NZC to self-regulation or the development of self-regulating learners, these notions permeate a number of sections, in particular the sections which address the Vision, Principles and Assessment of the NZC (Ministry of Education, 2007). Self-regulation is also alluded to within the section that deals with the five Key Competencies, where the skills, knowledge, dispositions, attitudes and values that contribute to learning across all curriculum areas are described (Ministry of Education, 2007). Together, these sections articulate the ideal type of learner and the associated knowledge, strategies and skills he/she need to acquire. To these ends, the section that addresses Effective Pedagogy describes effective teaching strategies. Implicit in this section is the notion that these teaching practices will encourage the development self-regulating, life-long learners.

The Vision – what we want for our young people

One of the key ideals in the Vision for New Zealand learners is that they “will be confident, connected, actively involved, and life-long learners” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.8). Confident learners are described as motivated, resourceful and resilient. They are connected as members of communities, can communicate using a range of tools and able to relate well to others. Crucially, in terms of self-regulation, students are to become life-long learners who are literate, numerate and able to think critically. They are “active seekers, users, and creators of knowledge” who make informed decisions,

autonomously direct, manage and monitor their learning in a range of situations as they strive and persist to achieve goals (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.8).

The Principles – foundations for curriculum decision-making

The need for students to become self-regulatory is also alluded to within the Principles of the NZC. In the 'Learning to Learn' principle, for instance, all students are to be encouraged to "reflect on their own learning processes and to learn how to learn" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.9). The focus of this principle is on enabling learners to be responsible for their learning and related decision-making, recognising that learning to learn is an "active, intentional process" (Ministry of Education, 2012, p.1). The 'Learning to Learn' principle sets an expectation that the metacognitive, behavioural and cognitive features and strategies associated with self-regulation will be incorporated into the teaching, planning and organisation of each school's curriculum, with the aim of developing student autonomy and their identity as life-long learners. Like self-regulation, 'Learning to Learn' is described as "a bundle of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values that together with metacognition, enables people to take control of and improve their own learning and develop 'learner identities'" (Ministry of Education, 2012, p.1).

The Key Competencies – capabilities for living and life-long learning

Within the Key Competencies outlined in the NZC (Ministry of Education, 2007), 'Thinking' and 'Managing Self' encapsulate the learning processes, attitudes and behaviours associated with self-regulation. Developed from the recommendations of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) DeSoCo report (2005), the Key Competencies describe a range of skills, attitudes, values and knowledge vital to learning across all domain areas and development of a disposition for life-long learning. These skills, attitudes, values and knowledge are necessary if learners are to take action as self-directed, self-motivated citizens and effective, adaptable contributors to society (Hipkins, 2006; Ministry of Education, 2007; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005). The OECD (2005) considers the Key Competencies to be of value and benefit across all learning, social and economic contexts as they enable learners to think critically, take responsibility for and reflect on their learning and actions. It is recommended in this section of the NZC that teachers explicitly teach, model and scaffold learners so they can make appropriate use of the Key Competencies, across all learning areas (Ministry of Education, 2007).

The Key Competency of 'Thinking' emphasises the metacognitive and cognitive aspects of self-regulation. Learners are expected to be creative problem-solvers who are able to think critically in order to make decisions, plan actions and make sense of the knowledge they learn (Ministry of Education, 2007). They are also expected to be curious, using prior knowledge and experiences to "actively seek, use and create knowledge" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.12). These thinking competencies are critical to self-regulatory learning processes and the development of learner agency.

The Key Competency of 'Managing Self' outlines the skills, abilities, attitudes and behaviours learners need to organise and manage their learning. Having opportunities to make decisions with regard to how they think, learn and interact is emphasised (Ministry of Education, 2007). Learners who manage themselves are described as able to "establish personal goals, make plans, manage projects, and set high standards" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.12). Such strategies are closely aligned with the cognitive and motivational aspects of self-regulation. Learners who are able to manage themselves are also able to use a variety of metacognitive and cognitive strategies to overcome learning challenges, self-assess and self-motivate (Ministry of Education, 2007). An aspect of self-regulation supported by the 'Managing Self' competency is the management of emotions or affects during the learning process. Being emotionally self-aware enables learners to seek support as needed, as well as demonstrate resilience and perseverance during learning.

Assessment

Assessment "involves the focussed and timely gathering, analysis, interpretations, and use of information that can provide evidence of student progress" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.39). In this section of the NZC, it is stated that assessment must involve learners and be of benefit to them and their learning (Ministry of Education, 2007). Developing the capability to participate in the formative use of assessment information is a necessary skill that supports the development of learner autonomy, self-regulation and life-long learning behaviours (Ministry of Education, 2007; 2011). Being 'assessment capable' means learners effectively regulate their learning by setting of appropriate goals, seeking feedback and support from peers and teachers, and monitoring progress through an evidence based consideration of their learning and progress (Ministry of Education, 2007; 2011). Undertaking such procedures requires learners to be engaged metacognitively and cognitively in their learning, as they engage in critical reflection and utilise self-regulatory strategies (Ministry of Education, 2007; 2011).

Effective Pedagogy – teacher actions promoting student learning

The skills and strategies of self-regulation are also evident within the Effective Pedagogy section of the NZC (Ministry of Education, 2007). This section provides guidance with regard to strategies and practices that teachers use in the support and promotion of student learning. This guidance includes recommendations for development of a supportive learning environment and the facilitations of shared learning where together, teachers and learners, learn, challenge and support each other (Ministry of Education, 2007). Within an inclusive, supportive class culture and learning community, teachers are expected to urge learners to be active, recognising that learning occurs through social interaction, whether with a peer, in a group or with the teacher. Engaging with others in learning provides access to support and feedback, aspects fundamental to self-regulation (Ministry of Education, 2007).

Teachers are also expected to clarify the relevance of new learning, ensuring they make connections to learners' prior knowledge and experiences (Ministry of Education, 2007). Making connections between existing knowledge and skills and new learning is important when developing self-regulation. Learners also require repeated opportunities to practise new skills and strategies (Ministry of Education, 2007). As with the acquisition of knowledge, understanding and skills, learners need regular opportunities to engage with tasks that require the use of the strategies and skills associated with self-regulation so they can practise applying these processes across all learning domains and in a variety of contexts. Finally, developing the ability to reflect on learning is considered vital to all learning as "reflective learners assimilate new learning, relate it to what they already know, adapt it for their own purposes and translate thought into action" (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.34). Reflection on and evaluation of completed tasks and learning processes enables learners to identify where learning has been successful, obtain feedback and identify new learning (Ministry of Education, 2007).

Within the NZC, no direct reference is made to self-regulation or self-regulated learning. However in a more recent publication, the Ministry of Education (2011) is explicit regarding the value and importance of self-regulation. They consider it "important that all students build their assessment capability and develop into autonomous, self-regulated, life-long learners" so they have the knowledge, skills and strategies to "take ownership of their learning and become independent learners" (Ministry of Education, 2011, p.25).

The Learning Areas – important for a broad education

Eight Learning Areas are identified in the NZC: English, the Arts, Health and physical education, Learning languages, Mathematics and statistics, Science, Social sciences and Technology (Ministry of Education, 2007). Each Learning Area is organised into specific strands and, in some cases, disciplines which describe the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn. In the Arts, for example, learners participate in the disciplines of dance, drama, music and visual arts through learning programmes structured around four strands: understanding the arts in context, developing practical knowledge, developing ideas and communicating and interpreting.

The progression of learning for each Learning Area is described in terms of achievement objectives, which are organised according to eight levels of learning. The achievement objectives become increasingly complex and challenging, forming a broad progression of learning from Years 1 to 13 (Ministry of Education, 2007). Schools are expected to select achievement objectives from each Learning Area as they design a curriculum that is responsive to the learning needs and interests of their learners. From the school curriculum, teachers are expected to prepare and plan programmes that ensure learners have the opportunity to engage with the knowledge and skills specific to each Learning Area, developing their capability to be active, informed and responsible citizens (Ministry of Education, 2007).

The Learning Area of English

The Learning area of English is described in the NZC as “the study, use, and enjoyment of the English language and its literature, communicated orally, visually, and in writing, for a range of purposes and audiences and in a variety of forms” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.18). Being literate is considered the key to achievement in all domain areas as learners “receive, process, and present ideas or information using the English language as a medium” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.18). Within the Learning Area of English, there are two of strands, each of which incorporates oral, written and visual disciplines of the English Language (Ministry of Education, 2007). The first strand involves learners in “making meaning of ideas or information they receive” through the disciplines of Listening, Reading and Viewing (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.18). Writing, along with Speaking and Presenting, are the disciplines of the second strand of English learning which involve learners “creating meaning for themselves or others” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p.18). While learning to write, learners develop knowledge of the processes and strategies required for written communication, while recognising the audience and purposes of the text, developing ideas, using language features effectively, and the structure and organisation of texts (Ministry of Education, 2007).

Additional documents have been produced by the Ministry of Education to elaborate on the NZC, giving guidance to teachers and schools in the area of English. The ‘New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1-8’ (Ministry of Education, 2009) address in broad terms, the knowledge and skills learners need to achieve at the end of each year of schooling (Ministry of Education, 2009). For each Standard, exemplars are provided to illustrate the key characteristics of the texts learners are expected to read and produce (Ministry of Education, 2009). As English is used in all Learning Areas, evidence of student achievement in reading and writing can be obtained from across the curriculum. This evidence may take the form of anecdotal observations, work samples, learning conversations and assessment information (Ministry of Education, 2009). Teachers are expected to use a wide range of evidence to form an overall teacher judgement of the learner’s achievement in relation to the appropriate year Standard. At the end of each year, learners are judged to be above, at, below or well below the Standard described for their year group (Ministry of Education, 2009). A further Ministry of Education document, ‘The Literacy Learning Progressions: Meeting the Reading and Writing demands of the Curriculum’ (2010), provides information for teachers regarding the knowledge, skills and attitudes learners need to meet the demands of the English curriculum. These Progressions elaborate further on the Reading and Writing Standards (Ministry of Education, 2009), describing in some detail the knowledge and skills learners are expected to develop between Years 1 and 10. They are intended to be used by teachers as a source of information with reference to the learning strengths and needs of their learners and the planning of effective learning programmes (Ministry of Education, 2010). Pedagogical support for effective instruction in Reading and Writing is provided by the Ministry of Education in two publications: ‘Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4’ (2003) and ‘Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8’ (2006). Both texts provide guidance about the most effective strategies to use to engage learners, and develop their knowledge of English and the

skills they require to ensure they make continued progress with their learning during their primary and intermediate schooling.

Writing

People write for a variety of purposes and in a range of contexts, primarily to communicate ideas and information in a meaningful way to an audience (Graham & Harris, 2005; Harris, Graham, MacArthur, Reid, & Mason, 2011; Ministry of Education, 1992; Myhill & Fisher, 2010). The form taken by a text is governed by the purpose for writing, for example, whether it is to inform, persuade, entertain or instruct, and by the intended audience, whether it is for themselves, people personally known to the author or a wider public audience (Davis, 2013; Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006). When writing, writers need to have a knowledge of and ability to use, modify and adapt features of language including appropriate vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, structure and organisation of the different genre (Harris et al., 2011; Ministry of Education, 2006). To be effective in communicating their message, writers need to be selective in their choices and use of language, form and function, with an awareness of the impact they wish to create and how they might do this (Davis, 2013; Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006). Marshall (2004) has described the process of writing as “the use of language as an art”. She goes on to state

“[A]rranging words on a page is about more than spelling them correctly or inserting the punctuation in an appropriate place. It is about hearing the cadence of a sentence or the rhythm of a paragraph. It is knowing what word will produce a picture in the head of the reader or what image may capture an argument. It is about sensing the warp and weft of a text that language can create, about understanding its power to move and disturb.” (pp.101-102).

The Writing Process

Writing is considered a non-linear process of composition. Harris et al (2011) for instance, describe writing as a “recursive, strategic, and multi-dimensional process” (p.188) involving the writer in organising ideas and information, deciding how to communicate it, creating the text and finally, revising and editing it. Davis (2013) depicts it as a cyclic process involving planning, composition, revision and publication. Guidance provided to teachers by the Ministry of Education (1992; 2006) represents writing as forming intentions, composing, correcting, recrafting and publishing, and reflecting on the outcomes. In a similar vein, Graves (1983) considers writing a practice involving selection of topic, rehearsal and organisation of ideas in preparation for composition, redrafting, and publishing. Although presented in a linear fashion for the purposes of this discussion, in reality, rather than being discrete, the various elements of the writing process are interdependent, with writers moving iteratively between these as they revise, modify or re-craft a particular aspect, for example, returning to the planning stage to modify goals or gather more information; or altering the composition of the text during the revision stage by re-ordering the sequence of ideas (Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006).

Good writers form their intentions or plans for writing by setting goals, deciding on their purpose and audience, and choosing the genre their writing will take. As plans are formulated, writers draw on their prior knowledge, observations and previous writing experiences. While they research, select and organise their ideas and information, they make decisions about what to include and how to sequence ideas. They may then share plans with others for feedback (Davis, 2013; Harris et al., 2011; Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006). Writers then begin composing their texts, utilising knowledge of language features, structure, vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to construct texts suited to their intended purpose and audience. Ideas are crafted and recrafted as writers clarify and synthesise ideas, and engage their audience (Davis, 2013; Graves, 1983; Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006). Throughout this process, writers engage in an “interior dialogue” (Ministry of Education, 2006, p.153) as they rehearse phrases and select the ideal vocabulary, to ensure their work makes sense and has clarity for the audience (Graves, 1983; Ministry of Education, 2006). Once completed, texts are revised, edited and proofread to correct and improve the quality of the work. Writers then decide how to present their writing and whether to publish (Davis, 2013; Graves, 1983; Harris et al., 2011; Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006). They engage in reflection as they evaluate the quality and effectiveness of their work, particularly considering the impact on their audience, if goals have been met and the clarity of the message or purpose of their writing (Ministry of Education, 1992; 2006).

Self-regulation and Writing

Clearly, writing is a complex, challenging process requiring learners to manage an array of cognitive, metacognitive, linguistic, and behavioural strategies within a social context (Harris et al., 2011; Myhill & Fisher, 2010). Effective writers regulate the writing process, drawing on a range of strategies as they plan, organise and record their ideas (Harris et al., 2011). Contemporary theorists and researchers emphasise the importance of self-regulatory strategies for learners as they manage the writing process (Harris, Mason, Graham, & Saddler, 2002; Harris, Graham, Mason, & Friedlander, 2008; Harris et al., 2011; Timperley & Parr, 2009; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Self-regulatory strategies, such as setting goals, monitoring progress, gathering feedback and support and evaluating their progress and text produced are of value to learners as they write. These strategies support learners to direct their thinking and writing processes, controlling and selecting the most appropriate ideas, language features, structure and organisation for their text (Davis, 2013; Harris et al., 2002; Harris et al., 2011; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Studies of self-regulation: strategies to support the development of self-regulated writers

Research over the past 40 years on students’ learning and achievement has increasingly focussed on the use of cognitive strategies, motivation, metacognition, task engagement, and social supports in classrooms (Paris & Paris, 2001). As a consequence, self-regulated learning has “emerged as a construct that encompassed these various aspects of academic learning and provided more holistic

views of the skills, knowledge, and motivation that students acquire” (Paris & Paris, 2001, p.89). Paris and Paris (2001) identify four ways in which the foci of such research has changed over time – a shift in terms of investigating:

- Single strategies (small grain foci) to multiple strategies (large grain foci) and how strategies work together;
- Strategies in a decontextualized manner to discipline-based applications;
- Training in strategies based on following directions to instruction based around cognitive discussions;
- Strategies in highly controlled, artificial setting to less controlled, in-situ studies in classrooms

A number of studies have been conducted in the area of literacy learning and self-regulation (e.g.: Graham, 1997; Harris & Graham, 1996; Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, & Kurita, 1989) in classroom settings (e.g.: Blumenfeld, 1992; Paris & Ayres, 1994; Stipek, Feiler, Daniels, & Milburn, 1995; van Kraayenoord & Paris, 1997). Drawing on findings from such studies, Paris and Paris (2001) concluded that students’ understanding about what self-regulated learning entails and their capacity for self-regulation is enhanced through explicit instruction and participation in tasks that require engagement in and practice of the skills and strategies of self-regulation.

The growing body of international research and literature examining self-regulation and its impact on learning, motivation, behaviour and autonomy in writing, has in the main been based around the Self-Regulated Strategy Development intervention (SRSD) (Graham et al., 2005; Hacker et al., 2015; Harris et al., 2002; Harris et al., 2006; Mason, Harris, & Graham, 2011; Perry & Drummond, 2002; Zumbunn & Bruning, 2013). Smaller scale studies have been carried out, such as research by Zimmerman and Kitsantis (1999; 2002) examining the use of self-regulatory strategies when revising and recrafting writing. In the New Zealand context, the body of scholarly literature and research on self-regulation and writing is relatively small, with Watson’s study (2004; 2005) being a key example. Recognising the challenges many learners face as they struggle with the complexities of writing, various researchers have investigated the effect of self-regulation on writers in the classroom context (Glaser, Brunstein, & Harris, 2007; Graham et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2006; Watson, 2005; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2002; Zumbunn & Bruning, 2013). Of particular interest to this study are two contemporary research projects which examined self-regulated learning in the writing classroom. Both studies were carried out in situ, examining the use and interactions of the multiple strategies of self-regulation and writing in classrooms. The first study, carried out in an urban American setting by Harris, Graham and Mason (2006), examined the effect of a longitudinal intervention programme, Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD). In contrast, Watson’s small scale, observational study (2004; 2005) investigated the introduction of self-regulation strategies as part of a class writing programme in an urban New Zealand primary school setting.

SRSD is an American intervention programme designed to develop the writing skills and knowledge of struggling learners in tandem with the development of self-regulatory strategies, self-efficacy and

motivation (Harris et al., 2006). The goal of the intervention is to support learners to become independent self-regulating writers who have knowledge of the writing process and composition, can direct and monitor their learning, and have a positive attitude toward writing (Harris et al., 2006). SRSD has six stages which can be modified, adapted, combined and reordered to create a flexible approach to supporting learners' needs. Each stage involves explicit teaching of writing skills and knowledge alongside self-regulatory strategies, with multiple opportunities for learners to practise these skills and strategies (Harris et al., 2006). Learners receive support, through modelling and scaffolding, until they can implement the writing and self-regulatory strategies independently and move on to the next stage. Emphasis is placed on learner maintenance of knowledge, skills and strategies once SRSD is complete, as well as the capacity to apply this learning to other tasks (Harris et al., 2006). In their study, Harris et al (2006) examined the use and effect of SRSD on learners, some with peer support and others without. The participants were learners in Grade 2 (equivalent to Year 3 in New Zealand) at an urban American elementary school, which has a high percentage of students from low socio-economic backgrounds. The Grade 2 learners who participated in the study were randomly allocated to one of three groups: SRSD intervention only, SRSD with peer support and a control group. The control group continued to be taught by their teachers, who employed a process writing pedagogy called 'Writer's workshop'.

The researchers found both SRSD groups demonstrated greater knowledge of the planning process and planned for their writing more effectively than peers in the control group. Learners in both SRSD groups produced persuasive writing that was longer, contained more language features of the genre and had content that was qualitatively better than their pre-unit writing and the writing of peers in the control group. They were also more knowledgeable about planning processes and features of narrative and persuasive writing than peers in the control group. There were also differences in performance between the SRSD only group and the SRSD plus peer support group. The first difference was that the SRSD plus peer support group initially produced better narrative writing than both the SRSD and control groups. However, after a period of maintenance, practice and further scaffolding, the SRSD only group also produced narrative writing of a higher quality than the control group (Harris et al., 2006). Secondly, the writing of the SRSD peer support group included more language and text features in their narrative and persuasive writing than their SRSD and control group peers. They were also able to replicate this learning for their teacher when asked to produce a piece of persuasive writing as part of a regular classroom programme.

In summary, Harris et al's (2006) study attributed the improved writing performance to the availability of peer support to encourage and monitor the application of learning strategies and knowledge during the learning process. These researchers also found peer support aided learners to maintain their knowledge and skills, and transfer it to other tasks. The results of this research also showed that explicit strategy teaching was of benefit to learners who struggle with writing leading to improved writing performance (Harris et al., 2006). While the learners in the control group made progress, it was

significantly less than that of the learners in the SRSD groups (Harris et al., 2006). The work of Harris et al (2006) has been replicated by others, such as Glaser, Brunstein and Harris (2007), Zumbrunn and Bruning (2013), Perry and Drummond and Hacker et al (2015), with similar results.

In the New Zealand context, Watson (2004; 2005) reported on a small-scale research study carried out in a Year 5 and 6 class in an urban, decile 7 school. The goal of the study was to investigate the changing roles of the teacher (from teacher to facilitator or mentor) and students (from passive participants to leaders and owners of their learning) through the introduction of self-regulated strategies in writing (Watson, 2004). The researcher worked with the class teacher to plan a five week, persuasive writing unit of work which incorporated explicit teaching of writing and self-regulatory strategies. Six students, working at levels two and three of the English Curriculum, were the focus of the study and alongside the teacher, were observed and interviewed during the unit of work (Watson, 2004; 2005).

The teacher spent time deconstructing and analysing a variety of exemplars with the students so they became aware of what constitutes a quality persuasive texts. Care was taken to develop a common understanding of the writing features, purpose and potential audiences of persuasive writing to support student writing and evaluation. Success criteria were co-constructed which were used alongside the exemplars throughout the writing process, to support planning, self-monitoring and peer review. Learners had opportunities to practice writing examples with peers which they evaluated using the success criteria and exemplars. The students were supported to plan their writing through a class brainstorm of topic ideas and the use of a planning format. Goals were set by selecting criteria from the co-constructed success criteria students wanted to work on. As students completed each paragraph, they met with a peer to review their writing using the success criteria and identify areas for improvement. Through use of a conferencing system, learners engaged in dialogue with the teacher to acquire feedback. To evaluate their writing, they used their goals and the success criteria to find evidence in their work to illustrate how they had met each criterion. Throughout the unit, learners increasingly took responsibility for and ownership of their learning (Watson, 2004; 2005).

Explicit teaching, modelling and scaffolding of writing and self-regulatory strategies, such as planning, goal setting, self-monitoring and feedback, supported the six learners to take responsibility for their learning. Throughout this unit of work, the researcher noted the six learners became increasingly independent, able to manage and monitor their learning, access support from their peers and from the supporting tools, such as models and wall charts (Watson, 2004). They were aware of the purpose of their writing and the impact it needed to make. As they completed and evaluated their first piece of writing, the six learners were able to select new goals for their next piece (Watson, 2004; 2005). A shift in responsibility for generating feedback was also observed. As the unit progressed, the six participants attended conferences with the teacher, prepared with evidence demonstrating how they had met their learning goals. They shared this information and read their texts to their teacher. This

enabled the teacher to adopt the role of an interested member of the audience, and provide explicit feedback from this perspective. The teacher asked questions about the writing, discussed choices made, and the impact of these choices on the audience with the learners, who justified and explained their selections. Through these discussions, learners found they explained their ideas, revisited their planning and added more detail to clarify their argument. In addition, the teacher provided explicit feedback to reinforce each individual's use of specific self-regulatory strategies (Watson, 2005). Taking responsibility for assessing and evaluating their writing supported the learners in developing understanding of their central role in the learning process (Watson, 2004).

The six students reported increased self-efficacy, motivation and commitment to their learning (Watson, 2005). However, the researcher noted a number of challenges for the teacher and learners. For learners, selecting a limited number of specific goals from the success criteria rather than trying to achieve every criteria was one challenge (Watson, 2005). Another was for learners to develop an awareness of how they could apply their self-regulatory and writing strategies to other domains and tasks. For the teacher, managing the diverse learning needs of self-regulating learners was a challenge. The teacher needed to be "able to move between roles, recognising the teachable moment, when to be an expert, and when to give greater responsibility and control, in a meaningful way, to students" (Watson, 2005, p.37).

Themes from classroom-based studies of student self-regulation

Common themes in relation to the development of student self-regulation are apparent in the aforementioned studies (Harris et al., 2006; Watson, 2005) and in other studies undertaken in different curriculum areas, (e.g. Darr & Fisher, 2005; Joyce & Hipkins, 2005). The first theme is the importance of designing a task and providing an environment that affords learners rich opportunities to practise and develop expertise in the use of self-regulatory strategies (Boekaerts, 1997; Darr & Fisher, 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman, 1990). Success in relation to students' writing progress and the development of self-regulation evident in the writing studies discussed earlier (Harris et al., 2006; Watson, 2004; 2005) can in part be attributed to the clear nature of the task and the opportunities created for collaboration, setting goals, practising skills, monitoring learning, and support through feedback conferences, modelling and scaffolding. Task design is noted as an important aspect of developing student self-regulation in mathematics classes (Darr & Fisher, 2005). The design and use of authentic, challenging problem solving tasks leads to greater collaboration and discussion amongst the learners regarding their methodologies and effective alternatives. Paris and Paris (2001) highlight the importance of tasks that challenge students and promote persistence, autonomy, collaboration, strategy use, choice and control. Approaches to task design conducive to the promotion of self-regulation include reciprocal teaching (Alton-Lee, Westera, & Pulegatoa-Diggins, 2012; Boekaerts, 1997), project-based learning (Paris & Paris, 2001), and problem solving (Alton-Lee, Hunter, Sinnema, & Pulegatoa-Diggins, 2012; Darr & Fisher, 2005; Hunter, 2012). Pedagogical approaches associated with Assessment for Learning (Timperley & Parr, 2009) and self-regulated

strategy development (Graham et al., 2005; Harris et al., 2006) have also been found to support the development of student self-regulation.

A second theme relates to the question of whether the skills and strategies of self-regulation are transferrable across learning domains (Boekaerts, 1997; 1999; Darr & Fisher, 2005; Harris et al., 2006; Joyce & Hipkins, 2005; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Watson, 2005; Winne & Hadwin, 2010; Zimmerman, 2002). A challenge for the teacher in Watson's (2005) study was to make connections across domains and tasks explicit to the learners, as she wanted the knowledge, skills and strategies acquired in the writing unit to be employed in other learning domains (Watson, 2005). Similarly, explicit teaching of self-regulation is part of the SRSD intervention. An aspect of this intervention is to support learners to generalise the self-regulatory strategies gained through the programme to other tasks and domains (Harris et al., 2006). However how strategies are put into practice and experienced may vary across domains (De Corte, Mason, Depaepe, & Verschaffel, 2011; Joyce & Hipkins, 2005; Kitsantas & Kavussanu, 2011; Sinatra & Taasoobshirazi, 2011; Tonks & Taboada, 2011). In a mathematics study carried out by Darr and Fisher (2005), student self-observations took the form of a reflective journal, where they recorded ideas, experiences, and emotions. For each reflection, a prompt was given so students could focus on an aspect of problem solving or mathematics knowledge. In contrast, musicians in a study carried out by Lehmann and Ericsson (1997) were found to observe their current performance mentally, noticing aural and physical features in relation to how their performance should sound, how it does sound and the actions required to create the performance. While only one element of self-regulation, these examples illustrate how through "selective use of specific processes that must be personally adapted to each learning task" (Zimmerman, 2002, p.66), the strategies of self-regulation can be adapted to suit differing learning tasks and domains (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2002).

Finally, whether self-regulation is best taught through a transmission model or a developmental model of learning is a subject for debate. Paris and Paris (2001) describe the transmission model as a "metaphor of acquisition, of learning new strategies and skills and then applying them in school" (2001, p.96). This model of instruction involves the teacher in direct instruction of self-regulation of strategies and skills which are then practiced by learners, often in a decontextualized manner. This model may not however motivate or support learners to autonomously use or adopt self-regulatory strategies (Paris & Paris, 2001). The alternative is a developmental or apprenticeship model, where learners learn to self-regulate by participating in tasks and lessons that call for the use of specific self-regulatory and skills (Boekaerts, 1997; Dignath, Buettner, & Langfeldt, 2008; Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a). This model supports the view that learners become more regulated as develop agency through immersion in tasks where they are required to learn and adapt strategies to manage their learning (Paris & Paris, 2001). This developmental model was apparent in studies undertaken by Watson (2005), Darr and Fisher (2005), and Joyce and Hipkins (2005). While approaches were modified due to the domain, learners participated in lessons where the teaching of self-regulatory strategies was embedded with domain specific tasks. Each teacher modelled the use of

these strategies within the context of the task and provided scaffolded opportunities for learners to apply these strategies in authentic situations. Collaboration with peers for learning support and feedback was planned for and scaffolded. Self-monitoring systems and reflection were introduced so learners could recognise progress made and the causes of it. In each study, learners took greater responsibility and ownership of their learning, made progress and acquired self-regulatory knowledge and skills. Within this developmental approach, teachers need to have knowledge of the learners and strong pedagogical content knowledge in order to identify the appropriate moments to provide feedback, scaffolding or modelling (Boekaerts, 1997; Dreaver, 2009; Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman, 2002).

Research aim and questions

In summary, the literature on self-regulation highlights the positive impact self-regulation has on student learning, autonomy, self-efficacy and motivation through the use of strategies such as goal setting, task selection, self-monitoring, feedback and reflection. The current study aimed to investigate how self-regulation was developed in a writing context, identifying which strategies were promoted by the class teachers. Particular attention was paid to how a group of Year 6 students responded to this teaching and subsequently self-regulated when writing. Students' differing experiences and understandings of self-regulation in writing and the impact this had on their learning formed the core of this research. As such, this study and its findings addressed gaps in the New Zealand and international research regarding self-regulation in writing and, more importantly, the student perspective of self-regulation, how they understood and experienced self-regulation in the writing classroom. The knowledge and evidence gained from this study will contribute to dialogue and discussion amongst interested researchers, teachers and those involved in education.

Specifically, the aim of this study was to examine Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom. The following research questions were addressed:

- What aspects of self-regulation (SR) [strategies] do teachers of Years 6 students intentionally promote in their writing programmes? How do they do this?
- How do students respond to these strategies?
- What differences are there in students' responses to these strategies?
- In what ways do students use SR strategies during writing?
- What value do students see in these strategies with reference to their writing?
- What factors help students to become self-regulating writers?
- What factors hinder students in becoming self-regulating writers?

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

The first section of this chapter provides a brief overview of the overarching framework of the inquiry. This is followed by an outline of the research design. The third, fourth and fifth sections address, respectively, ethical issues, approaches to data collection and analysis of data. The chapter concludes with a consideration of issues related to plausibility.

Inquiry Framework

The aim of this research was to investigate Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom. As such the study examined how self-regulation was developed in a writing context and identified self-regulated learning strategies promoted by the class teacher. Particular attention was paid to how a group of Year 6 students responded to the strategies of self-regulation when writing.

This study took the form of an interpretive inquiry and used a qualitative research approach. Interpretive researchers seek to understand the meanings people attach to actions and events that occur within natural, everyday contexts (Check & Schutt, 2012; Ormston, Spencer, Barnard, & Snape, 2014). Interpretive researchers acknowledge that individuals have their own beliefs, values, motives, and knowledge which influence their actions and help form their interpretation of interactions or events that take place. Therefore each person has their own unique perspective and set of experiences, and hence multiple realities are created (Check & Schutt, 2012; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Denscombe, 2014). Researchers using an interpretivist approach seek to uncover and understand these myriad perspectives, interpretations, underlying beliefs and values held by individuals. Of interest is the social context within which people operate and the effect this has on their perspectives and interpretations of events (Merriam, 2009; Ormston et al., 2014). Thus knowledge is seen as contextually bound and socially constructed. Significantly the researcher is positioned alongside participants so their interpretations and subjective meanings can be understood (Denscombe, 2014; Mutch, 2013).

Qualitative methods enable researchers to examine participants' experiences, thoughts, feelings and/or activities of individuals or a group as they occur in context. These are presented as a rich, thick description to assist others' understanding of the phenomenon (Denscombe, 2014; Mutch, 2013). This thick description can come from "careful observation, open-ended interviews with participants, or detailed examination of documents or artefacts" (Mutch, 2013), data collection methods which closely involve the researcher.

A number of types of qualitative approaches exist, such as ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, narrative and case study (Merriam, 2009). Each has a particular way of exploring and interpreting the information collected, for example ethnography draws on and is concerned with the experiences and interactions of participants within their culture (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009). Given the scale and bounded nature of the current research, a case study was selected as the most appropriate type of qualitative method for this inquiry. For the purposes of this research, a case study approach was selected as the most appropriate vehicle for in-depth exploration and illustration of the phenomenon – Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation. Using a case study approach provided an opportunity to “delve deeply into the intricacies of situation in order to describe things in detail, compare alternatives or, perhaps, provide an account that explores particular aspects of the situation” (Denscombe, 2014, p.56). Using data collected from multiple sources, such as observations, interviews and documents, a rich, thick description of the phenomenon can be created illustrating the interactions of the variables involved (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009).

Case Study

A case study is a self-contained entity with distinct boundaries which demarcate the phenomenon being scrutinised (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009). These boundaries tend to be intrinsically formed, for example, through the number of participants available to be interviewed or the time available to collect data. Boundaries may also be formed naturally by the issue, programme, or process being examined (Merriam, 2009). The case for the current study was a complex, self-contained phenomenon (self-regulation) with distinct boundaries. The research was bounded in time, as data was collected between June and October. It was bounded by the area of learning, a writing unit; and it was bounded in place, as it was located within a Year 6 'modern learning environment' (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006) classroom, in a state school within the western suburbs of Auckland City.

All case studies share some common characteristics (Denscombe, 2014). The first is their particularistic nature, with a specific focus on a situation, programme or phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). The current study was particularistic as it focussed on teachers' promotion of self-regulation within a writing programme and students' responses in relation to their experiences and understandings of self-regulation when writing. The second characteristic is the heuristic nature of case studies as they give insight into and assign meaning to the phenomenon under scrutiny, thus adding to the reader's knowledge (Merriam, 2009). The current case provided insight into the Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in writing, and the factors which helped and hindered them. They provided a wealth of information, having had a wide range of writing experiences to draw on which they could articulate and communicate clearly. Information gathered from the teachers was also of heuristic value as it was able to be used to illustrate the strategies and structures that develop student self-regulation.

Despite the richness of data and the insight and description developed from a case study, this method has been critiqued for its perceived inability to generalise findings to other contexts or scenarios (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009). This is in part due to the small scale, bounded nature of case study, which often has a small number of participants. Factors such as this restrict the representativeness of the findings (Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009). However as others have argued while a case is unique, it is an example of phenomena potentially occurring elsewhere (Check & Schutt, 2012; Denscombe, 2014). The onus is therefore on the researcher to provide sufficiently rich detail in his/her findings so readers themselves can identify relevant information and make comparisons with other settings.

Selection of the site

A deliberate choice of site needs to be made with reference to the specific attributes and distinctive features of the setting. Selection is influenced by factors such as accessibility and availability of participants or the site represents a typical instance of the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2014). For the current study the site, a school, was selected from a number of potential schools where students engage in writing as part of the curriculum. While the setting for this case study was carefully selected based on its attributes and the relevance of these to the research problem and questions, the choice of site was considered a typical instance (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009).

Non-probability sampling is the recommended method for the selection of site and participants for small-scale research projects such as a case study (Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009). Common to qualitative research, non-probability sampling allows for deliberate selection of the site and participants based on particular characteristics and features relevant to the problem being investigated. Several forms of non-probability sampling exist, including purposive, snowball, convenience and quota sampling (Check & Schutt, 2012; Cohen et al., 2011; Ritchie, Lewis, Elam, Tennant, & Rahim, 2014). Purposive sampling was used to select the site and participants for the current study to ensure their typicality and relevancy to the case. The following criteria were used to select the school site, in this case a state primary school:

- The school was to be located in the western or central suburbs of Auckland city to facilitate ease of access by the researcher.
- Within the Year 5 or Year 6 classes at the school, the teachers implemented programmes consistent with the promotion of self-regulated learning in writing.
- Within the Year 5 or Year 6 classes, a written language unit was to be taught between June and October.

To assist with selection of the site, advice was sought from a senior educational consultant with experience working with West and Central Auckland schools. The consultant recommended several

schools which met the criteria for site selection, in particular the implementation of programmes consistent with the promotion of self-regulated learning in writing. Initial contact was made by telephone with the principal of the first recommended school to arrange a meeting to discuss the research project and ascertain interest. An information sheet (Appendix A) introducing the researcher and outlining information regarding the research was provided. A consent form (Appendix B) was also provided for the principal to sign if they agreed the research could take place in this setting. If a positive response was not obtained from the first school, the same process was to be repeated with the next school recommended by the consultant.

The selected site, teachers, students and curriculum area

The selected school was a large, contributing West Auckland primary school with a decile rating of 8. The principal was contacted by telephone in late June and an initial meeting was organised so the researcher had an opportunity to explain the aims of the project, data collection processes and answer questions. At the request of the principal, the lead teacher responsible for the school wide development of self-regulated learning was invited to attend this meeting. Each was provided with the appropriate information sheets (Appendices A and C). After discussing the aims and research methodology, both the principal and lead teacher believed the research would be of benefit to the teachers, students and the school as it would provide feedback as to the effectiveness of the Year 5 and Year 6 teaching practices and student learning. The principal duly gave consent to access the school site, teachers and students (Appendix B). A letter confirming school participation was provided (Appendix D). As consent to access this site to undertake this research was given, no further schools were contacted.

The researcher was then introduced to the seven teachers of Year 5 and Year 6, and given an opportunity to discuss the research and provide participation information sheets (Appendix C) and consent forms (Appendix E) to read and consider. Two of the teachers agreed to participate and signed the teacher consent forms. A letter confirming the teachers' participation was provided (Appendix F). These two teachers shared and co-taught a class of approximately 60 students and had both taught at the school for a number of years. Eloise was an experienced teacher who had taught across a variety of year levels, with a preference for Years 5 and 6 classes. She has expertise in Literacy and Gifted and Talented Education. Eloise held school-wide responsibility for teacher development in the use of pedagogical practices which facilitate student management of their learning across the curriculum in a modern learning environment. At the time of this study, Kirstin has been teaching Years 5 and 6 students at this school for six years and has expertise in mathematics. She led mathematics across the school, supporting teachers to develop their pedagogy and mathematics knowledge. She was also a tutor teacher, supporting the professional development of a provisionally registered teacher.

The teachers agreed to give the appropriate information and consent/assent forms to students in both classes. They issued participant information sheets for students and their parents (Appendices G and H) as well as assent forms for students (Appendix I), and consent forms for their parents (Appendix J) prior to the end of the second school term in early July. Six student participants were required for this research. On receipt of the student and parent responses, the teachers selected from the pool of those who agreed to participate: two students below, two students at and two students above the national standard for writing. The teachers had been asked to carry out this selection task as they had data regarding the levels at which the student were achieving in writing. The study needed two at each level so any differences in students' responses, engagement and use of self-regulation with reference to levels of achievement could be discerned. The six selected students approached agreed to participate. A letter confirming student participation was given to each student selected and to those not selected (Appendix K).

Of the six student participants, Sophia was considered by the teachers to be working at level four, thus achieving above the national standard for writing. Coming up with the right topic was an important part of the writing process for Sophia, because "when you actually have an emotional connection...you're eager to write it" (Sophia, Student Interview 4, p.12). Writing had become enjoyable for Sophia at school because she had freedom to make choices and a variety of writing tasks to be involved in. Kelly was assessed by the teachers as achieving at an advanced level three and beginning to achieve above the national standard for writing. Kelly spoke of how he liked writing about gaming or things he's done, because he "can write what you want to write about and exaggerate" (Kelly, Student Interview 4, p.11). He was driven by deadlines, and would take work home to complete it on time. The third participant, Lily, was assessed by the teachers as working within level 3 or achieving at the national standard for writing. Lily was motivated to achieve her goals because "you have to have it done...keep on doing it, you can do this. It's like no one can stop you" (Lily, Student Interview 2, p.8). She particularly valued learning within this learning environment, as it gave her choice in relation to topics, learning partners and places to work. Ioane was considered to be achieving within level 3 and at the National Standard for Writing by the teachers. Ioane spoke of enjoying writing because "you can express your feelings during writing...with a pencil and a book (Ioane, Student Interview 1, p1). For him, a big part of this was knowing what he was doing when writing, which he attributed to participation in workshops. John was assessed by the teachers as achieving below the National Standard for Writing and was working within level 2. John enjoyed writing at home and school, particularly free choice writing so he could choose the topic, use description and onomatopoeia. Having choice over the writing topic was important to John as he would rather not write about the same things as others. Vania was also achieving below the National Standard for Writing and working within level 2. Vania had a background as an English Language Learner, with Hindi being her first language. She enjoyed writing, particularly genre she had already learned such as information reports or descriptive writing.

Writing, a core learning area, was selected as the curriculum area for the current study for a number of reasons. As such lessons occur on a daily basis in NZ classrooms. In addition, writing has also been a focus of a number of teacher professional learning programmes in NZ. These programmes have focussed on developing teacher curriculum and pedagogical content knowledge. A further reason for selecting writing as the focus is the strong connection between the writing process and strategies associated with self-regulation.

Ethical Issues

To ensure research is carried out in an ethical and fair manner, researchers are guided by a set of principles:

- Participation is voluntary and based on informed consent gained without coercion;
- The interests of the participants are protected, avoiding physical, psychological and personal harm. This includes maintaining participant confidentiality and anonymity. Participants should be treated fairly and benefit from participation in the research;
- Researchers avoid deception and misrepresentation in all aspects of the research project. This includes the provision of sufficient information for participants to make an informed decision regarding their involvement and accurately presenting research findings.

(Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2014; Webster, Lewis, & Brown, 2014).

As already described, all participants were fully informed of the research and consent was gained without coercion.

A challenge for this research project was to maintain the anonymity of the teacher and student participants due to methods of data collection (interviews and observations). Participation in the research would be known amongst the class. In addition, involvement of the teachers was quite likely known to the principal and their colleagues due to the presence of the researcher in the classroom for an extended period of time. All participants were asked to not discuss their involvement in the research project or the contents of their interviews. To maintain the anonymity of the participating school, teachers' and students' pseudonyms have been used in the final thesis. Any names used by the participants during the interview process were replaced with generic pseudonyms such as friend, peer or student. As interviews were transcribed, a confidentiality agreement was completed and signed by the transcriber (Appendix L).

Benefits to the students and teachers from participation in the research were identified. For the teachers involved, the key benefit was to gain insight into the experiences of and the strategies and knowledge used by students as self-regulating learners in writing. For the students, they could gain greater awareness of their learning processes as self-regulating learners in writing and the impact this has on the quality of their writing. Through their involvement, students could potentially gain insight

into the skills and strategies they use successfully to regulate their learning, and those that may need further development

Risks to the participants were also considered. For the teachers, an assurance was sought and given from the Principal that their decision to participate or not would not affect their employment. For the student participants an assurance was given that the focus of the study was on their understanding, experience and use of self-regulation strategies in writing, not on their level of achievement. As participation in the research was voluntary, participants had the right to withdraw should they wish. However, once analysis commenced, participants were not able to withdraw their data. At no stage was it possible for participants to withdraw data gathered through classroom observations and recordings. Information regarding this aspect was outlined in the participant information sheets.

Data Collection

A feature of a case study is the opportunity to explore the multiple perspectives related to a particular context (Lewis & McNaughton Nicholls, 2014). To effectively do this, a variety of data collection methods are required to capture in-depth qualitative information relevant to the research questions. For this research project, the approaches selected were observation, semi-structured interviews and the collection of documents.

Observation

Regular observations of the writing programme were carried out three to four times a week between July and October. The advantage of this method of data collection was the ability to gather evidence of teaching and learning as they normally occurred within the classroom setting (Cohen et al., 2011; McNaughton Nicholls, Mills, & Kotecha, 2014). In the role of observer-as-participant (Merriam, 2009), the researcher directly observed the interactions, activities and behaviours which occurred during whole-class and small group writing lessons in situ. During these small group lessons, referred to by the teachers and students as workshops, the students gathered with a teacher at one of the designated teaching spaces. Using field notes, the researcher recorded interactions, activities and behaviours that occurred on an observation schedule (Appendix M). Criteria on this schedule were developed from the strategies and practices of self-regulated learning described in the three phases of Zimmerman's model (2008; 2011). These criteria were used as a guide and prompt to highlight and identify strategies and behaviours as they occurred in the lesson. Information recorded on this schedule also included details such as the context (teaching, conference, independent learning or peer interaction); the date of the observation and participants. A completed observation schedule can be found in Appendix N.

The presence of a researcher within the setting can be intrusive and influence behaviour and interactions (Cohen et al., 2011; McNaughton Nicholls et al., 2014). Regular attendance at writing lessons (three or four times per week) during the period of data collection helped however to normalise the presence of the researcher in the classroom and minimise disruption to the setting (Denscombe, 2014; McNaughton Nicholls et al., 2014). Strategies were employed to minimise disturbance and influence by the researcher (Denscombe, 2014), including seeking an unobtrusive position from which to observe, such as sitting at the back of the class or at the side of a group, and minimising interactions with participants during an observation.

Interviews

Interviews are considered “a method of data collection that uses people’s answers to researchers’ questions as a source of data” (Denscombe, 2014, p.184). The data collected provides insights into the participants’ experiences, understandings, beliefs and perspectives of their actions.

Three types of interviews are identified in the literature: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009; Mutch, 2013). The selection of interview type is dependent on the nature of research being undertaken. The three types differ with reference to the responses being sought, the amount of control the researcher exerts over questions and responses, and how responsive the researcher is to respondents’ contributions (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Denscombe, 2014). For this study, semi-structured interviews were considered most appropriate as these allowed for a flexible, responsive approach. While questions or topics for discussion were formulated prior to the interview, the researcher was able to be flexible as to the order in which questions were asked and could ask additional, more probing questions in response to issues raised by a respondent. There was also the opportunity for respondents to raise or elaborate on issues, opinions and experiences during the interview (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Denscombe, 2014).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the two teachers to ascertain learning priorities, the scope of the learning planned, the roles of the teacher and students in the class, and the teaching of self-regulatory strategies. Four interviews between 25 and 60 minutes were conducted with both teachers. All interviews were conducted in the teachers’ shared classroom with both teachers in attendance for each interview. Each interview was audio-recorded, transcribed and verified by the teachers. A schedule of questions was developed for each interview (Appendix O). Both teachers participated in two interviews prior to the commencement of the unit. The first interview, focussed on class organisation for learning, teacher pedagogy, the use and development of self-regulatory processes and strategies. The second interview, focussed on the unit plan, learning and writing strategies to be utilised and teacher expectations of student engagement and progress. The third interview, occurred during the unit. It provided an opportunity for both teachers to reflect on the teaching and learning that had occurred, particularly the perceived effectiveness of feedback,

workshops and monitoring by teachers and students. At the final interview, the progress and achievement of the student participants was discussed.

Interviews were carried out with participating students to gain their perspectives, understandings and experiences regarding the use of self-regulatory strategies when writing. Each student participated individually in four formal interviews. A schedule of questions was developed for each interview (Appendix I). Each interview took place within the learning environment, in a quiet area chosen by the student. The length of each interview varied between 20 and 35 minutes. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. As per stated protocols, the participants could ask for the recording of the interview to be stopped at any time.

The first formal interview with each student occurred at the start of the writing unit, following a self-assessment and goal setting exercise that they had completed in class. At this stage, students were planning their piece of writing. The focus of these interviews was to ascertain student perceptions of their writing knowledge, skill and attitude towards writing. Also discussed were:

- Goals for writing;
- Writing preparation;
- Use of support and self-monitoring;
- How they accessed and used feedback;
- The nature of their preferred learning environment.

The second formal interview took place as students were completing their persuasive writing. This interview focussed on students' goals and evidence of these in their writing. Also in this interview, the students also talked about who they sought support and feedback from, and how they acted on this information. The purpose of third interview was to ascertain student perceptions of collaborative learning and the value of feedback. Also discussed were methods students used to motivate themselves during learning. The final interview focussed on student self-evaluation of their persuasive writing, the value of effective feedback and their attitudes with regard to writing. Also in this interview, the students also talked about the benefits and challenges of collaborating with others and how they organised their learning, such as their use of independent learning days/weeks and choice of tasks. In addition, spontaneous chats with the six participants occurred during lessons as they completed tasks. These conversations focussed on a specific aspect of task or a strategy being used, for example, choice of topic for writing, planning writing or the changes made to writing in response to feedback from a peer. Details of these spontaneous discussions were recorded as field notes on the observation schedules.

Documents

Documents are a valuable source of evidence as they represent a permanent record of events or actions (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009). Unlike interviews and observations, documentary data are produced independently of the research, without the influence of the researcher and can be collected relatively unobtrusively (Merriam, 2009). Care needs to be taken to establish the authenticity and credibility of documentary material, verifying when it was produced, its purpose and the person/people who created it (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009).

Permission was gained from the teachers and students to collect a variety of documentation. Planning documents and resources used to support teaching were collected from the teachers. These resources included exemplars, the persuasive writing rubric, anecdotal records of teacher monitoring, task instruction sheets as well as documents recording co-constructed success criteria, student prior knowledge and topic ideas. From the students, writing samples, self-assessment and goals setting records, and planning sheets were collected at regular intervals. These documents were obtained to provide insight and evidence, alongside the interview data, in relation to the writing processes and self-regulatory strategies used by the students during writing.

Analysis of Data

Analysis involves the systematic scrutiny of all data with a view to determining “key components or general principles underlying a particular phenomenon so that these can be used to provide a clearer understanding of the thing” (Denscombe, 2014, p.119). A methodical process is needed so the researcher can make sense of data and answer the research question(s). For the present study, a thematic approach (Ezzy, 2002) was utilised, in association with elements from the constant comparative method of data analysis (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973). The teacher and student data sets from this study were comprised of transcripts from semi-structured interviews, documentary evidence, field notes from classroom observations during the unit of work and related artefacts. All data sets were systematically and carefully coded to identify concepts, patterns and overarching themes (Ezzy, 2002; Schatzman & Strauss, 1973). The constant comparative method was used to create and apply open and axial codes, prior to the identification of overarching themes (see Appendices Q and R).

Open codes derived from the self-regulation literature such as ‘*active learners*’, ‘*student agency*’, ‘*goals*’, ‘*prior knowledge*’ and ‘*self-efficacy*’ were initially applied to the data. As coding proceeded, additional codes such as ‘*rubric/criteria*’, ‘*topic choice*’, ‘*thinking buddies*’ and ‘*identifying features*’ were induced from the data. Collectively, these two approaches to open coding (deductive and inductive) generate an on-going, iterative dialogue between data and theory (see samples of analysis in Appendices Q and R). The codes used and application of these were checked at regular intervals by the researcher’s academic supervisors to ensure a satisfactory level of application and agreement was

attained. Following the open coding of all data sets, axial codes and overarching themes were established. Axial codes are generated from open codes rather than the data – as such they capture the relationship between groups of open codes and their properties. For example, as part of this process, goal setting was ‘elevated’ to the position of axial code comprised of a number of open codes such as ‘*rubric/criteria*’ and ‘*identifying features*’. This axial code was then positioned under the overarching theme of ‘*Forethought*’ – *this theme included other axial codes such as ‘Knowing what is expected’ and what constitutes quality work’ and ‘Selecting workshops appropriate to needs’*. As explained by Merriam (1998) the “[analysis] process is one of breaking data down into bits of information and then assigning these bits to categories or classes which bring these bits together again in a novel way” (p.180).

Finally, all codes with their associated categories were assigned to one of the three overarching phases of Zimmerman’s (2000a) model of self-regulation. This was considered an appropriate way to integrate data and theory, enabling analysis to move iteratively between description and explanation (Ezzy, 2002). At this point, the teachers’ and students’ data was reviewed to identify any anomalies, omissions and ensure evidence vital to answering the research questions or interpreting the participants’ viewpoints had been included. A process of constant comparison (Newby, 2010) was employed throughout this coding process. This was particularly crucial during the analysis of the students’ data due to their varying viewpoints, experiences and understandings and the amount of evidence gathered. This constant review of the codes employed and the information collected ensured:

- they were relevant to the research questions;
- appropriate categories and sub-categories were created;
- relevant and vital information was recorded in the appropriate category;
- information irrelevant to the research questions and categories was removed.

Analysis is therefore an iterative process of organising and reorganising data with a view to establishing coherence and consistency with and across categories and themes (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973) with reference to the aim of the study. Throughout this process, as noted earlier, peer debriefing was employed as a credibility check (Lincoln & Guba, 1985)

Plausibility

The plausibility of the findings was established through application of four evaluative criteria: credibility, confirmability, transferability and dependability (Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009).

Credibility

Credibility in interpretive research is concerned with establishing the accuracy of the findings. Four strategies were employed in this study to establish credibility. Member checks or respondent validation

(Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009) was the first of these where the two teachers were given the opportunity to review the transcripts of their interviews, confirm the contents and provide feedback. While they received all transcripts, no changes were requested.

Triangulation was the second strategy used (Cohen et al., 2011; Denscombe, 2014; Merriam, 2009). Two forms of triangulation were used: data triangulation and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation describes the use and comparison of data collected at different points in time prior to, during and at the end of the unit of work from different participants, in this case, the teachers and students. This allowed for a comparison of perspectives and experiences of learning events during the unit of work from the evidence collected (Flick, 2009). Methodological triangulation involves using differing methods to collect data so it can be compared, contrasted and checked (Denscombe, 2014; Flick, 2009; Merriam, 2009). A within-method approach was employed as three methods of data collection were utilised: interviews, observation and document analysis (Denscombe, 2014; Flick, 2009). The use of observation and collection of documents enabled the researcher to ascertain what was happening rather than relying solely on perceptions gained through interviews.

Another strategy used to establish credibility concerned prolonged engagement (Merriam, 2009). A longitudinal approach was used to collect data from the same group of participants at different points of time over a relatively lengthy period of time (June to October) (Cohen et al., 2011). This involved the researcher spending sufficient time collecting data, in effect reaching saturation point when there was a repeated occurrence of events or phenomena and no new data emerged (Merriam, 2009; Mutch, 2013). For the current study, the researcher attended three or four writing lessons per week over a four month period.

Finally, peer review and interrogation were used as a method to confirm credibility. This occurred through regular debriefing sessions with the researcher's academic supervisors where the researcher discussed, questioned and defended the research design, findings and analysis (Merriam, 2009; Mutch, 2013).

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree with which the research findings are reflected in the data, without undue influence of the researcher's interpretations, beliefs, values and perspectives (Denscombe, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This requires a close examination of the connections between the data, analyses and interpretations. Use of an audit trail (Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009) is valuable as it enables others to check the explanations and interpretations provided by the researcher (See appendices). To ensure confirmability, the researcher is required to provide appropriate evidence and explanation regarding the research process, particularly selection of participants, data collection and analysis, and how conclusions were reached (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For this study, the research

processes have been described in this chapter with additional evidence provided in the form of appendices.

Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the inferences and conclusions of the study are representative of the wider population and/or other contexts (Denscombe, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). Given the small scale nature of this case study, the onus is on the researcher to provide a 'rich, thick description' of the participants, setting, methodology and study findings, with evidence from the data such as quotes and documents. This enables the reader to make decisions as to whether the study findings apply to or are representative of his/her situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). These descriptions can be found in this chapter and in Chapters 5 and 6.

Dependability

Dependability is concerned with consistency of findings. Rather than expecting that other researchers will gain the same results if they replicate the research, those conducting qualitative research endeavour to demonstrate that given the use of explicit methods and analysis there is consistency between the data and findings (Denscombe, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). The researcher has a responsibility to explain the research process and provide evidence to support dependability. This explanation has been provided in this chapter and is also addressed in Chapters 5 and 6.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHER FINDINGS

Data in this chapter is drawn from the four interviews with Eloise and Kirstin, the two classroom teachers, with additional information from field notes. The first two interviews were held prior to the start of the unit of work, the third during the unit of work and the final interview at the end of the unit. The first section of the chapter briefly describes the learning environment. The next section addresses how the teachers foster self-regulation, highlighting their belief that writing is an active process which students have to manage. The teachers' high expectations of the learners is also discussed in this section. The next three sections of the teachers' findings are organised according to Zimmerman's model of self-regulation (2000a) and discuss conditions the two teachers considered pivotal to student self-regulation and management of the writing process. For the Forethought phase, the importance of students' understanding where they are going and what is expected is discussed. In relation to the Performance phase, teacher beliefs and practices in relation to workshops, students' use of feedback, as well as student self-monitoring are addressed. The final section focusses on the Self-reflection phase, in particular the importance to the teachers of student self-evaluation.

The Classroom space

Eloise's and Kirstin's combined class of 60 Year 6 students occupied a large teaching-learning space which had been developed from two traditional classrooms and an additional space known as Whare Awhina (helping room). Eloise referred to these areas as a "modern learning environment [where] lots of stuff is done online and their books aren't as full" (Teacher Interview 1, p.9). Rather than the traditional pattern of individual desks and chairs, arranged either singly or in groups, the environment was comprised of a number of flexible, multi-purpose teaching-learning spaces. As evident in Figure 5.1, a range of high and low tables, carrel desks, circular and curved tables as well as ottomans, chairs, stools and bean bags, which could be moved and manipulated by the students and teachers to suit teaching-learning purposes, were used to furnish these spaces.

Figure 5.1: Furnishings in Whare Awhina



Within Where Awhina, students had ready access to resources to support their learning, such as art materials, reference books, a 3D printer, iPads and laptops. As shown in Figure 5.2, walls were used to display student work and teaching resources, such as success criteria, mind maps, and models and exemplars for writing and other subjects. If needed, moveable walls could be used to divide areas.

Figure 5.2: Display areas within the classroom space



During writing lessons, as shown in Figure 5.3, the teachers met with the whole class in a central meeting space referred to as 'Room 2'.

Figure 5.3: The whole class meeting space



The various classroom spaces provided a flexible teaching and learning areas that supported student participation. As part of taking responsibility for and managing their learning, Kirstin and Eloise expected students to select appropriate places to carry out their writing tasks. For both teachers giving students the opportunity to choose and make decisions about where to work was important:

“There’s lots of choice ...if you prefer to work like this...you do it this way. Here are all the options, you pick the one that best suits what you’re trying to do. Do you want to work with someone else? Do you want to work on your own?” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.9).

Fostering Self-Regulation

Learning to write - an active process

The two teachers considered learning an active process: encouraging

“So our big focus is on our children being active...in that whole learning process. So we’ve worked really hard with our kids on stopping that idea that they’re passive in their learning process” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.1).

Neither Eloise nor Kirstin considered students passive recipients of information. Students needed to understand “that learning doesn’t happen to them, that they’re involved in that process” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.17).

Eloise and Kirstin expected their students to be actively involved in the writing process, through topic selection; goal setting and self-assessment; planning their writing; writing, recrafting and editing texts; attending workshops relevant to needs and evaluating their work. Being active also involved taking responsibility for their learning and being self-managing in terms of maintaining their focus, being organised, seeking help from peers, and completing tasks. Both teachers were observed talking with individuals and groups about the importance of taking responsibility for their learning. In one lesson, Eloise talked with a group of students regarding behaviours that hinder learning, such as a lack of focus or energy, and knowing when they needed help (Observation 5). In another lesson, she spoke with students about strategies to use when needing help, such as seeking assistance from a thinking buddy or teacher (Observation 8). Each student had an assigned ‘thinking buddy’, a peer with whom he/she could seek help with a challenging aspect of their learning or feedback about their piece of work:

“They have their thinking buddies...and they can go to them at any point in time and they’ll drop whatever they’re doing ... and go and sit somewhere and work on that” (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 1 p.9).

To be active writers, students needed to take ownership over the process – “they have to have a voice, have to have a choice and a voice in what they’re doing and buy in really” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.17). Eloise was passionate about the notion that students need to manage and “...have control of [their] own learning and some ownership of that” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.18). Both teachers talked at some length about the sorts of conditions they as teachers needed to create and understandings they needed to engender in their students, if students were to take ownership over their writing and manage the writing process.

High expectations

Throughout the four interviews, it was apparent Kirstin and Eloise held high expectations for their students with Eloise commenting that she strove to engender in students a “belief that they can

achieve” (Teacher Interview 1, p.17). As a teaching team, they placed an emphasis on every student making progress and not limiting their expectations of students:

“...so really our expectations are about everyone will be moving forward, the pace will be different...We try not to put a ceiling on it” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.3).

Eloise talked about how she and Kirstin made clear to their students the link between effort and achievement, rather than attributing achievement to intellect:

“I think we’re working hard to get them to understand that things happen through work and effort, not by osmosis ... if you want something to go well you have to work at it and practice it. And when you put in the effort...then you’ll achieve really good results, if you’re prepared to work” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.10).

Both spoke about how it was vital to provide students with opportunities to celebrate their learning through, for example, sharing writing with others and using students’ writing as exemplars. It was also important to foster positive attitudes and increase student confidence in their ability to be successful writers. Kirstin in particular commented on how a number of the students in their class entered Year 6 with preconceived ideas regarding writing such as “I’m bad at this. It’s boring” (Teacher Interview 1, p.8). An important focus therefore was to develop students’ understandings about the nature and purpose of writing, with a view to developing more positive attitudes towards writing:

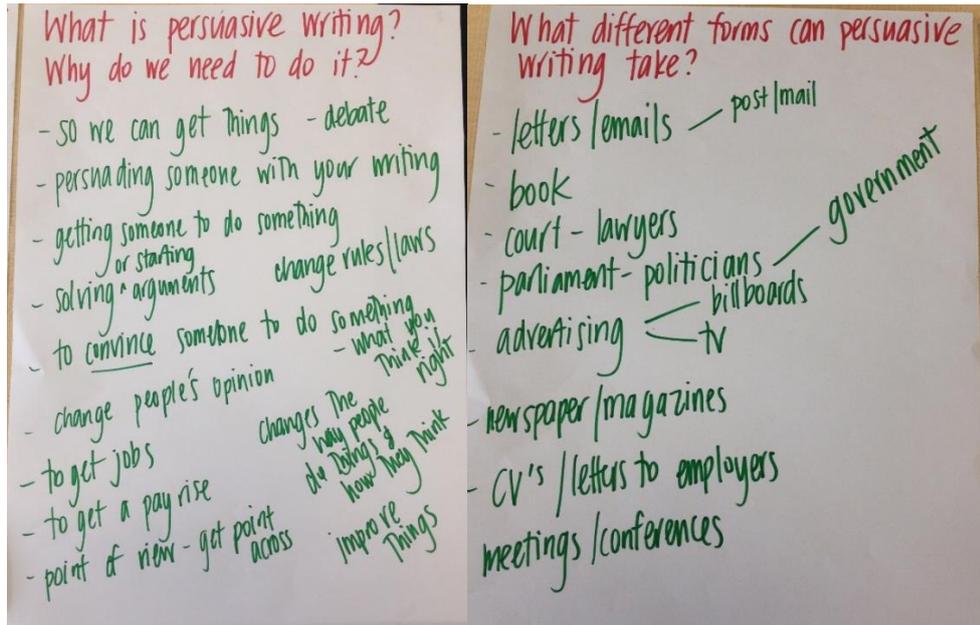
“[Writing is] actually a way of communicating. It’s a really positive thing to be able to do, to be able to write fluently and to get your ideas across is a really powerful thing” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.9).

The Forethought Phase

Students’ understanding where they are going and what is expected

Persuasive writing was the learning focus for writing in term 3. The unit aim was for students to create a persuasive text that will change “the way people do things and how they think and to improve things and to convince people” (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 2, p.1). Prior to beginning the unit, Eloise and Kirstin planned to gather students’ prior knowledge or “before view stuff” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 2, p.2) about persuasive texts.

Figure 5.4: Charts illustrating students' prior knowledge of persuasive writing



Both teachers spoke of the importance of students having goals as these would serve as points of reference during the writing process. To help students with their goal setting and to make it an authentic activity, Eloise and Kirstin asked their students to write a piece of persuasive text, a letter to the principal regarding a rule change at school, prior to the unit commencing. Students were then expected to assess their performance in this piece of text, and set goals for the upcoming unit of work:

“They’ll look at their own piece they’ve just done as a project, then they’ll identify their gaps”
(Eloise, Teacher Interview 2, p.2).

As part of this activity, Eloise and Kirstin had developed a persuasive writing rubric from a generic, schoolwide rubric. The rubric, which can be seen in Figure 5.5 below, was organised according to three levels of achievement, equivalent to levels two to four of the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007). Within each level, success criteria were organised within the following categories: audience awareness, content and ideas, structure, language resources and surface features (punctuation, spelling and grammar).

Figure 5.5: Persuasive writing rubric illustrating criteria for levels two, three and four

LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 4
<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is clear and easily understood by the audience</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have written my own ideas and supported them with some reasons or opinions - I have given more detail or commented on some of the data, reasons, and opinions I have given</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have recorded <u>most</u> of my ideas in a logical sequence - I begin my writing by taking a position - I have only used the most important details and ended with a summary - I have used simple conjunctions to link my ideas “and”, “but” - I have used simple sentences - I have used a variety of sentence beginnings (4 or less)</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have used some features of the language of persuasive writing: eg: emotive words, rhetorical questions, and descriptive language - I have used technical topic related words and cause and effect words</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I have spelt much of my work correctly - I have used capital letters, full stops, commas, questions marks and speech marks appropriately - My writing makes sense</p>	<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is clear, logical and easily understood by the audience - I am developing a clear personal voice</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have supported my argument with a range of <u>objective</u> ideas, data, reasons or opinions - I have supported the ideas, data, reasons or opinions with detail</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have recorded my ideas in a logical sequence - I begin my writing by taking a position - I develop this with evidence and restate it to conclude - I have used causal conjunctions “because” to link my ideas - I have used simple, compound, and complex sentences - I have used a variety of sentence beginnings (4 or more)</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have used some features of the language of persuasive writing with confidence - I consistently use emotive words, rhetorical questions, and descriptive language - I have used precise topic related words and cause and effect words to make my argument more objective</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I spelt most words correctly - I have used capital letters, full stops, commas, question marks, and apostrophes appropriately - My writing makes sense (correctly formed sentences, consistent use of tense, etc)</p>	<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is specifically targeted towards audience through my choice of content, language and writing style (personal voice) - I have shown a consistent position to persuade my audience</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have supported <u>each point</u> of my argument through choosing appropriate content, language and writing style - I have stated, re-stated and strengthened my position - I have provided enough support for each of my points</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have grouped my content logically using topic sentences to guide my audience - I begin my writing, re-state, and conclude clearly stating my position - I consistently use a variety of connectives within sentences and between paragraphs - My points and their supporting evidence are paragraphed linking ideas and supporting details.</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have confidently and deliberately selected and used a wide range of persuasive language features - I deliberately use language to identify my main points and to persuade the audience - My use of language is appropriate to my audience - I have used a variety of sentence structures, beginnings and lengths for effect</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I had few spelling errors in my work - I have used multi-syllabic, irregular or technical words - I have used successfully complex punctuation - My writing uses all grammatical conventions correctly. My errors do not interfere with my meaning.</p>

Eloise believed that getting students to go “through the rubric and unpack the language” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 2, p.2) was key to helping them understand the critical features of persuasive writing. As they applied the success criteria and levels firstly to an exemplar then to their own work, students become familiar with the language associated with persuasive writing. With reference to their own text (letter), students were expected to identify ‘gaps’ in their learning that could be linked to the rubric and used to identify and select three goals for the upcoming unit of work:

“So they use their [persuasive writing], use the rubric, highlighted where their gaps [are] and then they chose three areas from that” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.5)

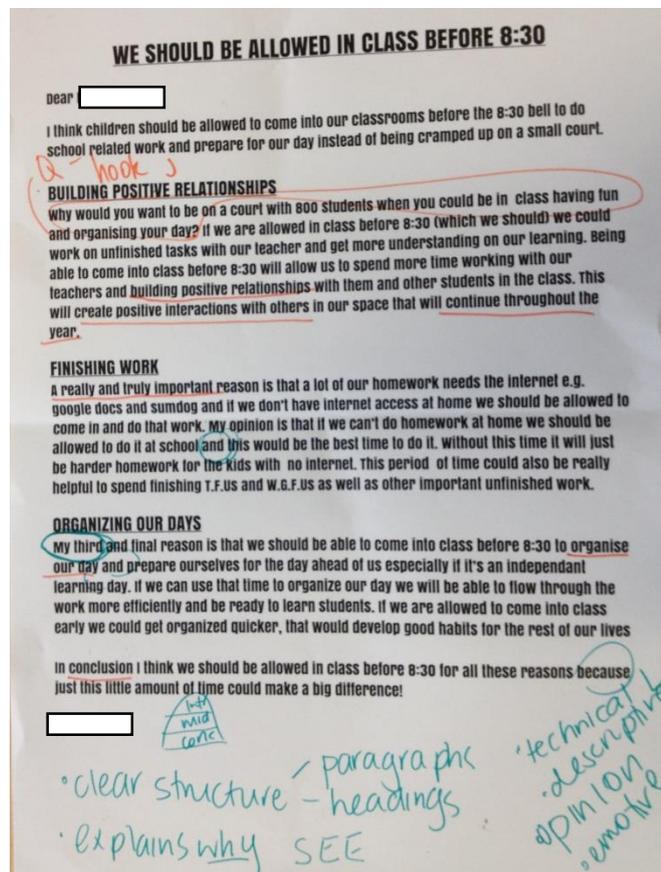
Kirstin talked about the importance of using a variety of exemplars, so students could “see how the writing form can be used ... and see the purpose ... as well” (Teacher Interview 3, p.5). Eloise described the use of exemplars thus:

“You’ve got to have an idea of what’s good and what you like and what you see. So if you’re giving them those ideas then they can take those and adapt them and put them into their

writing. If you don't know what you're looking for or looking at then it's hard to figure it out" (Teacher Interview 3, p.5).

Eloise explained that exemplars were selected from a variety of sources, including students' texts, newspaper articles and published texts with a view to showing students what quality work looked like and what was expected. However, during the unit, observed use of exemplars was limited and students did not make reference to their use during writing. Two student exemplars were used by the class to support student goal setting at the start of the unit (see Figure 5.6) and self-evaluation at the end (Observations 5 and 24). The exemplar used at the start of the unit was also used to highlight features of a good introduction and first paragraph (Observation 5). During one workshop, a selection of exemplars were provided for students to examine (Observation 22).

Figure 5.6: Annotated exemplar used at the start of the persuasive writing unit



The Performance Phase

Selecting workshops to address learning needs

Neither Kirstin nor Eloise expected all students to be working at the same level, or have the same learning needs at any given time – they recognised individuals had different learning needs. The two teachers used targeted workshops during writing units to teach and/or reinforce strategy use and

provide support to students as they engaged in writing. Depending on need, some workshops were offered on a single occasion while others were offered on several occasions. Students were expected to use their goals and an awareness of their needs to guide them in deciding which workshops to attend – they were expected to book “into workshops ... based on what they need specifically” (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 1, p.1). This was seen as part of students taking responsibility for their learning in writing. While the majority of workshops were teacher determined, students could request “workshops they [needed] and we have to create them” (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 1, p.1). On occasion, students could also run a workshop for a small group of their peers, teaching others a particular skill or strategy. Eloise spoke of how students valued “the fact that they get to go somewhere and they don’t have to learn something they already know, they really love that idea” (Teacher Interview 1, p.4).

Teacher determined workshops were used to model strategies such as planning writing, generate feedback and as a time for students to practise writing strategies such as constructing complex sentences or rhetorical questions. Eloise and Kirstin wanted students to apply skills and strategies from the workshops in their current writing and seek feedback from their peers regarding the effectiveness of such application. Before students could ‘leave’ attendance at a workshop, they had to provide evidence of their understanding or use of the specific skills, strategies or knowledge that formed the focus of the workshop:

“And we might say: okay well we need to see that come up in your writing a few more times so that we know that that’s there, and then you can come out of that workshop” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.6).

This process was observed during an emotive language workshop (Observation 13), where Sophia showed Eloise how she had used different examples of emotive language in her persuasive text. Eloise concluded Sophia did not have to attend further workshops on this feature.

When interviewed during the writing unit, both teachers commented how the organisation and structure of the workshops followed a slightly different pattern to previous writing units. Eloise described the workshop structure used in previous units as follows:

“there would be a whole class focus and then there would be a whole class follow up, then there’d be workshops and then there’d be workshop follow ups and then there’d be choice stuff” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 3, p.8).

While the teachers believed this created opportunities for students to learn and practise writing processes and strategies, at times it put students under pressure to complete tasks rather than work on their writing. During the persuasive writing unit, students had opportunities to practise the strategies and skills during the workshops with peer and teacher support, as observed during the complex sentence workshop (Observation 11). However the follow-up activities set by the teachers during this unit, as exemplified in Observation 11, involved students applying this learning to their persuasive writing. Eloise and Kirstin considered their approach to be more responsive to student learning needs,

noting students being more engaged with and motivated to write, particularly on their core persuasive writing piece (as opposed to completing workshop related writing tasks).

Both teachers identified the importance of close teacher monitoring of student writing during workshops to ensure they were effective in helping students produce a quality piece of writing. Without the information from such monitoring, Eloise and Kirstin believed they would not know who was making progress towards achieving of their goals. From the teachers' point of view, workshops provided them with opportunities to monitor and gauge student progress. Checkpoints were used during workshop sessions to review students' writing, identify learning needs, progress and writing quality. Both teachers described how they used this information to adjust workshop provision to support students' learning needs.

Responding to and acting on feedback to improve works in progress

Providing students with information about their works-in-progress was considered a vital element of the learning process. Eloise spoke of the importance of students being able to obtain and act on feedback and feedforward from teachers and peers:

“So feedback and feed forward is a really important part of the writing process here. Not just Kimberly and I doing that, but the children doing that for each other and then acting on that feedback and feed forward” (Teacher Interview 1, p.2).

From the teachers' perspectives, feedback provided students with information about the quality of their writing while feedforward provided information about actions that needed to be taken to improve work. The distinction between these two types of information was made by the teachers during the interviews and in their instructional sessions with students (Observation 9 and 10).

Eloise wanted students to use information gained from others to assist with monitoring achievement of goals. To this end, the rubric was an important point of reference:

“getting information from their peers, information from us. So in books we'll write stuff to them. Conferencing, their rubric, they'll go back to their rubric, they'll go back to their books... so they'll pull that out, look at it, how are we going? What was the goal? What are we trying to do? Then they'll link it back into their writing” (Teacher Interview 2, p.5).

Irrespective of the source, feedback needed to be specific to the success criteria in the rubric or students goals.

Kirstin spoke during the unit of work of the importance of helping students to provide quality, specific feedback and feedforward to peers. This information needed to be related to the rubric so “the children were able to go away and actually act on it [as] before, ...some of it [feedback/forward] was quite vague,

they didn't quite know where to begin or what to do" (Teacher Interview 3, p.3). In the first instance, students were expected to meet with their thinking buddies to discuss work-in-progress. This discussion provided an opportunity for thinking buddies to give their perspective. From this discussion, a more formal version of the feedback/forward, referenced to the success criteria was recorded. Information from peers needed to be critical in the sense that it identified recommended changes and improvements:

"they'll give specific examples, like you need to add more figurative language and I've highlighted a passage where you could add that in. ... so they're starting to write more, or give feedback in a more critical way" Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.2).

For some students, their thinking buddies had become "quite good too at verbalising for them whether they're meeting certain goals or criteria" (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 3, p.1). Eloise and Kirstin noted how important it was for students to engage in discussions with their thinking buddies to query feedback/forward, particularly when "they've told me everything is great, but I think there must be something I can do" (Kirstin, Teacher Interview 1, p.2). Thinking buddies were also expected to justify feedback/forward given. However, the teachers also noted that some students did not fully grasp "the value [of peer feedback], like why we were doing it and because sometimes [due to] the quality of that feedback, they didn't see the relevance in that" (Eloise Teacher Interview 1, p.3). They spoke of needing to overcome the student-held belief that only adults could provide useful feedback. Both teachers acknowledged that building a culture of learning where peer feedback is considered useful and valuable to student learning is a challenge.

Eloise and Kirstin spoke of feedback/forward being given by themselves as part of a structured process, where students regularly submitted their writing for teachers to review and give feedback. Both teachers spoke of predominantly giving oral feedback to the students, related to their goal, success criteria or the learning focus of the workshop. Eloise spoke of providing more oral than written feedback/forward to students - having an ongoing dialogue with them regarding their writing. Teacher feedback identified where changes could be made and also celebrated quality aspects of their writing and progress made. Eloise commented on this:

"So the feedback, the nice warm stuff is oral...backed up with a certificate or in their books ... and the feedback ties directly back to ...their goals" (Teacher Interview 1, p.10).

In addition, both teachers provided students with written feedback. As Kirstin explained "We usually sit down with their books and check through and annotate as we go" (Teacher Interview 3, p.4).

Student self-monitoring

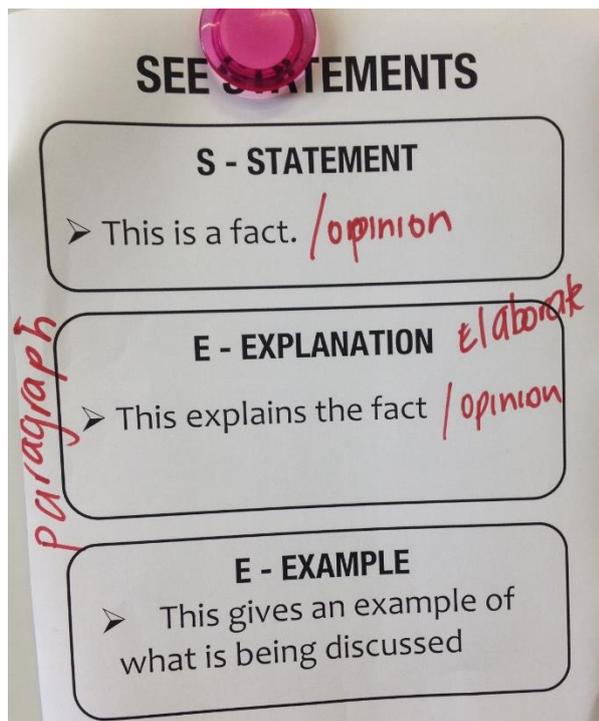
Both teachers thought student self-monitoring should occur during writing. Eloise explained how during workshops she asked students to refer to the focus of the workshop and then find evidence of

achievement of this focus in their work. Students also had an opportunity to identify how they could improve their work:

“Say your workshop is on figurative language. You come for the workshop: what it is, the structure, whatever that might be. They’ll have a look at their piece of work, can you identify any examples in that? Work with your thinking buddy that’s next to you. How can you add more into your piece of work that you’re currently doing? Where’s the value in that? How’s that piece of work changed? Has it made it better? ” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.4).

Self-monitoring occurs at the “beginning, end, [and] all through the middle stuff too...everything they do in the workshops really is tied back to that...aspect” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 1, p.4). Typically, monitoring during the workshops seemed to be teacher initiated and directed. For example, in the lesson observed on 6 August (Observation 10), students and their thinking buddies were asked to review the structure of their paragraphs, ensuring they used a statement, explanation then example (see Figure 5.7). They then needed to provide feedback and recraft as needed.

Figure 5.7: Guide to organisation of a SEE statement to structure paragraphs



Again at a complex sentence workshop (Observation 11), Kirstin asked students to check their writing to see if it had a variety of sentence structures and to highlight any complex sentences used. It seemed that self-monitoring was a teacher initiated process rather than something that was student initiated.

The Self-Reflection Phase

Student self-evaluation

Kirstin and Eloise also explained how they expected students at the end of the unit of work to refer to their goals and the rubric to ascertain the quality of their writing and the nature and extent of their achievement and progress. In the pre-unit interview, Kirstin talked about how she anticipated students would use the persuasive writing rubric, their initial letter, their goals and final piece of persuasive writing completed during the unit to “determine where they think they’ve improved and where they think they’ve moved to” (Teacher Interview 1, p.3). Similarly for Eloise, it was important that students compared their initial attempt (the letter) with their final piece of work, asking themselves a series of questions so they can identify areas of improvement and learning:

“look at the piece of work, look at their first piece of work [project work] and say has there been improvement just to themselves. Where is that improvement? Is that better? What is it that’s made it better?” (Eloise, Teacher Interview 3, p.4).

Part of taking ownership was getting students to reflect on their writing progress. During one observed lesson, students were encouraged to share their writing and comment on the aspects of their writing where they had improved (Observation 15). For example, Lily was observed sharing her writing then reflecting on how her use of complex sentences and choice of conjunctions had improved her writing. In another lesson, (Observation 21), the students were asked to write a statement which answered the following questions:

“What have I improved in?

What was it that got you to the next step?

What did you improve most in? Why did that happen? As a result of teaching? Thinking buddy? Workshops?

What made the learning stick?” (Observation 21)

In summary, within their writing programme, Kirstin and Eloise intentionally promoted the use of a number of strategies associated with self-regulation, including the setting of goals, access to feedback from a variety of sources, monitoring and evaluation of learning. Their intention was to support students to have the knowledge and capabilities required to manage writing processes. As such, deliberate efforts were made by the teachers to promote and develop the use of these strategies through the writing programme which offered opportunities for the students to engage in these practises. These opportunities included the design of tasks, workshop programme and learning environment.

CHAPTER 6: STUDENT FINDINGS

Using evidence from observations, interviews and documents collected in the field, the purpose of this chapter is to present findings about how students experienced the writing process. This chapter is divided into a number of sections, which are organised according to Zimmerman's model of self-regulation (Forethought phase, Performance phase and Self-reflection phase) (2000a). For the Forethought phase, the importance to the students of choosing topics for writing, setting goals, and knowing what is expected and constitutes quality work is highlighted. With regard to the Performance phase, student selection of workshops, implementation of strategies to manage their learning environment, seeking and using feedback, as well as self-monitoring are discussed. The final section, the Self-reflection phase, focusses on student self-evaluation.

From those who gave assent to be part of the study, six students were selected by Eloise and Kirstin to participate. As shown in Table 6.1, three girls and three boys were chosen, representing a range of achievement in relation to the National Standard for writing - two below, two at and two above the standard. Of the six students, two had been identified as priority learners, whose learning and progress was carefully monitored. In terms of ethnicity, two students were Pasifika and four students, New Zealand European.

Table 6.1: Demographic information for the student participants

Student's name	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	National Standard Achievement Level
Sophia	10	Female	NZ European	Above
Lily	11	Female	NZ European	At
Vania	10	Female	Pasifika	Below
Ioane	10	Male	Pasifika	At
Kelly	11	Male	NZ European	Above
John	11	Male	NZ European	Below

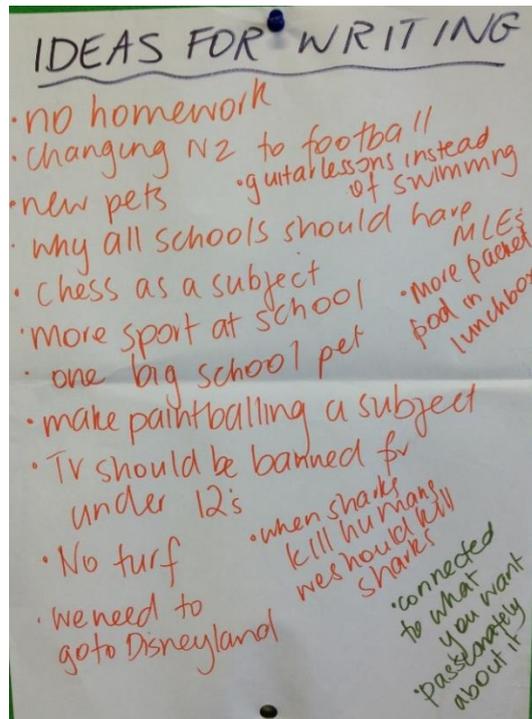
When interviewed, each student spoke about specific factors which comprised and helped them manage the writing process. Each student professed to enjoy writing and attributed this enjoyment to a number of factors including working with peers who gave support in terms of ideas, helped with completion of tasks and were a source of feedback. In addition, the students made reference to enjoying choice in relation to writing topics and learning spaces to work in, within the classroom.

The Forethought Phase

Choosing topics for writing

As part of the persuasive writing unit, the class brainstormed a list of potential topics. Students could choose to use one of these topics for their writing or their own idea. As can be seen in Figure 6.2, these topics were wide ranging:

Figure 6.2: Topic ideas generated by students at the start of the writing unit



The students valued having choice of topic. Lily and John contrasted their current experiences with those in previous classes:

"...you would have to write about the subject, you couldn't choose what subject you were going to do it on" (Lily, Student Interview 1, p.6);

"...the teacher...wouldn't let us write about what we wanted to write. She would be like you're writing about this, and we'd be like can we write about that instead, and she's be like no. So this time you can write about something different, like you get a choice of what you want to write" (John, Student Interview 4, p.10).

As Ioane and Lily commented, choice was not just restricted to the topic. Students could also choose how to present and publish their writing:

"... you get the choice about how you write" (Ioane, Student Interview 4, p.10).

“...you would have to present it this way, your writing, you wouldn't be able to publish it, have to do it on paper...” (Lily, Student Interview 1, p.6).

As a result of being able to choose their topic, the six students wrote on a variety of subjects for their piece of persuasive writing:

- Sophia - Why the Yulin dog festival should be banned;
- Lily - Why all schools should have Modern Learning Environments (MLEs);
- Vania - Why younger brothers are a real disaster;
- Ioane - Why [school name] should be a Bring Your Own Device (BYOD) school;
- Kelly - Why my parents should get me a PlayStation 4;
- John – Why the school should have two storey classrooms.

These topic choices reflected interests and passions, for example, Sophia felt strongly that the Yulin dog festival should be banned because “the dogs have to...suffer slow and have very painful, slow deaths” (Student Interview 1, p.2). She wanted to find out why this festival happened because “it's also quite interesting to see what the thinking [is] behind it.... because even though it's [a] cultural [festival] they're not treating [the dogs] well” (Student Interview 1, p.2). Lily was equally passionate about schools having MLEs, stating “in my opinion, I strongly and deeply believe that all schools should have MLEs” (Student Interview 1, p.5) as she had found learning “much more enjoyable now that we work in an MLE space” (Student Interview 1, p.7). While John realised his school already had a lot of students, he wanted to have two storey classrooms built so more students could be enrolled. This was important because an increase in student numbers would bring more talents to the school:

“Because we can start things like school bands and talent things and more sport teams and ...we could get more trophies” (Student Interview 4, p.2).

Setting Goals

The six students spoke explicitly of the process they used to identify their learning strengths, needs and how this helped them identify goals for their writing. With their thinking buddies, students shared and talked about the nature and quality of a letter written to the principal, completed prior to the unit, regarding the need for a school rule change. The persuasive writing rubric was used as students looked at this piece of writing and identified evidence of the criteria in their text and what they needed to work on:

“We do a piece of persuasive, ... whatever piece of writing we're doing, and then on ... this sheet of all the success criteria ... we tick off the ones that we have ... we can see it. ...the ones that we don't have we highlight them ... and then basically we can choose which one we want to work on, and then we work on [as a goal]” (Kelly, Student Interview 1, p.3);

“...we have to read through the story [letter] that we did. ...then we have to highlight the things that we haven't got, and then we tick the things that we do get. ...then at the back there's like three lines with three goals for you, and then you have to choose from the ones that you've highlighted, the most important ones that you think ... you need to learn. ...then you write it on the back of your sheet” (Vania, Student Interview 1, p.3).

The students worked on the task of identifying their strengths and weaknesses with support from their thinking buddies. During this activity there was minimal input from the teachers. For each student, criteria highlighted on the rubric indicated areas they needed to work on in their persuasive texts. From these, each student then selected three that would become their 'goals' for the upcoming unit of work. The verbatim statements in Table 6.3 are taken from each student's goal setting sheet and as such are direct copies of the success criteria from the rubric. As can be seen in Table 6.3, the 'goals' differed between and amongst the students.

Table 6.3: Student goals for persuasive writing

Name:	Goals:
Sophia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I develop my argument with evidence and restate it to conclude 2. My points and their supporting evidence are paragraphed linking ideas and supporting details 3. I have confidently and deliberately selected and used a wide range of persuasive language features
Lily	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To use compound and complex sentences 2. To use emotive language and rhetorical questions 3. To use my personal voice
Vania	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I develop my position with evidence and restate it to conclude 2. My points and their supporting evidence are paragraphed linking ideas and supporting details 3. I have confidently and deliberately selected and used a wide range of persuasive language features
Ioane	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I have used a variety of sentence beginnings 2. I consistently use emotive words, rhetorical questions and descriptive language 3. I have supported my argument with a range of objective ideas, data, reasons or opinions
Kelly	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Add more detail and descriptive language 2. To use emotive language 3. To add rhetorical questions to my writing
John	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Use capital letters correctly and punctuation in the right places 2. My writing has to make more sense 3. Spell most words correctly

While each student's goals were selected from the rubric, in Kelly's case, he took one criterion from the rubric and from this created three goals. For five of the students, their goals focussed on the writing features and structure of persuasive writing. John, however, selected goals related to surface features. He considered it important to ensure his writing made sense for his reader, and as such he needed to have accurate spelling and use correct punctuation.

Four of the six students chose criteria from the level three section of the rubric. Sophia and Vania were the exceptions, selecting statements from level four criteria. This was realistic for Sophia, a student considered by her teachers to be working above the Year 6 National Standard for Writing and within level four. For Vania, considered to be working at the beginning stages of level three (below National Standard), these goals were ambitious.

Knowing what is expected and what constitutes quality work

Having access to success criteria helped students identify the features of persuasive writing. They had access to the persuasive writing rubric created by the teachers, seen below in Figure 6.4, as well as the additional success criteria co-constructed by the class for different aspects of the writing process.

Figure 6.4: Persuasive writing rubric illustrating criteria for levels two, three and four

LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 4
<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is clear and easily understood by the audience</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have written my own ideas and supported them with some reasons or opinions - I have given more detail or commented on some of the data, reasons, and opinions I have given</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have recorded <u>most</u> of my ideas in a logical sequence - I begin my writing by taking a position - I have only used the most important details and ended with a summary - I have used simple conjunctions to link my ideas "and", "but" - I have used simple sentences - I have used a variety of sentence beginnings (4 or less)</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have used some features of the language of persuasive writing: eg: emotive words, rhetorical questions, and descriptive language - I have used technical topic related words and cause and effect words</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I have spelt much of my work correctly - I have used capital letters, full stops, commas, questions marks and speech marks appropriately - My writing makes sense</p>	<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is clear, logical and easily understood by the audience - I am developing a <u>clear</u> personal voice</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have supported my argument with a range of <u>objective</u> ideas, data, reasons or opinions - I have supported the ideas, data, reasons or opinions with detail</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have recorded my ideas in a logical sequence - I begin my writing by taking a position - I develop this with evidence and restate it to conclude - I have used causal conjunctions "because" to link my ideas - I have used simple, compound, and complex sentences - I have used a variety of sentence beginnings (4 or more)</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have used some features of the language of persuasive writing with confidence - I consistently use emotive words, rhetorical questions, and descriptive language - I have used precise topic related words and cause and effect words to make my argument more objective</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I spelt most words correctly - I have used capital letters, full stops, commas, question marks, and apostrophes appropriately - My writing makes sense (correctly formed sentences, consistent use of tense, etc)</p>	<p>AUDIENCE AWARENESS - My argument is specifically targeted towards audience through my choice of content, language and writing style (personal voice) - I have shown a consistent position to persuade my audience</p> <p>CONTENT/IDEAS - I have supported <u>each point</u> of my argument through choosing appropriate content, language and writing style - I have stated, re-stated and strengthened my position - I have provided enough support for each of my points</p> <p>STRUCTURE - I have grouped my content logically using topic sentences to guide my audience - I begin my writing, re-state, and conclude clearly stating my position - I consistently use a variety of connectives within sentences and between paragraphs - My points and their supporting evidence are paragraphed linking ideas and supporting details.</p> <p>LANGUAGE RESOURCES - I have confidently and deliberately selected and used a wide range of persuasive language features - I deliberately use language to identify my main points and to persuade the audience - My use of language is appropriate to my audience - I have used a variety of sentence structures, beginnings and lengths for effect</p> <p>SURFACE FEATURES - I had few spelling errors in my work - I have used multi-syllabic, irregular or technical words - I have used successfully complex punctuation - My writing uses all grammatical conventions correctly. My errors do not interfere with my meaning.</p>

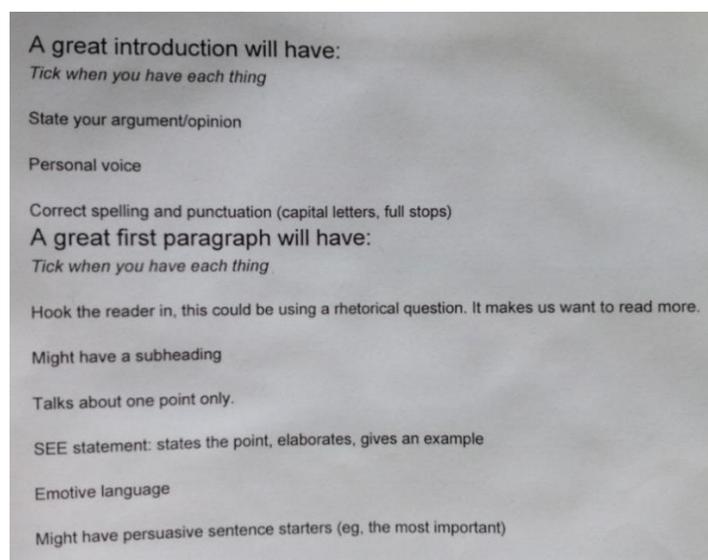
Sophia spoke of co-constructing success criteria and discussing what makes a good piece of writing:

"Well either the teachers make it, or usually we will come together in a group and discuss what makes a good piece of persuasive writing or an information report. And if there's anything that we haven't added the teacher will go and also you might do this." (Student Interview 1, p.4).

During the whole class session of 27 July (Observation 5), Eloise and the students used an exemplar to identify the features of a good introduction and first paragraph in a piece of persuasive writing. Each student discussed possible features with their thinking buddy and then reported features noticed in the exemplar, such as use of personal voice and the stating of an argument. The teacher and students

then talked about the use and importance of personal voice to 'hook the reader'. Eloise suggested the use of a rhetorical question as one strategy to engage the reader and encourage them to read further. These criteria and others were then recorded electronically by Eloise. Once complete, the list (as seen in Figure 6.5 below) was printed and distributed to the students:

Figure 6.5: Co-constructed success criteria for the introduction and first paragraph



According to John, success criteria are “a list of things what you have to have” (Student Interview 1 p2) in your writing, such as complex sentences and emotive language. He described the rubric and class lists of success criteria as points of reference to refer to at different points during the writing process:

“you’re writing a story, you would get it out and look and you use that...and then after you’ve written the story, you would go back ...and make sure it has complex sentences or like all those things on the list” (John, Student Interview 1 p3).

In a similar manner, Vania spoke of how she “kept [the rubric and success criteria] next to me so I know...what I need to...develop...and include into this writing” (Student Interview 2, p.1). Essentially, the students saw the success criteria as the point of reference to go to, so they could make ongoing decisions about their work.

The students talked about how they used the rubric as a checklist to identify features they should include in their writing. From their perspective, if there was a piece of evidence in their writing, they had achieved the particular criterion. As Vania explained, “students have to do that stuff that’s on the success criteria like the teachers told us to do” (Student Interview 1, p.6). For John, having evidence of all the success criteria in his writing made it a good piece of writing:

“...if your story has all the stuff ... in the success criteria...that means it’s a good story” (Student Interview 1, p.6).

Sophia, in contrast, was more selective in her use of the rubric, as she realised she did not have to include all the criteria to produce a quality piece of work. She focussed on criteria associated with her goals, particularly the use of evidence to support her argument. Sophia spoke of being selective to ensure use of particular features had an impact in her writing. If the writing feature, such as using a rhetorical question, did not improve the quality of her argument or writing, she chose not to use it:

“Well I guess that I evaluate the ideas, the success criteria I mean.... So one thing in my writing I just...want to think about what sort of things in the success criteria I can add in that particular piece, because sometimes ... you can't add a rhetorical question” (Student Interview 4, p.8).

Despite the teachers emphasising the use of exemplars when interviewed, regular use of these was not observed. While observed at the beginning and end of the unit as points of reference in whole class discussions, there was little evidence of use *during* writing, apart from one workshop where an exemplar was used to co-construct success criteria for the introduction and first paragraph, and another workshop attended by students achieving at level 4 for writing. Of the six student participants in the current study, Sophia was the only one who articulated how exemplars could be used to change and improve her writing. She valued having access to exemplars while in the process of writing as they showed her things she may not have thought about:

“sometimes if a teacher thinks that a piece of writing is really good, ... she will ask them if they can come up and share it and that's really useful because if she thinks it's really good, then you can take from piece of writing and be like, 'I didn't think of that'” (Student Interview 4, p5).

This gave Sophia alternative strategies and ideas to use to recraft her own writing. She explained how she and her peers used the rubric with an exemplar during a workshop to identify and compare how different authors had used persuasive writing features:

“Like in the, in the workshop, the extension workshop, we got a whole lot of exemplars to work with and we talked about the success criteria of things. We highlighted things that we noticed. We got told we have to make at least one change to our writing, to make it better. Then we went through our writing and thought of one of those things that we could add it. So that's another thing about exemplars, like you can look at it and discuss the criteria based around it and it can be really good.” (Student Interview 4, p.7).

As well as the success criteria and rubric, students spoke of using the resources on display on the literacy wall in their classroom during the writing process to remind them of what was expected. These resources included posters about particular writing features, workshops they could access, topic ideas and charts created in workshops. During writing lessons, students were observed using these resources to help resolve a tricky problem or gain ideas. Following a complex sentences workshop on 11 August, for example, Lily was observed referring to a list of conjunctions on display. Ioane also

spoke of how he used this list of conjunctions “so I know what words I need to use so I can make a complex sentence” (Student Interview 4, p.8).

The Performance Phase

Selecting workshops appropriate to needs

As explained in the previous chapter, students were required to opt into workshop sessions offered by the teachers based on their learning goals. As shown in Table 6, the students attended the following workshops:

Table 6.6: Workshops attended by the student participants

Workshop title:	Workshop focus:	Attended by:	Number of sessions attended:	Workshop selection:
Giving feedback to peers:	Students developed effective strategies to give quality feedback. They practised giving feedback.	Sophia Lily Vania loane Kelly John	All students attended two sessions	All students required to attend
Constructing SEE statements:	Students learned how to structure a paragraph by writing a Statement first, then an Explanation with an Example (SEE)	Sophia Lily Vania loane Kelly John	All students attended two sessions	All students required to attend
Use of emotive language:	Students defined emotive language then identified it in their writing. They wrote sentences using emotive language and practised adding it to their writing.	Sophia loane Vania	1 session	Student selection
			1 session	Student selection
			2 sessions	1 st session: Student selection 2 nd session: Teacher invitation
Use of complex sentences	Students identified different sentence structures and listed conjunctions. They wrote sentences using conjunctions.	Kelly Lily John	2 sessions	Student selection
			2 sessions	Student selection
			1 session	Student selection
Use of rhetorical questions	The students defined and identified rhetorical questions. They discussed their purpose and practised adding these to their writing.	Sophia Kelly	1 session	Student selection
			1 session	Student selection
Use of persuasive sentence starters	The students identified and created a list of different sentences starters from their writing. They discussed ways of using emotive language or rhetorical questions as part of the sentence starter.	Vania Lily loane	1 session	Student selection
			1 session	Student selection
			1 session	Student selection
Use of simple sentences	This group identified the parts of a sentence (noun, verb, subject and object) and the correct punctuation. They practised writing sentences and corrected sentences in their writing.	John	3 sessions	1 st session: Student selection 2 nd and 3 rd sessions: Teacher invitation
Extension workshop for students achieving above the National Standard	Examined a variety exemplars and the rubric to identify how different authors used persuasive writing features in their writing.	Sophia	1 session	Teacher invitation

Students valued the opportunity to select workshops related to their goals and appreciated the idea of not having to go over a strategy or skill they were already able to execute. Five of the six students attended two workshops each during the course of the writing unit. Sophia attended three workshops of which two were from choice (rhetorical questions and emotive language) and the third, the extension workshop for level four writers, by invitation. This latter workshop provided Sophia with an opportunity to examine a variety of exemplars with other level four writers. John and Vania both attended more than one session for one of their workshops.

In a conversation which occurred during Observation 2, Lily explained how she selected and attended workshops linked to her first goal of using compound and complex sentences. When evidence in her writing showed she understood and had achieved this goal, she would be signed off by the teacher and could book into a new workshop linked to her next goal. Students understood that workshops were an opportunity to “learn something new that I haven’t learned before” (Vania, Student Interview 4, p.13). This was particularly important to Lily because she could focus on what was important to her, unlike her previous classes where all students learned the same skills and strategies which she felt was a waste of her time and limited her opportunity for further learning:

“Everyone’s going in personal voice and everyone’s going to SEE statements [a paragraph structure using a statement, then explanation and an example] and everyone’s going in cause and effect. Everyone, no matter what...are still learning it even if you know it. ... Its like, are you serious? This is like wasting a whole block learning what I already know.” (Lily, Student Interview 1, p.7-8).

Workshop sessions focussed on a particular writing feature. Students spoke of either finding examples noting the omission of a writing feature, such as rhetorical questions, in their writing or another text, then including that particular feature or strategy in their work. At an emotive language workshop, Sophia and loane were observed co-constructing a definition of emotive language with the teacher, Eloise (Observation 13). In response to the teacher’s question, Sophia described emotive language as “really emotional language to persuade someone to do something” (Observation 13). The goal of the workshop was to write a sentence that evoked or brought forward an emotional response from the reader. With help from their thinking buddies, Sophia and loane brainstormed emotive words that portrayed the emotions of ‘happy’ and ‘sad’. These were shared with the group and recorded by the teacher. Eloise then modelled different examples of emotive language, for example “My heart felt like it had been ripped out, sliced up then thrown in the trash” (Observation 13). For the remainder of the workshop, students were shown “a picture and then we had to...create a sentence with emotive language about it” (loane, Student Interview 2, p.2).

At the end of each workshop students were given a Teacher Follow-Up task (TFU). During the persuasive writing unit, students added examples of the writing feature practised in the workshop to

their persuasive texts for these tasks. Ioane explained how independent practice helped to consolidate his understanding of the writing feature:

“It helped me give examples about how I could use that and put it into my writing....I could do it by myself without anyone helping me and then I could actually understand how to do it by myself” (Student Interview 2, p.2)

For Vania, the best thing about the workshops was that she got to “learn something and ... when I come back, [I’ve] always learned something new that I haven’t learned before” (Student Interview 4, p.13). She spoke of learning to write by following the steps outlined by the teacher:

“the teacher mostly like writes it on the board and then we have to like change our writing to make it ... exactly how she’s ... told us and ... what type of stuff we should have in it” (Student Interview 1, p.2).

Vania believed that by doing what the teacher said she not only improved her writing but learned how to use the strategy or feature. At times however, she found the workshop process frustrating because “sometimes I’ve already learnt the thing and the teacher puts you back on the same workshop. ...then it’s like ... you’ve already done it but the teacher says ... you don’t really understand it. ...sometimes I do understand it.” (Vania, Student Interview 4, p.14). It seemed that Vania’s estimation of her current achievements differed from that made by her teachers. Like Vania, John attended multiple sessions for one of his workshop choices, simple sentence construction. He spoke of the workshop providing him with information about what makes a good sentence. Recrafting sentences in his persuasive writing as a follow-up task helped him to improve the quality of his work.

Implementing strategies and skills to manage their learning environment

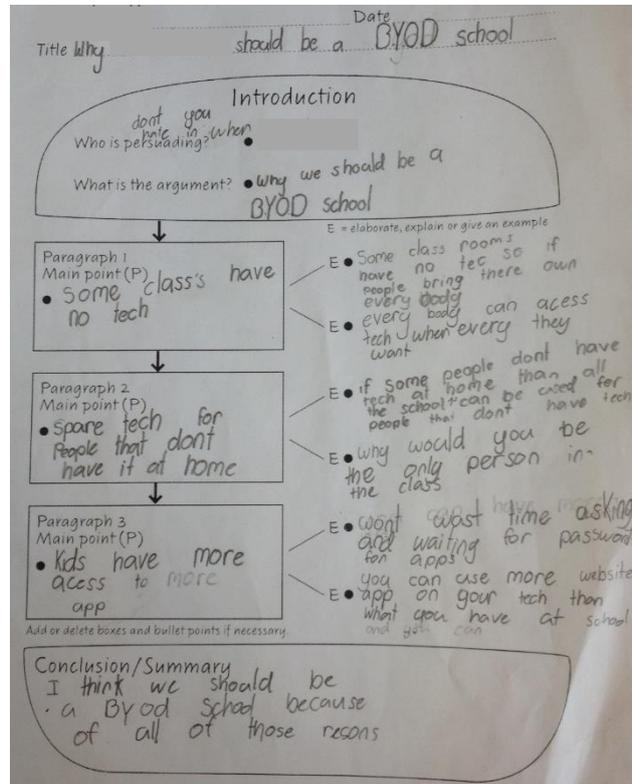
The six students used a variety of strategies to manage their learning, behaviour and environment in order to meet their goals. At the beginning of the writing process, they were observed using learning strategies such as brainstorming to identify the features of persuasive writing and then generate ideas for writing. Sophia said she found such strategies helpful as she could draw on other people’s ideas and knowledge to strengthen her own ideas:

“...we do a big brainstorm of what all the key features are of a particular type of writing because I get an idea of what is, what would make a good persuasive writing piece. We ... learn from each other in a way, so we always give each other ideas” (Student Interview 2, p.1-2)

Having brainstormed ideas, the students planned their writing. All spoke of using a planning framework known by them as ‘the hamburger plan’ (Cameron & Dempsey, 2013) (see Figure 6.7), to structure and organise their ideas. John described the hamburger plan as:

“...the top bun is like the intro and then there’s three paragraphs...so those would be your main paragraphs and then at the bottom, there’s another bun, the bottom bun and then that’s where you write your summary” (Interview 1, p.5).

Figure 6.7: An example of the planning framework – ‘The Hamburger Plan’ (Cameron & Dempsey, 2013)



This planning process was considered helpful when organising ideas and as a prompt when struggling for ideas. Sophia noted, “...if you’re stuck on an idea, like what to write next, you can just go to your plan because it will have what you listed [as ideas] there” (Student Interview 1, p.3). Initial plans could be changed or added to during the writing process:

“We can change our plan. We don’t have to stick to our plan if we come up with a better idea” (Sophia, Student Interview 1, p.3).

Being limited to three paragraphs was however frustrating for Vania as she often wanted to include more ideas, necessitating a need for extra paragraphs:

“You can’t really fit all...the ideas that you have because it’s like such a little type of piece” (Student Interview 1, p.1).

John also expressed some frustration with the limited nature of this planning format:

“Sometimes if you want to write a big story and I want to do over three paragraphs....I used to write four paragraphs last year, but haven’t done four paragraphs this year” (Student Interview 1, p.5).

While five of the students were observed referring to and using the hamburger plan, Kelly did not. He explained he felt very secure that he had his writing planned in his head. However, as he progressed during the unit, Kelly noted he had forgotten some of his original ideas and included random ideas that did not support his persuasive argument. When reflecting on this, he noted, “If I had it all down on a plan I could...have written the story a bit differently and had...better work go into it” (Student Interview 2, p.5).

Sophia spoke of the need to carry out research about her topic, the Yulin dog festival while planning her writing and during the writing process:

“I needed to quite a lot of research before I could write about it....because I knew quite a lot about it but I still needed a bit more information of how they got them and what they did to them” (Student Interview 2, p.5).

She needed to do this to ensure she had the information to support each of her points in her writing.

While writing, students spoke of editing and recrafting their writing. These were considered as two separate processes. According to Kelly:

“Editing is checking...for capital letter and full stops and checking your spelling and maybe changing one or two words.” (Student Interview 2, p.4)

Editing ensured that the text was ‘correct’. Recrafting, however, “...is like rewriting a sentence or part of a paragraph” (Student Interview 2, p.4) to add language features, improve the organisation of ideas or remove irrelevant information. As such it aimed to improve the quality of the writer’s message or argument. Following a whole class session (Observation 10), during which Eloise demonstrated how to use a ‘SEE statement’ to structure a paragraph by making a Statement, supported by an Explanation and Example, Sophia and loane were observed selecting paragraphs in their text and recrafting them as SEE statements. On another occasion, John was observed editing his work to ensure it had correct punctuation and recrafting sentences to improve his message (Observation 12). Lily was observed recrafting her work so it included more sophisticated conjunctions such as although, since and while (Observation 11).

As part of managing their learning and learning environment, students selected an appropriate place to write. They each had a preferred space to work in, for example, Sophia liked sitting at the whiteboard tables where she could rehearse sentences or draft ideas before committing them to paper:

“I like the whiteboard tables because you can get your whiteboard pen and go would this make a good sentence, and read it to yourself and see” (Student Interview 1, p.4).

For Lily, sitting at one of the circular tables was her preferred place to write as this space provided access to friends at the same table who provided support and help when needed:

“The reason why is...your friends help you write sometimes if you're stuck for an idea, or ... they just always help you” (Student Interview 1, p.6).

In contrast, loane preferred to use one of the carrel desks when writing because it meant he was not so readily distracted by his friends:

“Because you could have your own space ...you could have your own personal space with nothing distracting you because there are walls on both sides (Student Interview 1, p.5)

Interview and observation data revealed the students used different strategies to manage distractions during the writing process. While each had strong preferences as to which peers they liked to work with - peers they valued discussing ideas with and getting help from, managing distractions caused by peers' conversation was an issue. Vania spoke of her preference to work on her own as this helped her avoid distractions (Student Interview 1, p.7). John and loane preferred a quiet place to work, with one or two others, which helped limit distractions while still having access to support and help if needed. Kelly explained how he needed to sit in a quiet place so he could focus on his tasks as he said he found it challenging to ignore the distractions that occurred in a group situation. However, it was observed that Kelly always chose to sit with his friends when writing. loane also commented that the teachers gave him messages about “making good choices with my learning and ...sitting with people I know that I won't get distracted with” (Student Interview 4, p.8) and “staying focussed on task and ...not getting off track” (p.8).

Differences in students' behaviour were also evident in the way each talked about and/or managed their time. Kelly spoke of being mindful of teacher expectations, the importance of managing his time and how poor time management affects the quality of work produced:

“Because for this piece of persuasive writing we had like a week ...to do it. And I was talking way too much to my friends and I didn't get most of it done, and then I realised ... I have a day to do a piece of persuasive writing. And then I have to rush to do it and it makes a bad piece of persuasive writing” (Student Interview 1, p.4).

During the persuasive writing unit, the timetable shifted between what was called a 'Structured week' and an 'Independent Learning Week'. Throughout the former, all lesson times were scheduled by the teachers, with specific times for writing tasks and workshops, while during the latter, students were provided with a blank timetable so they could organise their schedule of workshops, tasks and group projects for English and Maths for the week. Three of these independent weeks occurred during the writing unit, two consecutively near the middle of the unit of work and the third towards the end of the

unit. The remaining seven weeks during the persuasive writing unit followed a structured timetable. Each student had his/her own way of managing time during the Independent Learning weeks. John prioritised the tasks he perceived to be difficult so they could be completed earlier in the week:

“I’d look on my list and go what’s going to be the hardest? And then I get the hard ones done. But if it’s going to take forever, like the whole day, I’ll work on that for around about an hour maybe, or this first block. And then I’ll keep on checking what the time is, and then I would change over when the time’s done. ” (Student Interview 4, p.7).

loane, however, completed all the tasks for one subject before moving to another:

“So I’m going to do all the reading stuff, then all writing stuff, the all the maths stuff” (Student Interview 3, p.4).

Each student spoke of the importance of negotiating and setting up meeting times with their peers during these weeks for group tasks or for conversations about works-in-progress:

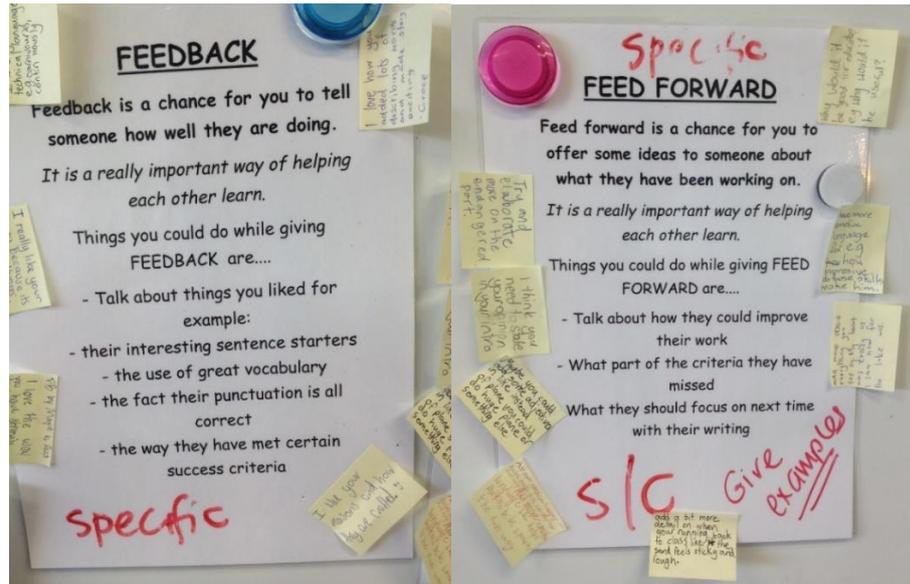
“we...find out what time we’ll do it together. ...I can’t do it in the second block but I can do it in the third block. So then we would find a time ... to do it” (John, Student Interview 3, p.2).

While loane and Kelly found it challenging to manage and organise themselves during an Independent Learning Week, preferring the teacher management and organisation of a structured learning week, the other students enjoyed the flexibility of the independent learning week timetable. Vania commented, “If we haven’t finished our writing, we can spend more time on it. Instead of the teacher saying come down on the mat and we’re not finished yet” (Student Interview 3, p.5). Lily stated, “I don’t see why people want to go back to structured [timetables], but that’s just me. I just like the freedom and choice” (Student Interview 4, p.6).

Seeking and acting on feedback from a range of sources

As noted in the previous chapter, the teachers and students used two particular terms to describe information they received from others about the quality of their work: feedback and feedforward. Helping students with the process of giving of feedback and feedforward was observed in a lesson (Observation 9). During this lesson, Eloise asked the students to find an example of feedback in their writing, either from their thinking buddy or from the teacher, which referred to one of the success criteria such as “I love the way you have stated your opinion of AstroTurf”. She then asked the students to find an example of feedforward. The examples of feedback and feedforward were recorded on post-it notes. Eloise reinforced the value of adding an example to make the feedback clear and for the feedforward to indicate what needed to be done. She also reinforced the importance of students working alongside their thinking buddies, discussing the success criteria and coming to a shared understanding of what the criteria looked like and how they could be incorporated into the text. This information was then ‘formalised’ as it was written in the writer’s book. Guidelines for giving feedback and feedforward were recorded on charts, as seen in Figures 6.8. The students’ examples of feedback and feedforward were attached to these charts as a resource and displayed on the writing display board.

Figure 6.8: Guidance for giving feedback and feedforward

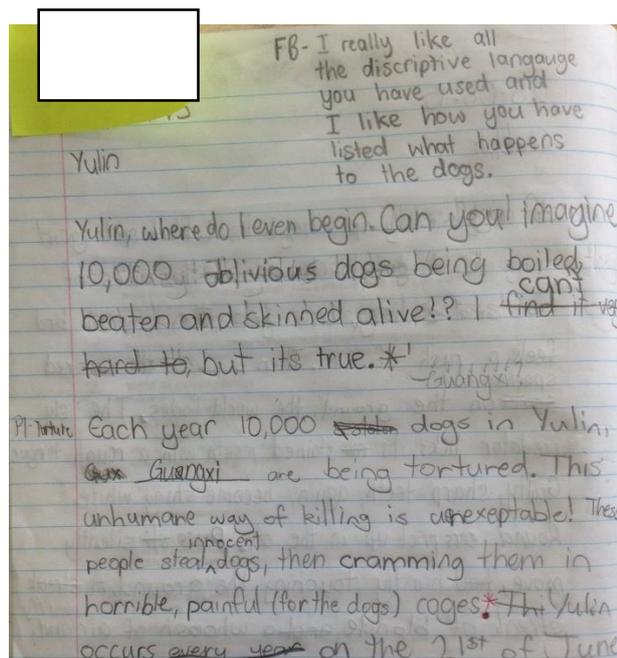


To these students, ‘feedback’ referred to aspects of writing thinking buddies liked, considered to be good and that stood out:

“Feedback is something that you, you have in your writing and something that’s really stood out in your piece of writing” (Ioane, Student Interview 2, p.4).

Sophia’s thinking buddy, for example, wrote on her work: “I really like all the descriptive language you have used and I like how you have listed what happens to the dogs” (Figure 6.9: Writing artefact, 10 August).

Figure 6.9: Writing artefact illustrating feedback given to Sophia by her thinking buddy



In contrast, the term 'feedforward' was used to describe information about how the quality of a piece of work could be improved, for example, "try to use more emotive language" (loane, Writing artefact, 10 August). According to Kelly, when giving feedforward, students needed to look

"at what they don't have in the story that's on the success criteria, and then ... fix that" (Student Interview 1, p.2).

The students considered feedforward information of use and value if it related to the success criteria and gave an example of how a writing feature could be included this in their work. Lily also spoke of feedforward as helpful as it gave her another perspective on her writing:

"because it's not just your opinion on the topic you're writing or something that you had, it's other people's opinion. If someone likes it, then it's most likely other people are going to like it" (Student Interview 3, p.2).

Kelly found feedforward helpful especially when it highlighted aspects of his writing he needed to improve on but could not identify for himself "because then I can make changes to my story and make it a bit better" (Student Interview 2, p.4).

Each student spoke of going to their thinking buddy in the first instance for feedback and feedforward rather than their teachers. If their thinking buddy was absent or unable to help, students would ask other peers for assistance. In situations where thinking buddies or peers were unable to provide what was considered helpful, students would approach their teachers. Written feedback from peers and teachers was considered essential as it became a point of reference that they could refer to at a later date:

"I can go back to the story and look at the feedback and feedforward, and then put it into my new story" Kelly, Student Interview 1, p.4).

John used written feedback as a record of learning to refer to and use in future learning, stating "So say if you did this really good thing and they said they really liked it, you know you can put that into your other stories" (John, Student Interview 2, p.2).

All spoke of using feedback and feedforward to help improve their writing. loane, for example, acted on feedforward from his thinking buddy by adding "emotive language ...to make it [his writing] interesting" (Student Interview 4, p.5). Sophia spoke of adding a rhetorical question and further information detailing what happened to the dogs at the Yulin festival in response to teacher feedforward:

"I added a rhetorical question at the end of my second paragraph saying something like...how would feel if your dog was stolen? [If] you knew that you that you'd never see that happy face again? ...I also explained a little bit more about what they did to the dogs (Student Interview 4, p.6).

Acting on information to recraft writing was a priority, for as Kelly commented, “If you don’t recraft a story or do any editing, there might be changes that you didn’t add that could have made the story way better” (Student Interview 4, p.8). For their persuasive writing, each student talked about how they sought feedback and feedforward from peers as they completed each paragraph. This helped students to recraft their writing while it was in progress, rather than waiting until the entire piece was complete. In addition, they could apply the information from previous paragraphs to the next section of their text, thus continually improving their writing as they wrote:

“...if there’s something wrong in that [paragraph], we can fix that in the next [paragraph]. And we’re pretty much improving every time” (Kelly, Student Interview 1, p.1).

Not all feedback and feedforward was considered helpful. Students expressed frustration if feedforward recommended adding a writing feature already evident in their writing, as noted by loane who said, “I already have something then they’ll want me to put in more of that thing that I already have” (Interview 4, p.6). Vania also found it unhelpful to receive information about features she thought she had already included in her writing:

“Like sometimes I have descriptive words and she [peer] writes that I don’t have any descriptive words. So I think it’s not really helpful” (Student Interview 4, p.6).

Also exasperating was when feedback and feedforward referred to surface features such as spelling or punctuation, or “a little thing like capital letters” (John, Student Interview 4, p.3) as John felt these could be addressed in final editing.

Students also received oral and written feedback from their teachers. As with workshops, the students spoke of booking a time with the teacher for a conference when they were ready for their work to be checked. When describing his experience of teacher conferencing, Kelly indicated that it was an opportunity to “go through the ...checklists and the success criteria, and we see what I have and what I don’t have” (Kelly, Student Interview 2, p.3). When in a conference with the teacher, loane stated,

“we’ll read our story to them and then they’ll help us edit through it. Like they’ll [say] all the things that we need to improve on and then if the Teacher thinks ... that our story is good then we’re able to publish it” (loane, Student Interview 2, p.5).

Conferences with teachers followed a pattern. Typically the teacher either read the text or the student read the text to the teacher, then the teacher corrected the text. The teacher also gave oral feedback indicating changes to language features, organisation and structure of the writing. If time allowed, this oral feedback was recorded in appropriate places on the student’s writing. During one of John’s conferences, Eloise read each sentence aloud, using the punctuation and spelling as written. Eloise asked John if his work made sense and together they reread it aloud. They then talked about whether the sentence made sense and if not, made the corrections deemed necessary (Observation 17). At a

follow-up conference, John and Eloise reviewed the written feedback she had given, read each sentence together and discussed the changes John had made and still needed to make to his writing (Observation 17).

In contrast to the other students, Sophia was observed and also spoke of preparing for her conference with the teacher by identifying aspects she wanted specific feedback about (Observation 20). When observed at her conference with Kirstin, Sophia received affirming feedback regarding the strong personal voice apparent in her writing, as well as the use of rhetorical questions and data to support her argument. She did not however receive any feedforward about how her work could be improved. This prompted Sophia to ask the teacher for help on one particular paragraph where she was unsure if she had included sufficient detail to support her argument and was unsure whether her ideas were clear to the reader. As a result, the teacher suggested Sophia find out how the animals were treated, then add a rhetorical question such as 'how would you feel if...?' (Observation 20). Sophia appreciated that Kirstin thought her writing was good, but what she valued most of all was knowing how to improve her writing: Sophia considered that her teachers had a better understanding and knowledge of writing than her thinking buddy:

“...with the teacher ..., well they're the ones that have been teaching us all of this so I'm pretty sure they'd know. ...also our Thinking Buddies, they've learnt the exact same thing as we have, they've been there for as much time as we have. So I think teacher feedback and feedforward is really useful” (Sophia, Student Interview 4, p.8).

Monitoring their work

Self-monitoring was usually prompted by the teacher as part of a workshop or as a reminder to the whole class. Eloise, for example, was observed instructing students to check the structure of their writing, particularly use and organisation of paragraphs as SEE statements (Observation 10). On another occasion, students were asked to check their writing made sense and to find evidence of the success criteria in their work using the rubric (Observation 17).

For the students, self-monitoring was primarily a process of checking they had evidence of success criteria in their writing. The students spoke of and were observed using the rubric to check their work. Lily talked about how she used the success criteria to “tick what I have and if I don't have...one thing I'll go and add, I'll go back and add it in my story” (Student Interview 1, p.2). Ioane described this checking process as making sure he had “filled the gaps” on the rubric and had evidence of each success criterion in his writing (Student Interview 1, p.5). This monitoring process, alongside feedback and feedforward, assisted students with identifying aspects of their writing that needed editing and recrafting:

“It's good to check at the end of each paragraph, so that you can make changes to that paragraph. And then at the very end, when you've finished your whole writing, you will check

your whole writing for anything you might want to change or edit” (Sophia, Student Interview 1, p.4).

In response to teacher prompting, students checked their writing, using the success criteria, paragraph by paragraph. Lily, for example, stated:

“... I stop at the intro and every little paragraph...and check that everything makes sense...instead of doing it the whole...story” (Student Interview 1, p.2).

loane also spoke of checking his work during the writing process by first rereading it, “then I’ll get my success criteria out, [and] then I’ll check everything if I have it or not” (Student Interview 1, p.6). Kelly used the success criteria to check and review his work as he wrote:

“...once I’ve written a sentence I can go back and check and look at the success criteria and say I might need to add this and this...then once I’ve made a paragraph I can go back and check the paragraph to see if it’s good and if it’s got all the success criteria in it” (Student Interview 1, p.4).

Sophia was often observed rereading her work-in-progress independently of the teacher, making changes to surface features and/or adding in new ideas. On one occasion, Sophia read over her introduction and first paragraph, then used her plan and success criteria to check her writing prior to beginning work on a new paragraph (Observation 7).

The Self-Reflection Phase

Evaluating overall levels of achievement

At the conclusion of the unit of work, Eloise informed the class that they would be undertaking a ‘formal’ evaluation of their piece of persuasive writing (Observation 21). Eloise then outlined the evaluation process for the class: students were to consider their initial piece of work (letter) written at the beginning of the unit, their persuasive text written during the unit of work, their goals and the success criteria in the rubric. These resources were to inform a written reflective statement about what they had achieved – the goals met, where their writing had improved and how this occurred, for example through attendance at specific workshops, support from thinking buddies or feedback from others. Students then used these reflective statements, along with the rubric to assign their final piece of work an overall level of achievement, i.e. level 2, 3 or 4 (Observation 21). A key point of reference during this process was the level from which students had selected their initial goals. For example, Lily’s goal of using compound and complex sentences was taken from level 3 of the rubric; loane’s goal to consistently use emotive words, rhetorical questions and descriptive language was also taken from level 3. Both students therefore knew the overall level of achievement they were aiming to achieve, and as they found evidence of these features in their work, they assigned the overall level of achievement.

Eloise next asked the class to carry out a further, more sophisticated level of evaluation – within each overall level, they were to assign either a B to indicate achievement at the Beginning of the level; P to indicate achievement at a Proficient level; or A for an Advanced level of achievement i.e. 3B, 3P, 3A or 4B...etcetera. These letters corresponded to the type of evaluation teachers make with reference to the Ministry of Education’s literacy levels of achievement. As they undertook this second part of the evaluation process, students were observed counting the number of success criteria evident in their work, assigning a B if there were less than 5 criteria apparent within their overall level, a P if there was evidence of at least half of the criteria from the level in their writing and an A if more than half the criteria from the level were present in their work. From Ioane’s perspective, “if you’ve got half the skills right in level two, then you’ll be 2P [level 2 proficient]” (Student Interview 1 p.2)

Lily found evidence of most of the criteria in her text, including use of “complex sentences, SEE statements, emotive language, rhetorical questions, persuasive sentence, different sentence starters and more interesting topics” (Student Interview 4, p.8). She assigned a level 4A to her piece of writing. John also believed he had made progress with his writing since the beginning of the unit. When observed talking with Eloise during this lesson (Observation 21), John indicated he thought he was still working on using rhetorical questions and emotive language as well as adding detail to support his argument. However, his writing made better sense because his use of capital letters and other punctuation had improved. He therefore assigned his writing a level 3P. Sophia recognised careful planning and research at the start of the writing process as reasons for her success in writing a persuasive argument (Sophia: Writing artefact). Kelly did not believe he had been as successful with his persuasive writing as he had hoped. He attributed this to his lack of focus during the writing unit, believing he had been too easily distracted from his writing by his peers. Kelly also recognised the limited planning he did at the start of the unit of work as a further reason for his limited progress and writing success (Kelly, Student Interview 4). Table 6.10 shows the levels assigned by students at the end of the unit.

Table 6.10: End of unit student self-evaluation: assigned levels and sub-levels

Name	Student Self-evaluation level: End of unit
Sophia	4B
Lily	4A
Vania	3P
Ioane	3P
Kelly	4P
John	3P

Sophia, Lily and Kelly assessed their work at level 4. Kelly believed he had evidence in his writing that showed he had achieved his goals and a range of criteria from levels 3 and 4, sufficient to have progressed to level 4, proficient (4P). John though because he had met his goals, this was sufficient to have progressed to level 3, proficient (3P). Once the evaluation task was completed, students handed their self-evaluation sheets in to their teachers who then checked the levels assigned with reference to their own evaluation of each student's writing. Table 6.11 shows the levels assigned by students and teachers at the end of the unit.

Table 6.11: End of unit evaluation by students and teachers: Assigned levels and sub-levels

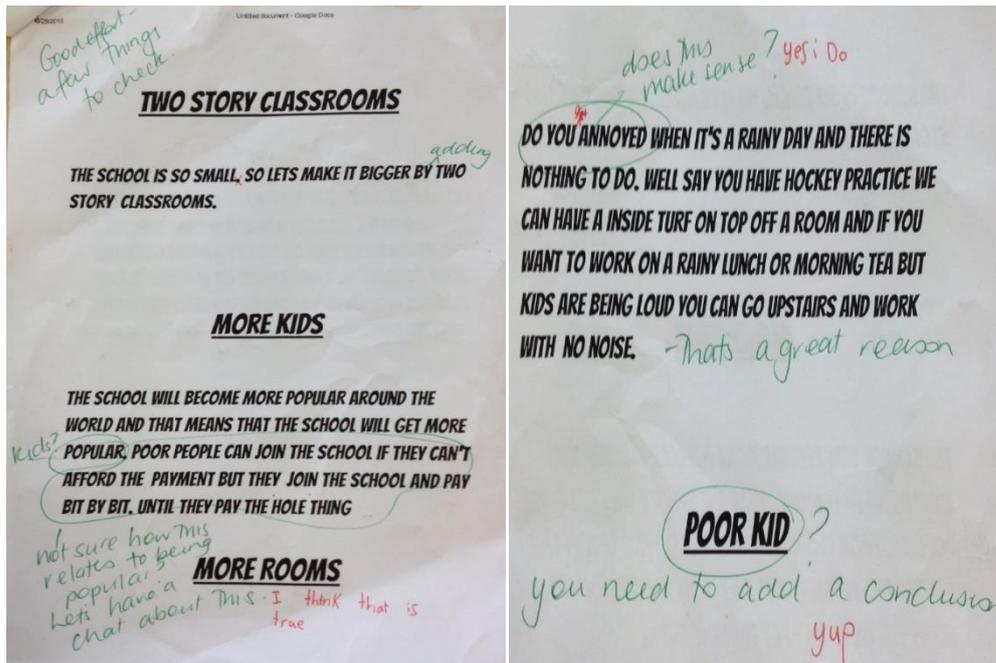
Name	Student Self-evaluation level: End of unit	Teacher evaluation: End of unit
Sophia	4B	4P
Lily	4A	3A
Vania	3P	3B
loane	3P	3P
Kelly	4P	3A
John	3P	2A

While Sophia, Vania and loane matched their teachers' evaluation in terms of overall level, i.e.: level 2, 3 or 4, Lily, Kelly and John did not. Further discrepancies between student and teacher judgements were apparent in the assignation of B, P and A within these levels. When it came to these more fine-grained evaluations, of the three who assigned the same overall level as their teacher, only loane got the 'correct' sub-level. Sophia underestimated her achievement, giving her work level 4, beginning (4B) in comparison to the teacher's level of 4 proficient (4P). Vania overestimated her sub-level awarding a level 3, proficient (3P) in comparison to the teacher level 3 beginning (3B).

After the teachers reviewed the student end-of-unit self-evaluations, they revisited them with the class. Using Sophia's work as an exemplar, Eloise modelled the self-evaluation process and how to judge writing quality using the success criteria and levels of the rubric. She described the progression of learning across the levels on the rubric, identifying the differences in challenge and expectation in relation to each criterion at each level. Eloise identified what was expected at each level, for example at level three, nearly every sentence needed to start differently, and at level four, a variety of sentence structures and lengths was required. Eloise described Sophia's work as 'a good level four', possibly a level four proficient (4P), giving reasons for this decision. She told to the class that while some of the students had assigned their work a level four, they may now want to re-assess this having seen the

exemplar. Eloise felt the students were now in a better position to use the rubric and assign a level to their work. The students were then asked to re-evaluate their writing and discuss the outcome of this with their thinking buddy. As with their first attempt, students used the published version of their text, which now also had teacher comments written on it, but not the teacher assigned level (see Figure 6.12).

Figure 6.12: John's published persuasive text with teacher comments and without teacher assigned level



While the students worked with their thinking buddy, the teachers moved among them, providing guidance and asking for evidence in support of their judgements (Observation 24).

Each of the students talked about how use of Sophia's exemplar and teacher modelling of the self-evaluation process helped them to see what constituted a quality piece of work at each of the levels, in particular, a level 4 (Observation 25). Kelly initially thought his writing was level 4P, but after Eloise's explanation, changed this to level 3A as he could see he was not consistent in his use of some of the writing features. Sophia found having her writing evaluated by the teacher and her classmates to be a helpful learning experience. The feedback she received indicated she had used punchy sentences, had a clear argument and had restated her opinion. The structure of her writing and use of personal voice was better than she thought but she now realised she did not have a deep understanding of personal voice and as a consequence had not used it strongly in her work. For Vania, the exemplar showed her how technical and descriptive language as well as evidence are used to make arguments clear. While she acknowledged that her argument needed more evidence to support it, she believed she had used different sentence starters and that her use of SEE (statement – explanation – example)

statements had improved her paragraphs. Although her teacher's evaluation of her work was level 3B, Vania changed her level from a 3P to 3A. Table 6.13 shows each of the six students' self-evaluation, the teachers' evaluation of their work and the student's reassigned level at the end of the unit.

Table 6.13: End of unit evaluation by students and teachers: Student assigned level, teacher assigned level and student reassigned level

Name	Student Self-evaluation level: End of unit	Teacher evaluation: End of unit	Student reassigned level: End of unit
Sophia	4B	4P	4P
Lily	4A	3A	3A
Vania	3P	3B	3A
Ioane	3P	3P	3P
Kelly	4P	3A	3A
John	3P	2A	<i>absent</i>

With the exception of Vania and of John who was absent, each student changed his/her achievement level so it matched the level awarded by the teacher.

In summary, the six students involved in the current study were highly motivated to write, were passionate about their topic choice and had a strong desire to improve the quality of their work. They valued having choice regarding their writing topic and where they worked in their learning environment. With varying degrees of skill and understanding, the students implemented various strategies, such as selecting goals, accessing peer feedback and selecting workshops. Having ready access to thinking buddies was of particular importance as students could get support and feedback to clarify their ideas, check the quality of their writing and seek advice about how to improve their work. Through the use of these strategies and systems, the students were actively involved in managing the writing process and making decisions regarding their learning.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

Self-regulation refers to the ability to manage, direct and control one's thoughts, behaviours and emotions in order to achieve goals (Pintrich, 1995; Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a). Setting goals, accessing support and feedback, monitoring and evaluating progress to achieve goals are key practices within the three phases of self-regulation: forethought, performance and self-reflection (Zimmerman, 2000a; 2002). In the current study, the teachers promoted strategies associated with each phase, such as setting goals and promoting self-efficacy beliefs during the forethought phase; access to feedback from peers and teachers, and monitoring progress throughout the performance phase; and finally, evaluation and reflection on learning at the completion of the writing process as part of the Self-reflection phase. The discussion of the findings is structured around these three phases of self-regulation.

The Forethought Phase

Forethought refers to the organisation and preparation which occurs prior to learning, such as setting goals, planning and selecting appropriate strategies, influencing motivation and shaping of self-efficacy. Within the current study, students selected writing goals and demonstrated robust efficacy beliefs in relation to their writing capability.

Goal Setting

The setting of goals is fundamental to self-regulation as they indicate to students what they are to attend to during learning and provide a reference point against which progress can be monitored and achievement measured. However if learners are to be effective in monitoring progress and generating feedback, they not only "need to know and understand where they are going", they also need to understand "what counts as successful achievement" (Hawe & Parr, 2014, p.214). In the New Zealand context, teachers are expected to make the focus of learning explicit to students by sharing goals in the form of learning intentions and indicating through success criteria what counts as successful achievement of these goals. Given that goals have been found to influence students' affective responses and reactions, motivate students to apply more effort to tasks and encourage persistence to achieve goals (Zimmerman, 2008), it is critical that they are well-framed and focussed on intended learning rather than task completion. However, goal setting in writing classrooms presents a number of challenges for teachers and students (Hawe & Parr, 2014; Marshall, 2004).

Marshall (2004) recommends, in relation to learning to write, that goals are construed or represented as broad horizons so students get a general sense of 'where they are going'. As the teaching and learning programme advances, the horizon becomes clearer. This is in contrast to goals that are

prescribed at the outset and expressed in terms of a tightly defined progression of knowledge and skills. Marshall (2004) argues the latter can constrain a writer's decision-making during writing and narrow their view of what constitutes quality. She recognises how demanding and potentially pointless it is for teachers to delineate specific and consistent features of good writing in terms of criteria and progressions as "the very complexity of choices made in a piece of good work means that the effects are less likely attributable to a set of clearly defined criteria" (Marshall, 2004, p.103). Sadler (1989) agrees, stating "the qualities of a piece of work cannot necessarily be dealt with adequately using a fixed criterion set" (p. 134). Rather quality is identified through the author's considered and selective use of writing features and language which trigger a response from and bring to the fore, perceptions of quality held by the reader. Furthermore, Marshall (2004) argues, "the sum of a piece of writing is more than its constituent parts" (p.105). As such she considers the specification of numerous, discrete elements detracts from and underestimates the value of the text in its entirety. Rather than creating a narrow set of goals at the commencement of writing, she promotes viewing goals at the outset of the writing process as something in the distance, arguing that by defining goals and expectations less precisely at the outset, multiple pathways to achievement can be recognised (Marshall, 2004). While goals are initially broad and less precise, they become more specific and focussed during the writing process, in response to the direction the writing takes and the needs of the writer.

The teachers in this study directed students exclusively to 'goals' in the form of discrete knowledge, skills and features of writing drawn from the persuasive writing rubric. This rubric contained a series of success criteria across three levels of achievement. Success criteria should "help students to gain a better understanding of what successful learning might look like in ways they can recognise from what they know now" (Absolum, 2006, p.78) indicating what the teacher considers to be the elements and qualities of successful performance and learning (Clarke, Timperley, & Hattie, 2003). An analysis of the success criteria included in the rubric revealed they were narrow with the result students believed adding (more of) the specified features to their writing led to a quality piece of text. As an example, one 'goal' selected by three of the six students was "I consistently use emotive words, rhetorical questions and descriptive language". To achieve this 'goal', students were observed adding these features to their writing, then counting how many instances they had included in their work. Little consideration was given to how and whether these features contributed to and improved the actual argument or message. Similarly, the 'goal' "I have used a variety of sentence beginnings (four or more)" encouraged students to check they had used at least four different sentence beginnings in their work. Performance goals such as these focus attention on the surface features of the task or inclusion of particular writing features in the text rather than the mastery of new knowledge and strategies. As such they can engender a performance orientation to learning. Furthermore these 'goals' created a checklist mentality for the students in this study, reinforcing the belief that if the specified features were evident in the text it ensured a quality piece of work. This checklist mentality restricted students' notions of how features work together to contribute to a quality piece of persuasive writing. The 'goals' failed to draw attention to a broad horizon or to the overall area of learning; rather they were derived

from a series of quite specific and technical success criteria that drew attention to individual (and isolated) features of persuasive texts.

In contrast to performance goals and success criteria that focus on progression in knowledge and skills, learning goals draw attention to the more substantive and critical aspects of writing. When goals are challenging and focussed on mastery of an aspect of learning, learners are more likely to be motivated and engaged (Zimmerman, 2008). Goals such as 'we will understand how to craft a persuasive argument' and 'I will make a strong argument that convinces the reader to support my point of view' draw attention to "the discursive nature of writing and the notion that writing is for a purpose and/or an audience" (Hawe & Parr, 2014, p.213). During their initial interview, the teachers articulated that the outcome of this unit of work was for students to produce a piece of writing that persuaded readers to accept their point of view – an outcome which the students also spoke of and understood. However neither party appeared to recognise that this was the overarching goal or broad direction of learning; rather the teachers interpreted goals in terms of narrow, specific elements of the genre, and as a consequence, so did the students.

Sadler (1989) argues writing is a complex activity and not all criteria can be specified at the outset. He contends there is a large pool of criteria available for any writing task, of which a small subset, the 'manifest' criteria, are typically selected for a particular task. Manifest criteria are those which are specified in rubrics and lists of criteria, and which as a consequence are consciously attended to during writing (Sadler, 1989). In some cases, it may be impossible to select all the relevant criteria for a task at the outset, leading to criteria being added as the task proceeds. Variations in the selection of the criteria may occur between writers, depending on the direction the writing takes or learning needs of the writer, leading to differentiated subsets (Sadler, 1989). Elements not included in the manifest criteria are termed latent criteria (Sadler, 1989). These criteria sit in the background and are activated in response to a learning need or function of the text that arises during writing. Learners and teachers require knowledge of the process and craft of writing in order to select and address appropriate manifest criteria, and identify relevant latent criteria (Hawe & Parr, 2014). In the current study, exclusive attention was paid to the manifest criteria published in the rubric. Teachers promoted the use of these criteria as 'goals' to be used to guide self-monitoring and feedback discussions. They did not draw attention to latent criteria that either were not evident in students' writing or that became apparent incidentally during writing. Students, as a result, attended to the specified manifest criteria at the expense of latent criteria that might have needed attention in their work or may have enhanced their texts. This focus narrowed students' perceptions of the elements required to produce a quality piece of writing and prevented opportunities for discussion regarding how latent criteria might be evoked to improve a piece of writing.

Goals and success criteria on their own are considered insufficient to demonstrate what constitutes quality writing (Sadler, 1989). Through modelling, discussion, use of rubrics and exemplars, teachers

can exemplify “the complexity and diversity of features that can be called upon to designate quality” (Hawe & Dixon, 2014, p.68). Importantly, a variety of exemplars is needed to illustrate how language and writing features work together to create a quality piece of writing which suits its purpose and has an impact on the reader. Sadler contends, “students need, in many educational contexts, to be presented with several exemplars (for a single standard) precisely to learn there are different ways in which work of a particular quality can find expression” (1989, p.128). Exemplars are critical in helping develop the evaluative and productive knowledge and expertise necessary for students to become self-monitoring and self-regulating. Discussion and debate around the features of writing evident in exemplars allows teachers to share their knowledge of what constitutes quality (Hawe & Dixon, 2014) and scaffold students into the evaluation process. Using exemplars to induct students into teachers’ tacitly held ‘guild knowledge’ (Sadler, 1989), helps learners become aware of how features of a genre can be used in the variety of ways to create a piece of quality writing. Students learn that not all manifest criteria need to be evident for writing to be judged as good, and that as they write, latent criteria may be activated (Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Sadler, 1989). With this deeper knowledge of the complexity of what constitutes quality writing, learners become aware of the multiple pathways they can take to create quality work (Hawe & Parr, 2014; Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Marshall, 2004; Sadler, 1989). Along with appropriate goals, this guild knowledge can be used by learners as they monitor progress and generate quality feedback for themselves and for their peers. In the current study, there was a limited use of exemplars during the forethought phase to highlight the holistic and multi-faceted nature of quality writing for students. As a result, students had limited access to and opportunities to explore and understand what constituted quality in persuasive texts. This is in contrast to Watson’s (2004) study where the deconstruction and discussion around exemplars at the beginning of the writing unit helped students understand what constituted a quality piece of persuasive writing. Watson (2004) stated, “The modelling and exploration of persuasive texts, combined with explicit teaching, formed the foundation of the programme” (p.3).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to the beliefs held by individuals in relation to their capabilities to organise and perform the required actions to attain goals (Bandura, 1991; 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b). These beliefs are related to a student’s perception of their capability to carry out a task successfully regardless of their skills and abilities (Bandura, 1991; 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b). Self-efficacy plays a vital role in self-regulation, influencing goal selection, motivation, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and strategy use (Bandura, 1991; Schunk & Usher, 2011; Zimmerman, 2000b). Efficacious students demonstrate greater levels of effort and persistence; attribute success or failure to effort or strategy selection rather than ability; and are less likely to have an adverse emotional reaction when faced with challenge (Bandura, 1991; 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b). While self-efficacy is important throughout the three phases of self-regulation, it is a vital aspect of the forethought phase as it forms the basis for an individual’s motivation to engage with, expend effort on and persevere to complete a task, and underpins an individual’s commitment to goals (Bandura, 1991; 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b).

While students' self-efficacy beliefs are important to support judgements regarding their capabilities to achieve goals (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000b), it is important that these judgments realistically reflect capabilities. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) refer to this as 'calibration' – "the idea that individuals' self-efficacy judgements should be matched or calibrated to reflect their actual performances and accomplishments" (p.131). The calibration of self-efficacy beliefs with current writing capability, or lack thereof, was evident in the selection of 'goals' by students in the current study. Sophia, identified by her teachers as achieving above the national standard, and Vania, identified as achieving below the national standard, selected the same goals. In Sophia's case, the 'goals' reflected a realistic awareness of her capabilities, as they were sufficiently challenging. In contrast, Vania overestimated her capabilities when selecting the same level four 'goals' from the rubric. Seemingly she underestimated the scope and magnitude of the writing task as well as her ability to achieve these 'goals'. A lack of calibration was also exemplified by Lily who was deemed to be achieving 'at standard' - she overestimated her capabilities when selecting her 'goals'. Zimmerman (2008) has highlighted the importance of goals being ambitious and challenging, yet attainable. Goals which have these properties have a positive effect on student progress and motivation. In the current study, as students were given the latitude to select their own goals with limited guidance from their teachers, inappropriate selection was neither recognised by the teachers nor the students.

There are two components to self-efficacy: an efficacy expectation and an outcome expectation. An efficacy expectation refers to an individual's beliefs in his/her capability to successfully carry out the required actions or behaviours necessary to accomplishing the desired outcome or goal (Bandura, 1997). An outcome expectation is an appraisal made of the benefits that may be accrued when a particular action or behaviour is carried out, such as achievement of a goal or acquisition of a new skill (Bandura, 1997). These components are equally important: without an efficacy expectation, an individual is unlikely to take action even if it leads to a desirable outcome, and vice versa. The teachers' aim for this unit was for students to write a persuasive text which could convince readers to support a particular point of view. Both the teachers and students were aware this was the desired outcome. This aim constitutes what Marshall (2004) calls a 'broad horizon'. Ironically, neither the teachers nor their students referred to the writing of a persuasive text which would convince writers of a particular point of view as the goal of the unit of work.

Through use of verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1997), the teachers in the current study sought to instil in students the belief that they could produce a powerful piece of persuasive writing. Notwithstanding their level of writing and capability, it appeared that each of the six students believed they were able to write a persuasive text. Whilst Bandura (1997) has argued that verbal persuasion is one of the least influential sources of efficacy beliefs, the message promulgated by the teachers that students could produce a persuasive text was accepted and believed by each of the students. Moreover, each seemed to intrinsically value the task of writing a persuasive text. In part, it would seem this intrinsic valuing of the task was connected to the opportunity students had to select their own topic. They were

passionate about creating a convincing argument which could sway the reader to their point of view in relation to their topic. Ostensibly, the choice of topic increased the value of the writing task for the students as well as their commitment, motivation and desire to produce a piece of work that persuaded the reader to accept their point of view.

The Performance Phase

During the performance phase, students implement actions and strategies planned during the forethought phase. Feedback from teachers and peers as well as self-monitoring are important features of the performance phase as they assist students to monitor their progress in relation to achieving goals and provide information regarding the effectiveness of the strategies used.

Feedback

Hattie and Timperley (2007) define feedback as “information provided by an agent ... regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding” (p.81). Effective feedback should provide information in relation to progress in achieving goals, effectiveness of strategies, effort, motivation and actions needed to achieve goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hattie & Gan, 2011; Sadler, 1989). Importantly, feedback must be understood and used by the learner to “alter the gap” (Sadler, 1989, p.121) between their current level of understanding and desired performance.

Feedback, particularly peer feedback, is a valuable and readily available source of information that has the capacity to promote and support student learning (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Through the process of peer feedback and review, students support each other to improve the quality of writing, reducing dependence on teacher feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In addition to developing their evaluative expertise, peer review exposes students to ways in which others overcome challenges in the writing process and use different pathways to achieving quality (Marshall, 2004; Sadler, 1989). Learners recognise how and why changes need to be made to their writing, extending their repertoire of successful writing strategies and expertise (Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Hawe & Parr, 2014). Engagement in peer review is considered a pre-cursor to effective self-monitoring, a key component of self-regulation (Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Sadler, 1989). In the current study, the teachers expected students engage in peer review and feedback – in particular they asked students on a number of occasions to look for evidence of achievement of goals and/or evidence of achievement in relation to the success criteria. However, teacher scaffolding of learners in the process of peer review and feedback is vital as students cannot be expected to undertake this process without guidance and support. When students are “scaffolded into gaining greater control of the ideas, they are increasingly able to guide, plan and monitor their own activities” (Timperley & Parr, 2009, p.44). In Watson’s (2004) study, the teacher provided opportunities for students to practise giving feedback as she modelled writing using persuasive language features. The students used success criteria to find evidence of these features and give feedback. They then used these strategies to give feedback to peers when reviewing writing.

Similarly, a group of students involved in the Harris et al (2006) Self-regulated Strategy Development (SRS) study were taught and provided support to acquire effective writing strategies, such as planning methods, and those associated with self-regulation, such as setting goals and self-monitoring. Texts were also modelled and discussed to help students recognise characteristics of quality writing. In the current study, there was little evidence of scaffolding of peer review by the teachers. Teacher guidance took the form of outlining and modelling feedback and feedforward. It was then expected that students would follow this process independently. Despite the limited nature of scaffolding, students engaged in the process of peer review. However, due to the strong focus on the use of the success criteria and 'goals', peer discussions were narrow in scope with feedback and feedforward limited to identification of features to add to texts rather than discussing ways in which challenges had been addressed and how well the author had communicated his/her argument.

In addition to peer review, the two teachers in this study had a role to play. During workshops, they informed individuals, orally and in writing, about what they had achieved (feedback) and improvements that were needed (feedforward) with reference to the focus of the workshop and/or student 'goals'. Students were passive recipients of this information as they listened then carried out changes as suggested by the teacher. Over time, this type of behaviour can bring about dependence on teachers for information which in turn works against the development of self-monitoring and self-regulation. A distinction has recently been made between a traditional approach to feedback, that is teacher telling or transmission model (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006) as evidenced in the current study, and a new paradigm – dialogic feedback. Carless (2015) describes the process of dialogic feedback as “iterative ... in which interpretations are shared, meanings negotiated and expectations clarified in order to promote student uptake of feedback” (p.196). Within this paradigm, information to enhance and guide learning is generated by the student and teacher in partnership. Students are active participants in this dialogue and negotiation, and are expected to manage the direction and content of the feedback discussion (Carless, 2015; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Together, student and teacher collaborate to identify what has been achieved, identify areas for improvement and negotiate strategies to implement to make the required changes (Hawe, Dixon, & Watson, 2008; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Through this dialogue, students develop a greater awareness that their writing is a work-in-progress, recognising it can be further crafted and improved thus improving their productive and evaluative expertise (Carless, 2015; Sadler, 1989; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). The use of dialogic feedback was highlighted in Watson's (2004) study where the teacher took the role of the reader or audience of the students' persuasive texts, responding to and debating choices regarding features of their writing. Through this dialogue, students were engaged in discussions to review their planning, explain and clarify their ideas, or to add more detail to their writing. While dialogic feedback is central to the development of student self-monitoring and self-regulation, there was little evidence of this in exchanges between or among teacher and students in the current study.

While feedback is effective in furthering learning, some types of feedback are more powerful than others. Information about cognitive processing or self-regulation have been identified as the most influential forms of feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). However there was little evidence of either type of feedback in this study. Students received little information, for example, about their ability to analyse components of an argument, to develop an argument or to argue in a persuasive manner. Further, there was little or no reference to student self-management or self-regulation in the feedback process, for instance feedback about selection of appropriate goals, planning of argument, organisation of time and monitoring progress. Hattie and Timperley (2007) note that the most common type of feedback in classrooms is task related, in particular corrective feedback. This study was no different. Teacher feedback focussed on students 'goals' and success criteria from the rubric.

Self-monitoring

Sadler (1989) makes a distinction between feedback and self-monitoring based on the source of the information. Information received from others regarding learning and progress is regarded as feedback while information generated internally is regarded as self-monitoring. For students, the value of self-monitoring lies in the generation of information regarding the quality of their work, thinking and performance as they are engaged with tasks (Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Sadler, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000a).

If students are to engage intelligently in the monitoring of their work, they need to have developed a degree of evaluative knowledge and expertise that enables them to make sound appraisals of their work, independent of the teacher. To make these judgements, students need to know what they are trying to achieve, and what quality work and successful achievement looks like (Sadler, 1989). In turn they need to apply this knowledge as they work towards improving the quality of their texts. Productive knowledge and expertise refers to the ability to select appropriate moves and strategies to close the gap between current and desired performance. These moves and strategies are acquired, over time, through appraisal of their own work and the work of others with scaffolding from teachers and peers (Sadler, 1989). By necessity, students draw on their productive knowledge as they revise and recraft their writing (Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Sadler, 1989). While evaluative and productive expertise and knowledge serve different functions, both need to be developed if students are to intelligently and independently monitor and improve their work (Sadler, 1989). With reference to the current study, student self-monitoring, in the main, was carried out at the teachers' behest. Students were asked, for example, during workshops to check their texts with reference to their 'goals', success criteria on the rubric and/or the focus of the workshop. They were instructed to make changes to their work in response to this checking. In the main, students did this by adding more features rather than playing with and reconfiguring the text as a whole to make it more persuasive. At no stage were students encouraged to look beyond the success criteria to latent criteria or to how the various features of their text work together to improve the quality of their writing. On some occasions, students were observed rereading their work, then continuing with their writing. This action did not however reflect the essence of self-monitoring (Hawe & Parr, 2014; Hawe & Dixon, 2014; Sadler, 1989), rather it seemed to be a

recapping of where they were up to in their writing prior to continuing with this task. Overall, it appears the quality of student self-monitoring was limited by three factors: students' dependence on the teachers to indicate when to review their work and what to look for; the restricted nature of the 'goals' and understanding of what constitutes a quality persuasive text; and students' focus on individual 'goals' and success criteria rather than the adoption of a holistic stance when making judgements about their work. Overall, as with the forethought phase, there were a number of missed opportunities during the performance phase for students to be scaffolded into and to take responsibility for the regulation of their writing.

The Self-Reflection Phase

Comprised of self-judgement and self-reaction, self-reflection supports students as they identify successful aspects of their learning in relation to goals, identify areas for future development and recognise adaptive or defensive reactions (Zimmerman, 2002). The self-reflection phase occurs at the completion of a task or, in this case, the writing unit.

Self-judgement

Self-judgement involves students evaluating achievement in relation to goals or other standards of performance and making appropriate attributions regarding success and/or failure (Zimmerman, 2002; 2008). The quality, type and properties of goals set during the forethought phase are therefore of great importance as these provide a reference point against which students compare their achievement (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008). The quality of self-evaluation is also important as these judgements influence decision-making in any subsequent forethought phase, in particular self-efficacy in relation to future tasks (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2008).

A key aspect of self-judgement is identification of causes of success and/or failure. Self-regulating learners tend to attribute success and/or failure to controllable factors such as effort, strategy use, or time management, as these behaviours are within their control and can be altered (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 2011). In contrast, learners who are not self-regulating attribute success or failure to uncontrollable factors such as ability or teacher preference (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2011). Each of the students involved in the current study believed he/she was successful with their writing and attributed this success to a number of factors, particularly effort expended, access to peers for support and feedback, selection of writing topic, availability and use of a rubric, and the design of the learning environment. Sophia, for instance, identified the use of specific strategies (careful planning and research) as reasons for her success. Kelly did not however believe he had been particularly successful due to his poor management of time and ineffective planning. None of the students seemingly attributed their success or lack of progress to personal abilities.

Making judgements about achievement is a high level cognitive activity, one in which students need careful support and scaffolding. Marshall (2004) and Sadler (1989) highlight the importance of individuals developing evaluative experience by being regularly engaged and supported in the process of making judgements. The students in the current study independently undertook a series of end-of-unit evaluative activities set by the teachers to establish which of their 'goals' had been met and what level and sub-level they had achieved. This was a sophisticated process of evaluation, requiring them to make judgements with limited access to quality exemplars at a range of levels and minimal adult support. While it is reasonable to expect students to make judgements regarding the quality of their work with reference to their goals, assigning a level and sub-level is difficult. Teachers themselves find this level of evaluation challenging. Unsurprisingly, students struggled to make an accurate appraisal of their current level of performance when it was subsequently compared to judgements made by their teachers, with the majority over-estimating their current level of achievement.

It can be argued that if this evaluation had been preceded by scaffolded and supported self-monitoring and peer review as occurred in Watson's (2004) study, the students in the current study would have been able to apply a greater level of evaluative expertise to this task. Scaffolding refers to the support provided by the teacher during the learning process so students can move from a position of dependence on the teacher to being able to independently manage and regulate their learning (Hadwin, Jarvela, & Miller, 2011). A lack of alignment between the judgements made by the students when compared to teacher judgement prompted the teachers to introduce an exemplar to illustrate the qualities and features of persuasive writing. While the students found this helpful, it was too late for them to productively use the exemplar for anything other than making a second evaluative judgement. It seemed the teachers recognised the students were struggling with evaluating the quality of their writing and did not fully grasp the qualities required to meet the levels specified in the rubric. An implicit and unintended message apparent during this phase was that teachers know best when it comes to the evaluation of student achievement which works against development of student independence and self-regulation.

The Nature of Writing

Considered a complex, recursive practise, writing involves processes of planning, composition, editing and recrafting, and publication (Davis, 2013; Harris et al., 2011). As individuals write, they plan, form and organise ideas and information in order to communicate to an audience. During composition, writers review, edit and recraft their work so their message and ideas are clearly represented and easily understood by the reader. At the conclusion of the composition and recrafting processes, writers decide how to publish their text. While presented in a linear fashion, the process of writing is iterative, with writers moving between stages as required to modify or recraft aspects of their work (Davis, 2013; Graves, 1983; Ministry of Education, 2006). Evidence from the current study indicates students were familiar with the process of writing and willingly participated in the associated practices.

For Harris et al (2006) and Graham et al (2005), planning was a key aspect of the writing process and a focus of the SRSD intervention. In both studies, students were taught and scaffolded to select a topic, organise ideas into a plan and to review and modify their plan during composition. For the researchers in both studies, teaching struggling writers strategies to plan their text was considered an important strategy often used by skilled writers to generate and organise their ideas. A writing plan was also considered a useful scaffold and prompt to the students in these studies so they could focus on the composition of their ideas when writing. Their completed text was found to be longer and of better quality than previous writing. In the current study, students similarly valued having a choice of topic as could write about a subject they were passionate about. However the students found planning the arguments for their persuasive writing challenging. In some cases, such as Sophia and Ioane, more information about their topics was required in order to construct a strong argument with supporting evidence. For others, the issue was with the planning format provided as a scaffold. Vania and John particularly found the format restrictive, limiting the number of ideas and evidence they could include to support their argument. The students were familiar with the planning format and seemed unaware of alternative methods to plan and organise their ideas for writing. To self-regulate, students need to be knowledgeable about the range of strategies available to them at each stage of the writing process in order to select the most appropriate and effective one for the task (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

During composition of their persuasive texts, students in the current study spoke of editing and recrafting their work. In practice, these processes involved the correction of surface features or adding writing features as specified in the rubric, in feedback or at a workshop rather than a reconfiguration of text to strengthen their argument. Limited use of exemplars as well as modelling and scaffolding of writing and recrafting processes made it challenging for students to see alternative ways of constructing arguments, using supporting evidence and persuasive writing features. Instead students in the current study relied on the rubric and feedback to guide their decision making in regard to improving their work – in this case, adding more writing features to their text. In contrast, the students in Watson's (2004) had access to a number of exemplars and models which had been deconstructed and discussed with them so they had knowledge of different methods authors use to construct their arguments. The teacher also used conferences with students as an opportunity to discuss and debate choices made during the writing process. Students were encouraged to explain decisions, refine ideas, revisit their planning and consider alternative options – knowledge which they used to recraft their writing. Access to exemplars and dialogic feedback also supported the development of students' productive expertise and ownership of their writing.

In summary, the findings of the current study indicate there were challenges and limitations in the implementation of strategies associated with self-regulation and the writing process. The restricted nature of the goals set and reliance on the persuasive writing rubric throughout the writing unit limited

the scope and effectiveness of the self-regulatory strategies implemented. With more scaffolding and modelling by the teachers, students' understanding and effective use of these strategies would have developed further. Access to models and exemplars to illustrate the qualities of a persuasive text and alternative strategies which can be employed to construct a strong argument was also highlighted as important in the development of student evaluative and productive expertise in writing. Despite these challenges, the students involved in this study held strong efficacy beliefs regarding their ability to construct a persuasive argument and believed they had ownership of the writing process.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

The aim of the current study was to examine Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom. The teachers' role in promoting aspects of self-regulation and associated strategies in their writing programmes was examined along with how students used and responded to these strategies. In addition, factors which help or hinder students to become self-regulating writers were explored. This chapter outlines the conclusions drawn from this study and addresses implications of the study. Recommendations for future research in relation to self-regulation are identified.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that the teachers intentionally promoted a number of strategies associated with self-regulation. While the teachers were committed to developing student self-regulation in writing, evidence suggests that aspects of implementation were problematic. Despite their commitment to developing student self-regulation, it would appear the teachers had a superficial understanding of the knowledge, expertise and level of support students required to self-regulate and how best to implement key strategies.

Firstly, evidence indicates teachers did not understand the importance of goals in relation to writing and self-regulation. As Timperley and Parr (2009) state:

“Students' understanding of learning goals and what it means to master them is fundamental to their success, because without such an understanding, they are unable to monitor their progress or generate relevant internal feedback” (p57).

To monitor and regulate their learning, students require quality goals which are sufficiently broad in nature. They must also acquire knowledge of what constitutes successful achievement of these goals and how to close the gap between their current and desired performance (Marshall, 2004; Sadler, 1989).

Secondly, the teachers failed to recognise that students require scaffolding and support in the use of strategies associated with self-regulation. Learning environments and programmes need to provide students with repeated opportunities to acquire, utilise and practise self-regulatory strategies such as goal setting, monitoring progress, self-evaluation and feedback (Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995; Watson, 2005; Zimmerman, 2002). There needed to be explicit teaching and modelling of self-regulatory strategies, particularly how these strategies could be effectively implemented during the process of writing. The provision of teacher support and guidance while students implement these strategies would have scaffolded their attempts to self-regulate (Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 1995;

Watson, 2005). Enhancing student self-regulation through scaffolding supports a shift in the locus of control for learning from the teacher to the student. Developing student ownership over their lessons allows for teachers to be more strategic, as it provides them with “more time to notice, reflect, and diagnose where further scaffolding is needed to support deeper learning. They can then provide that scaffolding as and when required” (Alton-Lee, Timperley, Parr, & Dreaver, 2012, p.3).

Thirdly, the teachers gave mixed messages to the students regarding their role in making decisions and judgements about their learning. On the one hand, they encouraged students to manage their learning through setting goals, choosing topics and learning spaces, and to use peers as a source of feedback and feedforward. Each of the students involved in the study valued these choices and felt they had a measure of control over their learning. They had relatively robust self-efficacy beliefs regarding their writing capabilities and ability to produce a quality piece of writing. Taking responsibility for their learning and employing self-regulatory strategies strengthened student commitment to learning, their self-efficacy and motivation. On the other hand, however, the teachers took control and made decisions regarding the quality of the work produced and how this could be improved. This is particularly evidenced with regard to student self-monitoring, during student evaluation of their writing and also in the form and nature of teacher feedback. These occasions provided key moments to support the development of student evaluative and productive expertise as well as the development of student self-regulation. By taking control, teachers retained their positions as experts rather than scaffolding a shift in the locus of control for learning from the teacher to the student (Absolum, 2006; Black & Wiliam, 1998).

Evidence generated during the current study suggested the students willingly engaged in strategies associated with self-regulation. However, it can be concluded that the teachers’ understanding and implementation of self-regulated learning was somewhat superficial which affected the nature and quality of the students’ experiences. The nature of the goals set restricted students’ ability to self-regulate in anything but a perfunctory manner. Alongside this, reliance on the narrow set of manifest criteria as well as lack of access to exemplars and dialogue regarding the expected qualities of their writing limited the development of student’s evaluative knowledge (Sadler, 1989). The students were not aware of the full set of criteria against which the quality of their work would be judged. As a result, students had a superficial understanding of the properties of the given criteria, how these criteria worked together to engender quality writing or how other criteria could be evoked when necessary (Sadler, 1989). Consequently, students were unable to make accurate comparisons between what was expected as a quality argument and writing, and what they had achieved to date. This lack of evaluative knowledge impinged on the development of students’ productive knowledge and expertise, that is, their ability to select appropriate strategies to close the gap between their current and desired performance.

As with self-regulation, writing is a complex process whereby students have to manage a range of strategies and have a deep understanding of how these combine and contribute to the creation of quality texts. Evidence from the current research suggests the students recognised writing as a process involving planning, composition, revision and publication. However, how the students were expected to set goals, monitor and evaluate their writing using the persuasive writing rubric worked against them understanding and experiencing writing as a holistic and recursive process. Students adopted an analytical view, believing the presence of individual features specified in the rubric led to the creation of a quality text. Evidence also suggests students had a superficial understanding of each aspect of the process, for example, planning was viewed as a task to be completed rather than as a scaffold to help organise and structure their argument. The students also did not seem to fully grasp the importance of recrafting and experimenting with the structure and organisation of their writing, rather their focus was on adding features to their writing or correcting surface features.

Implications

The importance of students becoming self-regulating learners is implicit in the New Zealand Curriculum, notably within the vision, principles and key competencies aspects of the document (Ministry of Education, 2007). However it is critical teachers understand that adding of strategies such as goal setting, feedback, self-monitoring and evaluation into their pedagogy and learning programmes will not automatically lead to self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2002). Crucially, teachers must consider how their pedagogy, including the design of their learning programmes and environment, needs to adapt to genuinely incorporate and promote the strategies associated with self-regulation (Paris & Paris, 2001). Teachers need to be knowledgeable about the nature and scope of each strategy, their interdependence - how these strategies work *together* to support student self-regulation and the role teachers play in scaffolding specific strategies (Dreaver, 2009; Timperley & Parr, 2009).

The nature of the learning environment and programme is vital to the development of student self-regulation. Teachers need to carefully consider the design of tasks and resources so they scaffold and support students as they practise and implement self-regulatory strategies (Paris & Paris, 2001). This includes setting appropriate goals, helping students understand criteria, using exemplars to make judgements regarding the quality of work, as well as encouraging students to generate feedback. These processes contribute to students' evaluative and productive expertise enabling them to make choices regarding the most effective strategies to use to improve the quality of their learning (Sadler, 1989). Scaffolding learning is vital so students can move from a position of dependence on the teacher to being able to independently manage and regulate their learning. Teachers need to be fully cognisant of the range of methods which can be employed to scaffold learning and use them strategically to support learning (Alton-Lee et al., 2012). Scaffolding, modelling, explicit teaching and authentic opportunities to practise these strategies are critical to the development of student self-regulation (Paris & Paris, 2001).

When developing student self-regulation, a close examination of the role of the teacher and students in learning is required. For self-regulation to operate as envisioned, a shift in beliefs regarding the roles and responsibilities of teachers and students must occur or implementation will be superficial (Absolum, 2006; Watson, 2005). Acknowledging a shift in the locus of control for learning from teacher to student is challenging but imperative if student self-regulation is to be developed and embedded in the culture of the classroom.

Self-regulation is a goal-driven process (Zimmerman, 2008) so it is imperative students understand the role goals play in guiding all aspects of their learning. Students need to be knowledgeable about the properties of quality goals and scaffolded to set appropriately challenging goals (Paris & Paris, 2001; Zimmerman, 2008). Alongside this, students need to be aware of what constitutes quality for their task and how this can be achieved through the dialogic use of quality criteria and exemplars. Students need to be aware of the broad range of criteria available to them, both manifest and latent, how these work together and can be called upon to guide and support learning (Sadler, 1989). Providing students with support to use criteria holistically to make judgements about the quality of their work rather than taking an analytical approach is an important aspect of self-monitoring and self-evaluation.

Finally, a reconsideration of the use and provision of feedback is required. A shift to dialogic forms of feedback is recommended as it allows for collaboration between participants (Carless, 2015). Students are actively involved in this process, identifying areas of achievement in their work and discussing potential ways to effect improvement, rather than being passive recipients. Through this dialogue, students further develop their evaluative and productive expertise, developing strategies to support self-regulation.

The development of students' self-regulation is too important to be left to chance. It is linked to academic success, lifelong learning and increased self-efficacy. Teachers need to provide students with opportunities to develop the skills and strategies associated with self-regulation, scaffolding and supporting them so that in time, students become independent, self-regulating learners.

Recommendations for future research

In terms of future research in relation to self-regulation and self-regulated learning, the following recommendations are made:

- This study examined Year 6 students' experiences and understandings of self-regulation in the writing classroom. A recommendation for future research would be to examine student experiences and understandings of self-regulation in other learning areas, such as Reading, Mathematics or Science.

- Investigating and comparing student self-regulation in different learning areas, such as Writing and Mathematics, would give insights into how students choose to regulate their learning across different learning domains, particularly differences in selection and application of self-regulatory strategies.
- Through a longitudinal study, examining and comparing student's experiences and understandings of self-regulation in a core learning area over time would provide insights into the development and changing perspectives of self-regulation.

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Appendix A: Principal and Board of Trustees Information Sheet

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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The University of Auckland
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Principal and Board of Trustees Information Sheet

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Project Description and Invitation:

I am writing to seek permission to access your school site to invite a teacher from your Years 5 and 6 team and six Years 5 and 6 students to participate in a research project for my Master of Education degree at The University of Auckland.

The purpose of this research is to explore Years 5 and 6 students' experience, understanding and use of self-regulated learning strategies when writing. These strategies include, for example, goal setting, use of feedback from peers and adults, self-assessment and evaluation, and reflection. I wish to observe writing lessons and carry out interviews with one teacher and six students over the course of two units of study. This is to elicit the contextual information of the writing lessons and to gain insight into student experiences, understandings and use of self-regulated learning strategies. Part of this process will include collecting teaching artefacts, such as planning sheets, exemplars and rubrics, and learning artefacts from the students, such as writing samples, self-assessments and goals.

I would like access to meet your Years 5 and 6 teaching team to explain the research, provide a Participant Information Sheet and Consent form and ask for a volunteer to participate in this research. Once consent is gained, I would ask the teacher to outline the project to the students and give the students a Participant Information Sheet and Assent form, a parental Information sheet and Consent form, and to collect completed forms.

Data Collection:

Data will be collected as follows:

- A semi-structured interview with the classroom teacher prior to commencing each of the units of work to determine the nature and intent of the writing unit and the collection of artefacts during each unit of work e.g. planning sheets, teaching resources, models, exemplars, success criteria. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed. These interviews will be organised to take place at a time and location nominated by the teacher.
- Observations of the classroom writing programme during each writing unit (introduction of the unit then every second or third lesson by negotiation). Data gathering will include use of an observation schedule and use of field notes [focused on the teacher and six selected students], audio-recording of conferences between the teacher and six student participants and the gathering of artefacts used during the lesson, such as models, resources. The focus of whole class and small group observations is the teacher – the strategies that he/she uses to encourage students self-regulatory behaviours. To this end, the responses of students will not be recorded other than those pertaining to the six selected students. These observations will be recorded on the observation schedule.
- Collection of artefacts from the selected students e.g. goals, learning maps, samples of works-in-progress, written feedback and self-evaluations and completed work. These will be photographed or photocopied so the original stays with the student.
- Semi-structured interviews with the selected students - twice during each unit and once at the conclusion of each unit [six interviews per student]. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed. These interviews will occur directly after the writing lesson in a place within the school chosen by the student, such as the class, the library or a withdrawal space, as negotiated with the teacher.

Use of data:

The data will be analysed to answer the research question and inform the writing of my thesis. The data may also be referred to in subsequent academic papers I write or refer to in conference presentations. All data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber.

Data storage:

Audio-recordings will be made during the interviews and observations of student-teacher conferences using a digital voice recorder. The recordings of the interviews, conferences and observations will be stored on the recorder's memory card and a password protected laptop. These audio-recordings will be transcribed by myself and/or a University of Auckland approved transcriber. Hard copies of these transcribed interviews will be stored in a locked filing cabinet. The transcriber will be asked to sign a confidentiality agreement.

Artefacts collected from the teacher and students will also be stored in a locked filing cabinet.

All research information will be stored for six years. At the end of this time, it will be destroyed. All digital recordings will be deleted.

Right to withdraw from participation:

As participation is voluntary, participants have the right to withdraw at any time. Participants have the right to withdraw any interview or teaching artefacts up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.

Anonymity and Confidentiality:

I will ensure the name of the participating school, teacher and students are kept confidential.

Pseudonyms will be used in the final thesis. It should be noted that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students will be aware of the names of the student participants. It is also likely that other teachers in the school will know who the participant teacher is.

Any supporting artefacts, including transcripts, teaching resources, planning documents, writing samples and exemplars, will have names or identifying information removed by the researcher prior to data analysis. All artefacts will be labelled with the corresponding pseudonyms.

Access to consent forms will be restricted to myself and the main supervisor. They will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the main supervisor's office at The University of Auckland for a period of six (6) years. These will be stored separately from the data collected for a period of six years, after which time they will be destroyed.

Data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber. The transcriber will be University of Auckland approved and will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement. Upon request, participants may receive a summary of the findings of the study.

I would seek confirmation from you that any student's decision to participate or not in the research is entirely voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with their teacher in any way nor will it affect their achievement results. Students who do not give assent and whose parents do not give them consent to participate in the research study as one of the six student participants, will continue to participate in their writing lessons following their normal routines to ensure a continued focus on their learning.

I would seek confirmation from you that any teacher's decision to participate or not in the research is entirely voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with you in any way nor will it affect their employment status.

If you have any questions regarding the above information, my contact details and those of my supervisors are below.

If you are willing to allow access to your school site and the opportunity to approach teachers and students to participate in this research, please sign and return the accompanying consent form.

Contact details and approval wording:

Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Professor Helen Dixon can be contacted on 09 373 7599 extn 48547 or by
email: h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz

Head of School: Associate Professor Lorri Santamaria can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 46353
or by email: l.santamaria@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact The Chair, The University of
Auckland Human Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice
Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373 7599 extn. 83711. Email:
ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

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COMMITTEE ON 18 June 2015 for three (3) years. Reference Number 014932

Appendix B: Principal and Board of Trustees Consent Form

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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The University of Auckland
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Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Consent form: Principal and Board of Trustees

This form will be held for six years.

Name of participating school: _____

Name of researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Name of supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Dr Helen Dixon

Research project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

I have read the Information sheet provided. Details of the research project have been fully explained to me, including the collection of information, transcription, confidentiality, data use, storage and destruction. I understand the nature of this research and have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I consent to the researcher having access to the school site to approach potential participants for the research named above.
- I consent to the researcher having access to the teachers of the Year 5-6 teaching team to explain the research, gain their participation and their support to issue information sheets, assent and consent forms.
- I understand the teacher and students' participation is voluntary and can be withdrawn.
- I understand the participants can withdraw any interview or teaching artefacts up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.
- I understand the names of the school and participants will not be used in the researcher's thesis or any reports.
- I understand any documentation will have identifying information removed.
- I understand observations will occur of whole class writing lessons and group teaching which will focus on the teacher teaching and the responses of the six participating students. I understand field notes will be recorded on an observation form.

- I understand observations will occur of conferences between the six participating students and the teacher. I understand these will be audio-recorded. While every endeavour will be made to maintain confidentiality within the school regarding participation, I understand that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students and staff will be aware of the names of the teacher and student participants.
- I provide an assurance that any student's decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with the teacher in any way nor will it affect their achievement results.
- I provide an assurance that any teacher's decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with me in any way nor will it affect their employment status.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

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Appendix C: Teacher Participant Information Sheet

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Teacher Participant Information Sheet

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Project Description and Invitation:

I am currently completing a research project for my Master of Education degree at The University of Auckland. The Principal has given me permission to approach you, explain the research and seek your participation.

The purpose of this research is to explore Years 5 and 6 students' experience, understanding and use of self-regulated learning strategies when writing. These strategies include, for example, goal setting, use of feedback from peers and adults, self-assessment and evaluation, and reflection.

I wish to observe writing lessons and carry out interviews with one teacher and six students over the course of two units of study. This is to understand students' learning experiences and gain insight into student use of self-regulated learning strategies. Part of this research process will include collecting teaching artefacts from you, such as planning sheets, exemplars and rubrics, and learning artefacts from the students, such as writing samples, self-assessments and writing goals.

The Principal has given an assurance that your decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on your relationship with him/her in any way nor will it affect your employment status.

If more than one teacher agrees to participate by completing the Consent form, then Dr Eleanor Hawe, as research supervisor, will randomly select a participant. All teachers who volunteer will be informed if they were chosen or not.

If you give consent to participate, I would ask you to give the students in the class a Participant Information Sheet and Assent form, a Parental Information Sheet and Consent form, and to collect completed forms on my behalf.

Data Collection:

Data will be collected as follows:

- A semi-structured interview with you prior to the commencement of each of the units of work to determine the nature and intent of the writing unit. These interviews will take 30-45 minutes. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed.
- The collection of artefacts during each unit of work e.g. planning, teaching resources, models, exemplars, success criteria.
- Observations of the classroom writing programme during each writing unit (introduction of the unit then every second or third lesson by negotiation). Data gathering will include use of an observation schedule and use of field notes [focused on the teacher and six selected students], audio-recording of conferences between the teacher and six student participants and the gathering of artefacts used during the lesson, such as models, resources. The focus of whole class and small group observations is the teacher – the strategies that he/she uses to encourage students self-regulatory behaviours. To this end, the responses of students will not be recorded other than those pertaining to the six selected students. These observations will be recorded on the observation schedule.
- Collection of artefacts from the selected students e.g. goals, learning maps, samples of works-in-progress, written feedback and self-evaluations and completed work. These will be photographed or photocopied so the original stays with the student.
- Semi-structured interviews with the selected students - twice during each unit and once at the conclusion of each unit [six interviews per student]. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed.

Your involvement in the research project:

As described above, your involvement will include a 30-45 minute interview prior to the start of each writing unit, at a time and place of your choosing. The purpose of these interviews is to gather information about the nature and intent of each writing unit as well as contextual information about the teaching and learning processes used in your class. With your permission, the interviews will be recorded. You may request that the digital recorder is turned off at any time during the interviews. Once the interviews have been transcribed, you will be given a copy of the transcription to verify its accuracy.

I would need to negotiate appropriate times with you to observe the classroom writing programme during each writing unit. This would include the introduction of the unit and then every second or third

lesson by negotiation. This aspect of data collection would include observations of whole class and small group interactions (e.g. peer review, conferencing) and the gathering of artefacts used during the lesson, such as models, resources. With your permission, these observations will be recorded and transcribed. You may request that the digital recorder is turned off at any time during the observation. I would also ask for you to make available teaching artefacts used during each unit of work e.g. planning, teaching resources, models, exemplars, success criteria, which I would copy or photograph and return to you.

I seek your agreement to outline the research project to your class and issue all students with Participant Information sheets and Assent forms, and Information sheets and Consent forms for their parents. I ask that you collect these forms on my behalf when they are returned by the parents and/or students.

Six students are required for this research. If more than six students have consented to participate, I would ask you to assist with the selection of students by grouping the consent forms by the students' achievement against the National Standard for Writing, then randomly selecting two students achieving above, two achieving at and two below the Standard. You will keep the students' level of achievement confidential until the data collection has been completed. I seek an assurance from you that students' decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with you in any way nor their achievement results. Students who do not give assent and whose parents do not give them consent to participate in the research study as one of the six student participants, will continue to participate in their writing lessons following their normal routines to ensure continued focus on their learning.

Use of data:

The data will be analysed to answer the research question and inform the writing of my thesis. The data may also be referred to in subsequent academic papers I write or refer to in conference presentations. Data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber. It will not be made available to the Principal or Board of Trustees.

Data storage:

Audio- recordings will be made during the interviews and observations of student-teacher conferences using a digital voice recorder. The recordings of the interviews, conferences and observations will be stored on the recorder's memory card and a password protected laptop. These audio- recordings will be transcribed by myself and/or a University of Auckland approved transcriber. Hard copies of these transcribed interviews will be stored in a locked filing cabinet.

Artefacts collected from you and students will also be stored in a locked filing cabinet.

All research information will be stored for six years. At the end of this time, it will be destroyed. All audio- recordings will be deleted.

Right to withdraw from participation:

As participation is voluntary, you have the right to withdraw at any time. You have the right to withdraw any interview or teaching artefacts up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.

Anonymity and Confidentiality:

I will ensure the name of the participating school and students are kept confidential. I would ask you to keep your participation confidential. It should be noted that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students will be aware of the names of the student participants. It is also likely that other teachers in the school will know of your participation.

Pseudonyms for yourself, the students and school will be used in the final thesis and any subsequent presentations or publications.

Any supporting artefacts, including transcripts, teaching resources, planning documents, writing samples and exemplars, will have names or identifying information removed by the researcher prior to data analysis. All artefacts will be labelled with the corresponding pseudonyms.

Access to consent forms will be restricted to myself and the main supervisor. They will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the main supervisor's office at the University of Auckland for a period of six (6) years. These will be stored separately from the data collected for a period of six years, after which time they will be destroyed.

Data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber. The transcriber will be University of Auckland approved and will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement. Upon request, participants may receive a summary of the findings of the study.

I would seek confirmation from you that any student's decision to participate or not in the research is entirely voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with you or affect their achievement results. Students who do not give assent and whose parents do not give them consent to participate in the research study as one of the six student participants, will continue to participate in their writing lessons following their normal routines to ensure continued focus on their learning.

If you wish to receive a summary of findings of the research, please complete the relevant section of the Consent form.

If you have any questions regarding the above information, my contact details and those of my supervisors are below.

If you are willing to participate in this research, please sign and return the accompanying consent form.

Contact details and approval wording:

Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Professor Helen Dixon can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48547 or by
email: h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz

Head of School: Associate Professor Lorri Santamaria can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 46353
or by email: l.santamaria@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact The Chair, The University of
Auckland Human Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice
Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373 7599 extn. 83711. Email:
ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

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COMMITTEE ON 18 June 2015 for three (3) years. Reference Number 014932

Appendix D: Principal and Board of Trustees Acknowledgement of Participation

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The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Dear [insert the principal's name]

School Consent Acknowledgement

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr. Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Thank you for the opportunity to meet and discuss my research project.

I would like to acknowledge that you have given consent to allow access to your school and access to the Years 5 and 6 teachers and students to enable me to carry out my research project. Your support and interest in this research is appreciated.

As discussed, I will meet with the teachers of the Years 5 and 6 students on [insert date and time] to explain the research project and to seek a volunteer.

If you have any questions, please contact me on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or email me, kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Kind regards

Kathryn Eltringham

Contact details and approval wording:

Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email:
e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Professor Helen Dixon can be contacted on 09 373 7599 extn 48547 or by
email: h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz

Head of School: Associate Professor Lorri Santamaria can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 46353
or by email: l.santamaria@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact The Chair, The University of
Auckland Human Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice
Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373 7599 extn. 83711

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Appendix E: Teacher Consent Form

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Consent form: Teacher

This form will be held for six years.

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process
Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham
Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

I have read the Information sheet provided. Details of the research project have been fully explained to me, including the collection of information through interviews, observation and collection of artefacts; transcription, confidentiality, data use, storage and destruction. I understand the nature of this research and have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I understand my participation is voluntary.
- I understand I can withdraw at any time without explanation.
- I understand I can withdraw any interview or teaching artefacts up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.
- I agree to outline the research project to my class and issue all students with student Participant Information Sheets and Assent Forms, and Information Sheets and Consent Forms for their parents. I agree to collect these forms when they are returned by the parents and/or students.
- If more than six students consent to participate, I agree to assist with the selection of students.
- I agree to keep the students' level of achievement confidential until the data collection has been completed.
- I understand the names of the school and participants will not be used in the researcher's thesis or any subsequent reports or presentations.
- I understand any documentation will have identifying information removed.

- While every endeavour will be made to maintain confidentiality within the school regarding participation, I understand that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students and staff will be aware of my participation and the names of student participants.
- I understand that individual participant data will be confidential to the researcher and her supervisors. It will not be made available to the Principal or Board of Trustees.
- I agree to the audio-recording of my interviews with the researcher. I understand I can ask for the recording to be turned off at any time during the interview.
- I understand observations will occur of whole class writing lessons and group teaching which will focus on my teaching and the responses of the six participating students. I understand field notes will be recorded on an observation form.
- I understand observations will occur of conferences between the six participating students and myself. I understand these will be audio-recorded.
- I provide an assurance that the students' decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with me in any way nor will it affect their achievement results.
- I wish to receive an electronic copy of the findings of the study by email: YES NO

Email address: _____

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 18 June 2015 for three (3) years. Reference Number 014932

Appendix F: Teacher Acknowledgement of Participation

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Teacher Participation Acknowledgement

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Dear [Teacher name]

Thank you for volunteering to participate in my research project. Altogether [number to be inserted] teachers volunteered to take part. From this, one teacher have been randomly selected.

[Insert appropriate statement]

Thank you for your interest. Unfortunately, your name was not selected.

Thank you for your interest. Your name was selected. I look forward to meeting with you and learning from you.

If you have any questions, please email me kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Kind regards

Kathryn Eltringham

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Appendix G: Student Information Sheet

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Student Information Sheet

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Project Description and Invitation:

I am currently carrying out a research project for my Master of Education degree at The University of Auckland. The Principal of your school and your teacher have given me permission to invite you to take part in my project.

This research is to find out about the learning strategies you choose to use when you are writing and how these help you. These strategies could include, for example, setting goals, using feedback, assessing your own work and reflecting on your learning in writing lessons. This information is important because it tells teachers which learning strategies in writing students find most useful and successful.

I need six students from your class to volunteer to help. If more than six students volunteer, your teacher will help by sorting your names into three groups and will randomly select two names from each group. This is to make sure all the volunteers have a chance of being chosen in a way that is done is fair to everyone. Once six students have been chosen, I will let all the volunteers know if they were chosen or not.

Collecting information:

From the six student volunteers, I will be collecting information about the learning strategies you choose to use when you are writing in several different ways. These include:

- Interviews with you about your learning in writing. These six interviews will happen during the writing units and at the end of each unit. These interviews will be about 10-20 minutes long and will be audio-recorded. At any time, you will be able to ask for the recorder to be turned off

or for the conference to end. The interviews will take place after the lesson in a place you choose with your teacher's help.

- Collecting samples of your writing. I would like to photocopy or photograph your writing to see the changes you make to your writing and the feedback or goals you may have.
- Collecting samples of the resources you use to help you write. I would like to photocopy or photograph the resources you use when writing such as exemplars, success criteria, your writing goals.
- Watching how you are taught to write and how you work with others to help each other learn.

This is called an Observation.

- I will observe how you are taught in your writing lessons as a whole class or in a small group. The purpose of these observations is find out how your teacher teaches you to make decisions about your writing and how the six student volunteers learn these skills. I will write notes to record what your teacher says and what the six student volunteers say during this observation.
- I will also observe and audio-record you when you have a writing conference with your teacher. Only the six students who are participating in the research will be recorded.

How will this information be used and stored?

I will be using the information collected from you to write a thesis. In the future, I may also use this information to help teachers learn about the strategies students choose to use when writing.

If you choose to participate in this project, you are a volunteer. You can withdraw from this project at any time until 18 September 2015. After this date, I will begin analysing all the information very carefully to find out what is important for you to do when you are writing.

To help me to write this thesis, a written copy of the audio-recorded interviews and observations will be made. A written copy will be made by a person who is a transcriber. This person, the transcriber, will sign a paper to say they agree to not tell anyone what you have said (a confidentiality agreement).

All the information collected from the six student volunteers (interviews, observations and writing samples) will be kept in a locked cupboard for six years. After six years, it will all be destroyed by being shredded or deleted.

I will not tell anyone that you are participating in this project. Your name, your teacher's name, the name of your school and any names you use in interviews will not be used in my thesis, any articles or presentations. Different names, or pseudonyms, will be used instead to keep your names confidential. You will probably work out who the other volunteers to participate in this project are. I ask that you keep their involvement and information confidential.

Your decision to participate or not in the research is entirely voluntary. Your decision will not impact on your relationship with your teacher or your marks. If you decide that you do not want to be involved as

one of the six student participants in this research study, you will continue to take part in your writing lessons as you normally would.

There is an information sheet for you to give to your parents to read and talk about with you. If you would like to volunteer to participate, you need to sign the Assent form and your parents need to sign the Consent form. Please return both of them to your teacher by [date to be inserted]

If you have any questions regarding the above information, my contact details and those of my supervisors are below.

Contact details and approval wording:

Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham can be contacted by email: kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email: e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Professor Helen Dixon can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48547 or by email: h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz

Head of School: Associate Professor Lorri Santamaria can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 46353 or by email: l.santamaria@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373 7599 extn. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 18 June 2015 for three (3) years. Reference Number 014932

Appendix H: Parent Information Sheet

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Auckland 1150, New Zealand

Parent Information Sheet

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Project Description and Invitation:

I am currently completing a research project for my Master of Education degree at The University of Auckland. The purpose of this research is to explore Years 5 and 6 students' experience, understanding and use of self-regulated learning strategies when writing. These strategies include, for example, goal setting, use of feedback from peers and adults, self-assessment and evaluation, and reflection.

The Principal of your child's school and the teacher have given me permission to invite students from your child's class to participate in this research project. I would like to invite six students to volunteer to participate. If more than six students volunteer, then the teacher will sort the names into three groups and randomly selecting two names from each group. All students who volunteer will be informed if they were chosen or not.

Your child has a Participant Information Sheet to share and discuss with you. If your child would like to volunteer, they have an Assent form to sign and return to their teacher.

Data Collection:

I will be collecting data and information about the learning strategies your child uses when writing in several different ways. These include:

- An interview with the class teacher, prior to the start of two learning units, to gain an insight into the planned learning during these writing units.
- Observations of the classroom writing programme during each writing unit (introduction of the unit then every second or third lesson by negotiation). Data gathering will include use of an

observation form and use of field notes [focused on the teacher and six selected students], audio-recording of conferences between the teacher and six student participants and the gathering of artefacts used during the lesson, such as models, resources. The focus of whole class and small group observations is the teacher – the strategies that he/she uses to encourage students self-regulatory behaviours. To this end, the responses of students will not be recorded other than those pertaining to the six selected students. These will be recorded on an observation form.

- Short interviews with your child about their learning in writing. These will happen during the writing units and at the end of each unit. There will be six of these interviews in total and each will be 10-20 minutes long. These interviews will be audio-recorded, and will take place after the lesson at a place within the school chosen by your child with their teacher. At any time, your child will be able to ask for the recorder to be turned off or for the conference to end.
- The collection of samples of your child's writing. Every lesson I observe, I would like to photocopy or photograph your child's writing to see the changes they make to their writing and the feedback or goals they may have.
- The collection of samples of the resources your child uses to when writing. Every lesson I observe, I would like to photocopy or photograph the resources your child uses when writing such as exemplars, success criteria, writing goals.

Use of data:

The data will be analysed to answer the research question and inform the writing of my thesis. The data may also be referred to in subsequent academic papers I write or refer to in conference presentations. Data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber.

Data storage:

Audio-recordings will be made during the interviews and observations of student-teacher conferences using a digital voice recorder. The recordings of the interviews and observations will be stored on the recorder's memory card and a password protected laptop. These audio- recordings will be transcribed by myself and/or a University of Auckland approved transcriber. Hard copies of these transcribed interviews and conferences will be stored in a locked filing cabinet.

Artefacts collected from students will also be stored in a locked filing cabinet.

All research information will be stored for six years in a locked filing cabinet. At the end of this time, it will be destroyed. All audio- recordings will be deleted.

Right to withdraw from participation:

As participation is voluntary, your child has the right to withdraw at any time. Your child has the right to withdraw any interview or writing samples and resources up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.

Anonymity and Confidentiality:

I will ensure the name of your child, the teacher and the school are kept confidential. The participating students and teacher are asked to keep their participation confidential. It should be noted that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students will be aware of the names of the student participants. Pseudonyms for your child, their teacher and school will be used in the final thesis and any subsequent presentations or publications.

Any supporting artefacts, including transcripts, teaching resources, planning documents, writing samples and exemplars, will have names or identifying information removed by the researcher prior to data analysis. All artefacts will be labelled with the corresponding pseudonyms.

Access to consent forms will be restricted to myself and the main supervisor. They will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in the main supervisor's office at the University of Auckland for a period of six (6) years. These will be stored separately from the data collected for a period of six years, after which time they will be destroyed.

Data will be confidential to myself, my supervisors and the transcriber. The transcriber will be University of Auckland approved and will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement.

Your child's decision to participate or not in the research is entirely voluntary. If a decision is made that your child will not be involved as one of the six participants in this research study, they will continue to take part in their writing lessons following their normal learning routines. I have an assurance from the class teacher that this decision will not impact on their relationship with your child or affect your child's achievement results. I have an assurance from the Principal that your child's decision to participate or not in the research will not impact on their relationship with your child or affect their achievement results.

An electronic copy of the summary of findings of the research can be requested by your child. If you have any questions regarding the above information, my contact details and those of my supervisors are below.

If your child is willing to participate in this research, and has signed their Assent form, please sign and return the accompanying consent form.

Contact details and approval wording:

Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email: kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48733 or by email: e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

Associate Professor Helen Dixon can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 48547 or by email: h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz

Head of School: Associate Professor Lorri Santamaria can be contacted on 09 623-8899 extn 46353
or by email: l.santamaria@auckland.ac.nz

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373 7599 extn. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

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Appendix I: Student Assent Form

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Assent form: Student

This form will be held for six years.

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process
Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham
Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Research project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

I have read the Participant Information sheet given to me and discussed this with my parents/caregivers.

Details of the research project have been fully explained to me, including how information will be collected and used.

I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I understand my participation is voluntary.
- I understand I can withdraw at any time without explanation.
- Once analysis commences on 18 September 2015, I understand I will not be able to withdraw any information I have given.
- I give permission for the conferences and interviews to be audio-recorded. I understand I can ask for the recorder to be switched off at any time.
- I understand that written copies of my recording will be made by a transcriber. He/She will not tell anyone what I have said.
- I understand that I will be observed during class and group sessions. I understand that observations of the writing lessons with the whole class and groups will be recorded as notes handwritten by the researcher.
- I understand I will also be observed and audio-recorded during my writing conferences with the teacher.

- I understand the names of the school and participants will not be used in the thesis or any reports or presentations to keep our identities confidential.
 - I give permission for photocopies or photographs to be made of my writing and the learning resources I use when writing.
 - I understand any documents or written information will have names removed so it is kept confidential.
 - I understand I will probably know who the other participants are. I agree to keep their names and information confidential.
 - I understand that copies of my recordings and information will be stored in a secure place for six years then destroyed.
- I wish to receive an electronic copy of the summary of findings of the study by email
 YES NO
 Email address: _____

I agree to be a participant in this research study **and** the observations of the writing programme.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Please return the completed form to your teacher.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 18 June 2015 for three (3) years. Reference Number 014932

Appendix J: Parent Consent Form

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Consent form: Parent

This form will be held for six years.

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process
Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham
Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

I have read the Information sheet provided. Details of the research project have been fully explained to me, including the collection of information through interviews, observation and collection of artefacts; transcription, confidentiality, data use, storage and destruction. I understand the nature of this research and have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I understand my child's participation is voluntary.
- I understand my child can withdraw at any time without explanation.
- I understand my child can withdraw any interview or observational data or writing samples and resources up until the time of analysis, 18 September 2015.
- I understand the names of the school and participants will not be used in the researcher's thesis or any subsequent reports or presentations.
- I understand any documentation will have identifying information removed.
- I agree to keep my child's participation confidential.
- While every endeavour will be made to maintain confidentiality within the school regarding participation, I understand that given the small number of participants and the nature of the data collection, it is likely that other students may be aware of my child's participation.
- I understand that individual participant data will be confidential to the researcher and her supervisors.
- I understand that my child will participate in six 10-20 minute interviews with the researcher which will be audio- recorded. I understand my child can ask for the recording to be turned off at any time during the interview.

- I understand that written copies of the interviews will be made by a transcriber who will have signed a confidentiality agreement.
- I understand photocopies or photographs will be made of my child's writing and the learning resources they use when writing. I understand any documents or written information will have names removed so it is kept confidential.
- I understand that observations of the writing lessons will take place.
- I understand observations of conferences between the teacher and the six student participants will be audio-recorded.
- I understand observations of the writing programme will include observations of the whole class and group teaching. I understand that these observations are focussed on the teacher teaching and responses of the six participating students. These will be recorded as field notes on an observation form.
- I understand the Principal and teacher have provided an assurance that any student's decision to participate or not is voluntary and will not impact on their relationship with school staff in any way nor will it affect their achievement results.

I give consent for my child, _____ to be a participant in this research study **and** the observations of the writing programme.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Please return the completed form to your child's teacher.

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Appendix K: Student Acknowledgement of Participation

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Student Participation Acknowledgement

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process
Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham
Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Associate Professor Helen Dixon

Dear [Student name]

Thank you for volunteering to participate in my research project. Altogether [number to be inserted] students in your class volunteered to take part. Your teacher has randomly picked the six students who will participate in the study. This was done to make sure you all had a fair chance of being chosen.

[Insert appropriate statement]

Thank you for your volunteering. Unfortunately, your name was not one of the names randomly selected.

Thank you for your volunteering. Your name was selected. I look forward to meeting with you and learning from you.

If you have any questions, please email me kelt001@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Kind regards

Kathryn Eltringham

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Appendix L: Transcriber Confidentiality Agreement

School of Learning, Development and Professional Practice



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Transcriber confidentiality agreement

Name of Researcher: Kathryn Eltringham

Research Supervisors: Dr Eleanor Hawe and Dr Helen Dixon

Research Project title: Self-regulated Learners: Taking control of the writing process

I, agree to transcribe recorded interviews for the research project above. I understand that the material contained within them is confidential and I agree not to disclose the information or discuss it with anyone other than the researcher and her supervisors.

All electronic files will be stored on a password protected computer. I also agree to remove electronic files from my computer once the researcher has acknowledged receipt of the transcriptions.

Name:

Signature:



Date:

20.07.15

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Appendix M: Observation Schedule

Observation Type:	TEACHING	CONFERENCE	INDEPENDENT LEARNING	PEER INTERACTION
Date: Context/Topic: Participants:				
<p><u>Observation Criteria:</u></p> <p>Forethought Phase: <i>Task Analysis</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal Setting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Goals are proximal, specific, ambitious and challenging ○ Focus on process and product/outcome of learning ○ Take the form of Learning Intentions or personal goals ○ Reflect process or outcome (product) ○ Learning process goals: implement a method of learning ○ Performance outcome goals: learners self-assess on the product of efforts to learn • Strategic planning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Criteria developed e.g. action plans, success criteria ○ Select strategies to enhance performance <p><i>Motivation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Committed to achieving goals – learning goal orientation ○ Expect to succeed ○ Demonstrate persistence, resilience and effort ○ Value the learning task or the skill being learned ○ High self-efficacy as a learner 	<p><u>Time:</u></p>	<p><u>Observation Notes:</u></p>		

Performance Phase	<u>Time:</u>	<u>Observation Notes:</u>
<p><i>Self-control</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Enhance learning and performance <li>○ Identify key aspects of learning task. Select appropriate strategies to accomplish these. <li>○ Seek help from <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ peers <li>▪ adults <li>▪ resources e.g. exemplars <li>○ Establish personal consequences for learning success <li>○ Strategies to focus attention – improve concentration and ignore distractions e.g. time management, environmental structuring <li>○ Self-instruction – strategies to help remember or apply learning e.g. mnemonics, verbalisation, imagery <p><i>Self-observation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Meta-cognitive monitoring and recording – using logs/journals systematically to reflect and monitor learning progress 		

Self-Reflection Phase	<u>Time:</u>	<u>Observation Notes:</u>
<p><i>Self-judgement</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Self-assessment and evaluation – comparison of self-monitored outcomes to their goals (Forethought phase) <li>○ Evaluate levels of understanding, effort and strategies used <li>○ Causal attribution – reflection by student as to the cause of learning results e.g. effort, ability. Insight into causes and progress <p><i>Self-reaction</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Self-satisfaction: perception of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction and associated emotions in relation to performance <li>○ Adaptive/Defensive judgements in regard to altering or adapting learning behaviours and strategies to support learning and achievement <p>Student Behaviour</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Effectively use Forethought processes <li>○ Specific, challenging and proximal goals <li>○ Goals focus on the process of learning and product/outcome <li>○ Select and modify strategies to enhance performance <li>○ Committed to goals <li>○ Persistent and resilient learners <li>○ High expectations and self-efficacy <li>○ Systematic use of strategies to focus, self-instruct and monitor learning <li>○ Evaluate learning through comparison of performance to goals <li>○ Self-satisfaction dependent on achieving goals <li>○ Improved self-efficacy and sense of personal agency over learning process <li>○ Ownership and responsibility for learning 		

Paris, S.G. and Paris, A.H. (2001), Classroom applications of research on self-regulated learning, *Educational Psychologist*, 36: 2, p89-101

Watson, V. (2005), Empowering students to become self-regulating writers: The journey of one class, *SET*, 2, p34-37

Zimmerman, B.J. (2008), Goal setting: A key proactive source of academic self-regulation. In D. H. Schunk and B.J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research and applications*, (pp 267-295). London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Zimmerman, B.J. (2011), Motivational sources and outcomes of self-regulated learning and performance. In B. J. Zimmerman and D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance*, (pp 49-64). New York, NY: Routledge

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Appendix O: Indicative Questions for Teacher Interviews

Semi-Structured Interview: Indicative Questions for Teacher Interviews (30-45 minutes)

The first part of this interview occurs prior to the beginning of the first writing unit (Lesson structure and organisation, Student learning and expectations). The remainder occurs prior to both writing units.

Begin with introductions, interview purpose and protocols. Ensure the teacher is aware he/she can ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time.

Lesson structure and organisation

- How often do you teach writing during a normal school week?
- Describe a typical lesson. How will it unfold?
- How is your class organised for writing? (Groups, resources, computers, desk/seating arrangements).
- What is your role during a writing unit? What do you do and why?
- How do you cater for different learning needs? For example, differentiated programmes, resources devised to support learners, peer or group learning, use of teacher aide
- What strategies to help students learn/write, do you explicitly teach and reinforce? How? Why? Refer to self-regulatory strategies:
 - How do you let students know what is expected?
 - Query use of writing demonstrations, models, modelling book, exemplars
 - Goal setting
 - Query use of Learning Intentions for specific lessons. How are these selected and prioritised?
 - Query students' individual learning goals. Do they have goals? How are they developed and monitored?
 - Success criteria
 - Investigate how these are developed and used by the teacher.
 - Investigate how students use them. Do students have opportunities to practise using them to analyse text and give feedback?
 - Planning
 - Explore use of mind mapping, graphic organisers, thinking tools, planning sheets and other tools for planning writing
 - Students seeking support
 - Investigate Class systems for seeking assistance
 - Teacher feedback
 - Probe regularity and form e.g. written or oral feedback? Given daily or as requested?
 - Discuss what the feedback is linked to e.g. agreed Success criteria, teacher identified need in student writing, student goals
 - How are students expected to act on this information?
 - Use of learning resources
 - Identify resources used by the teacher and available for student use e.g. writing models, exemplars, use of a modelling book, tools for self-monitoring and reflection
 - How does the teacher model their use?
 - Organisation of the learning environment
 - Discuss organisation and layout of furniture, and the purpose of this
 - Investigate how students are encouraged to organise and use the class space and furniture for their learning. Are students allocated a space to learn or can they self-select?
 - Peer review and feedback
 - Investigate how students are taught to give feedback to each other

- Discuss use of success criteria, models and exemplars for this process
- Investigate the value given to peer review and feedback as part of the writing process
- How are students expected to act on this information?
- Student self-monitoring
 - Investigate how students are taught to analyse and monitor their writing development and progress
 - Discuss use of learning resources for this process e.g. success criteria, models and exemplars
 - How are students expected to act on this information?
- Evaluation
 - Examine processes used in writing lessons e.g. peer review, use of criteria, evidence of use of writing techniques.
 - Who is involved?
 - Discuss use of learning resources for this process e.g. success criteria, questions, models and exemplars
 - How is this information used? For example, set new goals, revise the learning programme, improve writing quality
- Reflection
 - Examine processes used in writing lessons e.g. peer review, use of criteria, evidence of use of writing techniques.
 - Who is involved?
 - Discuss use of learning resources for this process e.g. success criteria, questions, models and exemplars
 - How is this information used? For example, set new goals, revise the learning programme, improve writing quality

Student learning and expectations

- How do you see the role of the students during writing?
- What are your expectations of the students in terms of their learning and progress?
- What do students do during a writing lesson? What do you expect them to do?
- Which self-regulatory strategies are students familiar with/use regularly? Which need further teaching and practise?
- How are students encouraged to take risks with their writing?
- What processes are in place to monitor student writing?
- What decisions do students make during writing lessons?
- What decisions do students make about where/how they learn?

Writing Unit: Planning and Organisation

- What is the **learning** focus for this unit? How did you select it?
- Describe the structure of this writing unit. How will it be introduced? How will the programme develop? Which are the crucial questions?
- What are your key teaching points for this unit?
- Which learning strategies will you introduce/explicitly teach? [See Self-regulatory strategies listed above]
- What strategies, skills or learning do you expect to see transferred from previous units to the learning in this unit? Or from other learning areas?
- Tell me about the resources you have chosen to use. Why have these been selected? How will you use them?
- How will you cater for different learning needs? How will you cater for differences in progress?
- How will you assess the learning that takes place in this unit? How will you use this information?
- What do you expect to come out of the learning for this unit? How many writing products will students be expected to produce?

Prompts:

Tell me more about...

Give me an example of...

I'm not sure about...

Can you show me how...?

I haven't quite understood what you said. Can you tell me another way?

I notice you.... Can you tell me more about this?

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Semi-Structured Interview: Additional Indicative Questions for Teacher Interviews

These questions were used in addition to the indicative questions listed above as part of the third interview with both teachers.

- Use and availability of exemplars
 - How do you perceive these as helping students learn?
 - How do you select exemplars to ensure there is a variety?
- Goals
 - How do students evaluate their writing to see if they have achieved their goals?
 - How do you encourage students to focus on achieving their goals while also using the success criteria to monitor and revise their writing?
 - Moving to a new piece of work – do you expect students to set new goals?
- Feedback
 - What triggered the lesson focus on how to give feedback?
 - Why do you consider student giving feedback important?
 - What happens for students who do not get helpful feedback from their thinking buddies?
 - What do you focus your teacher feedback on?
 - How do you monitor student learning progress?
- Reflection
 - How do students evaluate the quality of their writing?
 - What do you perceive quality writing to be?
- Motivation and collaboration
 - What mechanisms and support do you put in place to encourage and support student motivation and collaboration?

Appendix P: Indicative Questions for Student Interviews

Semi-Structured Interview: Indicative Questions for Student Interviews (10-20 minutes)

Student Interview One

The initial part of this interview (Knowing the student as a writer) occurs at the beginning of the first writing unit.

- Begin with introductions, interview purpose and protocols.
- Explain that any names used by the student during the interview, for example to identify students they prefer to work with, will be replaced with a pseudonym.
- Ensure each student is aware they can ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time.

Knowing the student as a writer.

Ask the student to talk about themselves, hobbies and interests. Guide the interview to focus on Writing. Find out about their attitude to and beliefs about writing.

- Tell me about you as a writer or author.
- What do you enjoy about writing? What do you dislike about writing?
 - Use prompts to probe into responses given to obtain further detail e.g. is it the writing process they enjoy or dislike? Why do you like working with _____? Tell me more about...
- How do you learn during a Writing lesson? [draw on a specific unit of work/genre if necessary]
- What helps you to learn to write? Who helps you learn to write? [as above]
- What makes learning to write tricky?
- What is your favourite type of writing? Why? Can you show me an example?
- Tell me about a typical writing lesson in your class. What happens? What do you do?

Learning in this Writing Unit.

Questions during each writing unit to be selected from the following, as determined by the progress in the unit and in response to strategies the student has been observed using.

	Self-regulatory strategies to investigate with the student, in relation to their impact on student learning:	Indicative questions
Forethought Phase	<p>Goal setting (including use of Learning intentions) and strategic planning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is your writing going? Tell me about/show me what you have been working on. • Tell me about what you are learning in this writing unit. What is easy/hard/tricky to do? • What will you do about the hard stuff? How will you manage these tricky bits? • What are you focussing on as a writer? What is important for you to learn at the moment? • What were you learning today? What was your learning goal/focus today? • Today's lesson was about.... Did you try this in your writing? Why/Why not? Did it help? How? • When you are stuck for ideas, what do you do? What do you use? Where do you get your ideas from? • How do you like to organise yourself when you are going to write? • Before you start writing a new piece of work, what do you do to be prepared/organised? • In my class, before the children start their writing, they need to brainstorm and plan their ideas. What are some of the things you do before you start writing? How does that help you?

Performance Phase	<p>Seeking support from peers or the teacher</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You worked with your teacher and a group of students. What were you talking about during this time? How will you use this in your writing? • Who helps you with your writing? How do they do this? • Do you have different people who help you with the writing in this unit? • What were you thinking when you wrote...? • You said this part was hard to write. I've noticed other children go straight to the teacher for help. Do you do this? Why/Why not? • When you came to this tricky part, what did you do to get through this hurdle? • I noticed you crossing out this part. Tell me why you did that. • You have made a lot of changes to your writing. Why did you do this? What were you thinking when you did this? Who did you seek help from? • I noticed you go to [student name] for help. Is that what you normally do? What made you choose to do that? How did they help? Was this useful? • Do you help others with their writing? How do you help them? Why? • When you are stuck for ideas, what do you do? What do you use? • Writing looked to be hard work for you today – hard to get started. What do you do when you feel like this? • You went to the modelling book/exemplars on display today. Why did you do this? How did looking at the exemplars help you? What difference did it make?
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	<p>Use of feedback</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You had a conference with your teacher today. What did you talk about? How did you feel when you talked about [XXXX] with the teacher? What did you do with what the teacher talked about? • How do you know you are doing well in your writing? • What do you do with feedback you get about your writing? • How does this help you? • What were you thinking when you wrote...? • You said this part was hard to write. I've noticed other children go straight to the teacher for help. Do you do this? Why/Why not? • When you came to this tricky part, what did you do to get through this hurdle? • I noticed you crossing out this part. Tell me why you did that. • You have made a lot of changes to your writing. Why did you do this? What were you thinking when you did this? Who did you seek help from? • What were you thinking about when you made this change? • I noticed you go to [student name] for help. Is that what you normally do? What made you choose to do that? How did they help? Was this useful? • Do you help others with their writing? How do you help them? Why? • What went well with your writing today? Tell me why it went so well. • You have some comments in your writing. Who are they from? Why do you have them? How do you use them? What types of comments are most useful to you?
	<p>Use of learning resources (e.g. planning sheets, exemplars)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In today's lesson, I noticed the teacher use..... Can you tell me how this helps you learn to write? • I observed you use What difference has this made to your writing? • You went to the modelling book/exemplars on display today. Why did you do this? How does this help you? What difference did it make? • Where do you get your ideas from? • How do you like to organise yourself when you are going to write? • Before you start writing a new piece of work, what do you do to be prepared/organised?

	<p>Organisation of their environment for optimal learning, including time management</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where is your favourite place to write in the classroom? Can you tell me why? (Probe for specifics e.g. quiet/noise, alone/with peers, access to resources/space/ particular furniture/window). • How do you organise your space for writing? Are you allowed to move furniture? Can you choose who you write with? • Do you like writing by yourself or do you prefer to have others around you? • What distracts you when you are writing? • How do you make sure you get all your writing done? • You sat somewhere different today for writing. Why did you choose to do that? What difference did it make to your learning/writing? • How do you like to organise yourself when you are going to write? • Before you start writing a new piece of work, what do you do to be prepared/organised?
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	<p>Self-monitoring</p> <p>Peer review and feedback</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you check your writing? Who/What helps you do this? • What use do you make of the success criteria? Are there different points in time you refer to the success criteria? Why is that? • How do you make sure your writing shows you have met your goals? • How often do you check your writing? Do others help you do that? Who? • You said this part was hard to write. I've noticed other children go straight to the teacher for help. Do you do this? Why/Why not? • When you came to this tricky part, what did you do to get through this hurdle? • I noticed you crossing out this part. Tell me why you did that. • You have made a lot of changes to your writing. Why did you do this? What were you thinking when you did this? Who did you seek help from? • What were you thinking about when you made this change? • I noticed you go to [student name] for help. Is that what you normally do? What made you choose to do that? How did they help? Was this useful? • Do you help others with their writing? How do you help them? Why? • What went well with your writing today? Tell me why it went so well. • What new strategies/skills did you try when you were writing today? Why did you try them out? What did you notice about your writing? • You have some comments in your writing. Who are they from? Why do you have them? How do you use them? • When you are stuck for ideas, what do you do? What do you use? • Writing looked to be hard work for you today – hard to get started. What do you do when you feel like this?
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Self-Reflection Phase	Reflection and evaluation of their learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you think about the learning you do in writing? • Tell me how you know if you have made progress in your writing. • What strategies did you learn in the first unit that you use now? Do you use them all the time? Tell me how they have made a difference to your writing • How do you practise the skills or strategies you are taught? • Do you have any tricks you use to remember your learning? • Have you met your learning goals? How do you know? • What are your next learning steps? What were you thinking when you wrote...? • When writing is tricky, what are some of the things you do to get unstuck? • What went well with your writing today? Tell me why it went so well. • What new strategies/skills did you try when you were writing today? Why did you try them out? What did you notice about your writing? • You sat somewhere different today for writing. Why did you choose to do that? What difference did it make to your learning/writing? • Today's lesson was about.... Did you try this in your writing? Why/Why not? Did it help? How? • When you are stuck for ideas, what do you do? What do you use? • Writing looked to be hard work for you today – hard to get started. What do you do when you feel like this?
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Prompts:

Tell me more about...

Give me an example of...

I'm not sure about...

Can you show me how...?

I haven't quite understood what you said. Can you tell me another way?

I notice you.... Can you tell me more about this?

Student Interview Two and Three

This interview occurs during each writing unit.

Begin with introductions, interview purpose and protocols. Ensure each student is aware they can ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time.

Learning in this Writing Unit. Questions to be selected from the table above, as determined by the progress in the unit and in response to strategies that students have been observed to use.

Follow up on areas from previous interviews where further information is required or identified either as areas of strength or development by the student.

Semi-Structured Interview: Indicative Questions for Student Interview Four (15-20 minutes)

This interview occurs at the end of each writing unit.

- Tell me how you feel about the writing you did in this unit.
- Thinking about your learning in writing, what is different about your writing now to how it was at the start? What aspects of your writing have got better? Stayed the same? Why do you think that is?
- Tell me about you as a writer now. Do you do anything differently now compared to what you did previously? Why is that?
- What learning strategies do you use most often? What new strategies have you started using? What difference has this made to your writing and learning?
- Pick up on points from the previous two interviews with individuals [these will have been analysed prior to the final interview].

Refer to self-regulatory strategies observed in class or discussed in previous interviews:

- Goal setting
 - Seeking support from adults and peers
 - Peer review and feedback
 - Self-monitoring and assessment
 - Use of feedback
 - Use of learning resources and techniques
 - Organisation of the learning environment
 - Reflection and evaluation
- What/Who has helped you to become a better writer? What/Who has stopped you from becoming a better writer?

Prompts:

Tell me more about...

Give me an example of...

I'm not sure about...

Can you show me how...?

I haven't quite understood what you said. Can you tell me another way?

I notice you.... Can you tell me more about this?

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Semi-Structured Interview: Additional Indicative Questions for Student Interview Four

- Mokoroa's Den/TV advert
 - What goals do you have for this learning?
 - Tell me about your choice of learning partners?
 - Tell me about your advert/presentation
 - What have you contributed?
 - How have you organised yourselves to complete this task?
 - What has worked well? What has been challenging?
 - What have you needed to learn?
 - How have you used your knowledge of persuasive writing? What strategies did you learn in the first unit that you use now? Do you use them all the time? Tell me how they have made a difference to your writing
- Independent learning weeks
 - How do you manage and organise your time?
 - How do you prioritise tasks?
- Collaboration
 - Benefits? Frustrations?
 - How does it help you learn?
- Published Persuasive writing
 - Self-evaluation
 - Feedback from your peers
 - You have made a lot of changes to your writing. Why did you do this? What were you thinking when you did this? Who did you seek help from?
 - What changes have you made to it?
 - You had a conference with your teacher. What did you talk about? How did you feel when you talked about [XXXX] with the teacher? What did you do with what the teacher talked about? What feedback did you get from your teacher?
 - You have some comments in your writing. Who are they from? Why do you have them? How do you use them? What types of comments are most useful to you?
 - How was the feedback helpful? Did it give you the information you needed? What else did you want to know?
 - What changes have you made?
 - Have you met your goals? Show me. What are your next learning steps?
 - Have you made progress from your first persuasive writing to this? Tell me about the differences
 - When did you consider this piece of writing finished? The teacher wants you to do more with it. How does making the changes to it make you feel? Impact on your writing? Is recrafting part of the writing process?
- Feedback
 - When is feedback helpful? Frustrating?
- Choice tasks
 - What other writing tasks have you done? Choice/TFUs
 - How do you practise the skills or strategies you are taught?
 - Do you have any tricks you use to remember your learning?
- Use of learning resources
 - In today's lesson, I noticed the teacher use..... Can you tell me how this helps you learn to write?
 - I observed you use What difference has this made to your writing?
 - How do you use the writing wall/exemplars on display? Why did you do this? How does this help you? What difference did it make?

Find out about their attitude to and beliefs about writing.

- Tell me about you as a writer or author.
- What do you enjoy about writing? What do you dislike about writing?

- Use prompts to probe into responses given to obtain further detail e.g. is it the writing process they enjoy or dislike? Why do you like working with _____? Tell me more about...
- What makes learning to write tricky?
- How is writing different for you now?

Appendix Q: Sample data analysis showing coding - Teacher

Sample analysis: Teacher interview

		Coding
Researcher	If they're being an active learner, what would you see?	
Eloise	So we would see them, so booking into workshops, we would see them writing outside of writing time. So they are often writing for us and asking for feedback, and feed forward, in their own time. We would see them choosing to write in their spare time. We would see them sharing writing at home and that dialogue between home and school.	Workshops Feedback Agency
Kristie	And with each other.	
Eloise	Then with each other we'd see them talking to each other about their writing, talking with us about their writing. Just engaged, engaged in writing all the time, no matter what they're doing, and them seeing links between. We had this great conversation with our kids about we would, our writing was all really well linked. And they'd say, oh we've been learning about this and we can use what we learnt there in this, and then so using those skills across all of the subject areas, not just in writing. So this is the only time we do this in this little bit of time, so transferring those skills into different things. We'd see them probably celebrate their writing, willingness to share.	Active learners: Peer interaction Engagement Skill transfer
Kristie	They do lots of that, don't they, Google doc sharing with each other and they comment and give each other tips and advice outside of school. Get lots of conversations going on about that which is cool.	Active learners: Peer interaction Feedback
Eloise	So that's what, kind of, what actively involved means, I think to me.	

Researcher	As part of that sharing process and the celebrating and sharing with each other, do they also help each other with their writing?	
Eloise	Yeah, they give feedback and feed forward. So feedback and feed forward is a really important part of the writing process here. Not just Kimberly and I doing that, but the children doing that for each other and then acting on that feedback and feed forward. So we've had to do quite a lot of work on what feedback is and what feed forward is and then linking that feed forward to the success criteria. So when they first came in to us they were doing things like giving feed forward on, on handwriting –	Feedback: <i>Teacher</i> <i>Peer</i> <i>Process</i> <i>Quality</i>
Kristie	Yeah, I can't read your, I can't read your writing, or where are your full stops?	
Eloise	Yeah, so we –	
Kristie	But now it's linked to the success criteria.	Feedback: <i>Success criteria</i>
Eloise	Success criteria and they're better at doing that and they'll give specific examples, like you need to add more figurative language and I've highlighted a passage where you could add that in. And some examples, an example I would use would be, blah, blah, blah, so they're starting to write more, or give feedback in a more critical way, not in a, when I use the word critical I don't mean negative.	Feedback: <i>Success criteria</i> <i>Examples</i>
Kristie	And then they have those conversations, don't they, if they don't agree with their buddy's feedback they sit there and they'll have discussions and justify why they think their piece does or doesn't need that, it's quite interesting to listen to.	Feedback: <i>Dialogue</i>

Sample analysis: Teacher resource – Feedback guide

FEEDBACK

Feedback is a chance for you to tell someone how well they are doing.

It is a really important way of helping each other learn.

Things you could do while giving FEEDBACK are....

- Talk about things you liked for example:
- their interesting sentence starters
- the use of great vocabulary
- the fact their punctuation is all correct
- the way they have met certain success criteria

specific

Technical language e.g. conjunctions, contrivances

I love how you added lots of describing words and made story exciting - Grace

I really like your because its

EB by Maya to Ann I love the way you have written

I like your reasons and how they are crafted.

in the plane do huge something else

unpainted birds

Coding

Feedback

To tell

To help

What liked

Rubric/criterion

Surface features

Rubric/ success criteria

Specific

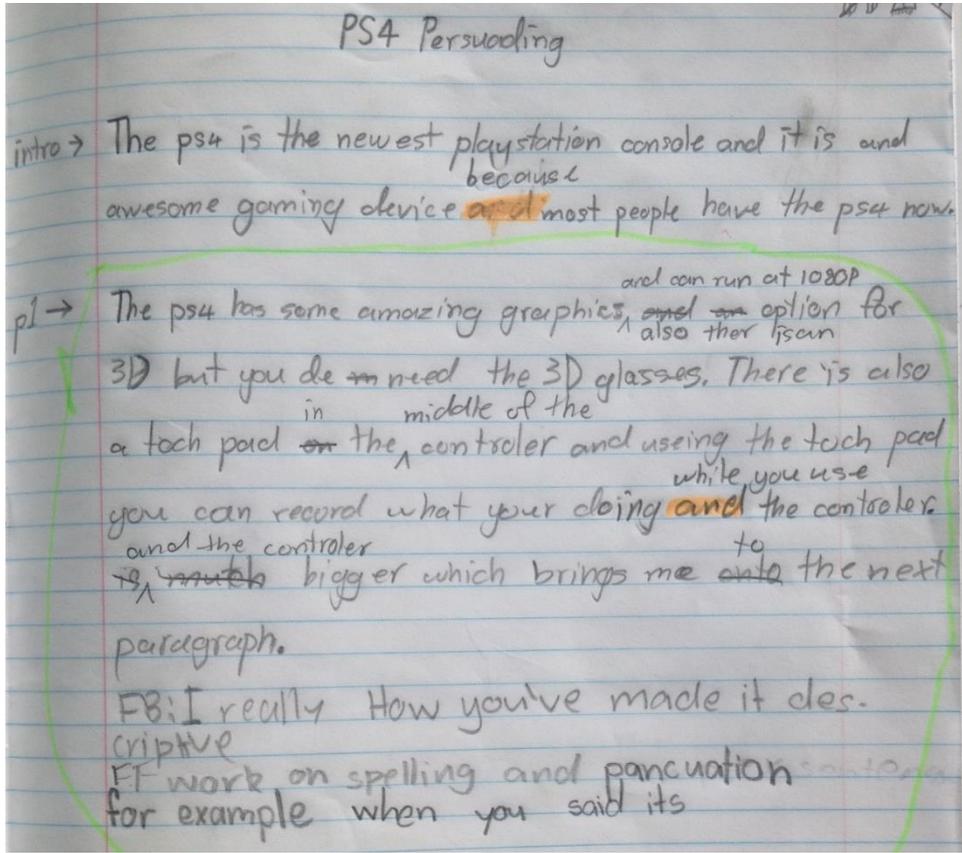
Appendix R: Sample data analysis showing coding - Student

Sample analysis: Student interview

		Coding
Researcher	And how does that work? How does the feedback, feedforward system work?	
Sophie	We have thinking buddies which give us feedback and feedforward on our writing. So when we've finished it we'll go to our thinking buddies and they'll say what they like and what it would be good to change. And we act on the feedforward, we might add a bit more of the feedback things in.	Feedback: <i>Thinking buddies</i> <i>What liked</i> <i>Changes</i> <i>Act</i>
Researcher	Do you find it helpful?	
Sophie	Yeah, it's really useful to know what I should work on.	Feedback useful
Researcher	We've talked about the success criteria, so as well as your buddy checking your work, do you check?	
Sophie	Yeah, we check each other's and we also check ourselves.	Peer check Self monitor
Researcher	And you see success criteria in your rubric, does it help you do that?	
Sophie	We edit and recraft it.	Edit Recraft
Researcher	How do you guys make up the success criteria?	
Sophie	Well either the teachers make it, or usually we will come together in a group and discuss what makes a good piece of persuasive writing or an information report. And if there's anything that we haven't added the teacher will go and also you might do this.	Success criteria <i>Co-construct</i>
Researcher	How often do you check your writing using that success criteria?	
Sophie	It's good to check it at the end of each paragraph, so that you can make changes to that paragraph. And then at the very end when you've finished your whole writing you will check your whole writing for anything you might want to change or edit.	Self-monitor <i>Paragraph</i> <i>Edit</i> <i>Whole text</i>

Researcher	These last questions are about how you like to write, okay? So can you tell me about your favourite place to write? In these learning spaces, where's your favourite place to write?	
Sophie	I like writing on either the high tables or the [18:00] which is the whiteboard table.	Learning environment
Researcher	Why do you like those places?	
Sophie	The high table you usually, you're usually with people so it's sort of like, and you can see, and so they can go you should add this to your writing. But also it's just sort of a good place to work. It's quite nice.	Learning environment
Researcher	So you like having other people around you when you write?	
Sophie	Yeah.	
Researcher	Why do you like that?	
Sophie	Because they can help you if you get stuck, and they can say like why don't you do this, that would be quite good for that. And I like the whiteboard tables because you can get your whiteboard pen and go would this make a good sentence, and read it to yourself and see.	Collaborate Rehearse ideas

Sample analysis: Student writing artefact

	Coding
 <p style="text-align: center;">PS4 Persuading</p> <p>intro → The ps4 is the newest playstation console and it is ^{and} awesome gaming device ^{because} and most people have the ps4 now.</p> <p>p1 → The ps4 has some amazing graphics ^{and can run at 1080P} and ^{also there is an} option for 3D but you do need the 3D glasses. There is also a touch pad ^{in middle of the} on the ^{controller} and using the touch pad you can record what your doing ^{while you use} and the controller. ^{and the controller} is ^{to} is bigger which brings me ^{to} into the next paragraph.</p> <p>FB: I really like how you've made it descriptive FT work on spelling and punctuation for example when you said its</p>	<p>Editing: Conjunctions</p> <p>Editing/recrafting</p> <p>Editing/recrafting</p> <p>Peer feedback</p> <p>Success criteria Surface features Example</p>

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