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Teacher Behavior and Attitude and Student Writing Apprehension

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TEACHER BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDE

AND STUDENT WRITING APPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

Title: Teacher Behavior and Attitude and Student Writing Apprehension

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The purpose of the study was to examine three questions related to student writing apprehension and teacher behavior and attitude in a rural Pennsylvania high school. The questions were as follows. First, is the Willower Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) a reproducible instrument that predicts teacher behaviors in the classroom on a continuum from custodial to humanistic? Second, is there a relationship between teacher behaviors as measured by the PCI and student writing apprehension as measured by changes in the Daly/Miller Writing Apprehension Survey (WAS)? Finally, did students report other factors which had an effect on their willingness to write? The results of the study support the idea that Willower's PCI was a generally useful psychometric which predicts the likelihood of humanistic or custodial and direct or indirect behaviors by teachers. Student writing apprehension increased over the sampled population (n=405), with no differential effects found among the 25 classes studied, a result that is consistent with overall custodial behavior and direct teacher-student interactions . Systematic writing instruction, teacher modeling of writing, and affective support in the classroom were not common or significant elements in the curriculum of the high school in this study, according to observed and student-reported data.

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

One purpose of high school is to prepare students for success in college, but for large numbers of college freshmen, their high school careers do not provide the background needed to succeed. The cost of remediation for incoming college students has been estimated to be 2.5 billion dollars yearly. Nationwide, as many as 43% of freshmen in two-year colleges and 30% of students enrolled in four-year public institutions take at least one remedial course (Schacter, 2008). The need for specific remediation in writing follows national trends. Data from the Pennsylvania Department of Education indicates that approximately 25% of students enrolled in state-owned universities or two-year colleges need remediation in English, usually based upon evaluation of student writing samples. The estimated cost of remediation in English exceeds ten million dollars a year in Pennsylvania (New Higher Education Data, 2009).

The problem is not unique to one state. Approximately 46% of freshman in the California State University System needed remediation in English and writing in 2006 and 2007. This is despite the fact that the average grade point average of these students in high school was a B (Knudson, Zitzer-Comfort, Quirk & Alexander, 2008). Concern about the cost of college remediation in Massachusetts prompted the Board of Higher Education there to propose that high schools be billed for the cost of remediation for their respective students, a measure that is similar to one that was proposed in Georgia (Sandham, 1998). In Minnesota, one-third of the students at state colleges are taking remedial courses, and these students represent all races, ethnicities and socioeconomic backgrounds (Schacter, 2008).

The number of students being remediated has not changed significantly since the year 2000, when 28% of entering freshmen nationwide enrolled in one or more remedial courses in reading, writing or mathematics. Students did, however, show increased time spent in remediation between 1995 and 2000, with the percentage of students spending at least one year in remediation increasing from 28% to 35%. In 2000, 11% of over two million incoming freshmen took remedial courses in writing on the average. Public two-year colleges showed 23% of their students enrolled in remedial writing courses, with private two-year schools enrolling 17% and four-year public and private institutions enrolling 9% and 7%, respectively (Remedial Education, 2000).

There is a significant disconnect, then, between the writing skills learned in high schools and the ones required in college. Sanoff (2007) reported that while 44% of college faculty thought incoming freshmen were not well prepared to face the rigors of undergraduate writing, only 10% of high school teachers thought so. In a study at George Washington University, incoming freshmen reported that they had been required to complete only literary analysis, lab reports, and analytic essays as often as once a month. They wrote few research papers, were seldom asked to critically examine written arguments, received limited feedback on assignments, seldom were asked to turn in drafts of assignments, and almost never used scholarly journals in their writing (Beil & Knight, 2007). Many high school graduates who go on to college, therefore, are adversely affected by a lack of preparation for college-level writing, and these are presumably the most academically competent students. A significant number of high school graduates never attend post-secondary institutions, often because they are reluctant or feel unable to write (Rose, 1995). Finally, students who do attend two- and four-year colleges often

limit career choices and avoid majors which they believe are writing-intensive because of their own perceptions and feelings about writing tasks (Rose, 1995; Walsh, 1986; Pajares, 2003).

Sizable portions of high school students forego college, require time-consuming and expensive remediation in college, or limit career choices and life decisions based upon their experiences with writing in high school. The nature of high school writing instruction and the impact of that instruction on a student's likelihood of success with writing is therefore a critical concern in educational leadership (Landers, 2002). Writing is a complex mental process that is influenced by a large number of variables, one of which is a student's attitude towards writing (Rose, 1989a). Writing apprehension, the tendency for students to resist the acts of writing or submitting writing for evaluation, is one factor that is associated with students who struggle with writing, and is therefore one measure of how the high school writing experience impacts students (Daly & Miller, 1975). A high degree of writing apprehension has been correlated with lower SAT scores, reduced expectations of success among students (called self-efficacy), and a reduction in their willingness to take advanced courses in high school (Daly & Miller, 1975; Pajares, 2003). Apprehension has also been linked to lower GPA in high school, lower ACT scores, and lower self-esteem, not just concerning writing, but in general (Walsh, 1986; Pajares, 2003). Students who were apprehensive about writing consistently scored lower on both standardized writing tests and on holistically scored writing prompts (Minot & Gandle, 1991).

The degree of student writing apprehension has been linked to both the type of instruction chosen by teachers and teacher behavior concerning writing (Pajares, Usher &

Johnson, 2007; Bandura, 1997). Teacher behavior is related to belief systems held by the teacher, and teachers often avoid changes in both beliefs and behaviors. This is so even when a teacher's behavior concerning methods of instruction is not supported by empirical data concerning the results of instruction. So, for example, a teacher might persist in maintaining rows of seats in his or her classroom because the teacher believes that is the best way to ensure student success, even when students clearly prefer learning in more flexible seating arrangements (Smagorinsky & Smith, 1992). A teacher's ideology, then, has an impact on his or her behaviors, which, as stated earlier, do influence a student's writing apprehension. A reproducible psychometric that accurately measured teacher beliefs and behavior would be a valuable tool in understanding how those variables influence writing apprehension.

Willower et al., (1967) developed a survey called the Teacher Pupil Control Ideology index (PCI), which has been correlated with both teacher beliefs and teacher behaviors. The PCI is a Likert-like, twenty-item questionnaire that measures the degree to which a teacher is either custodial or humanistic in approaching student-teacher interaction. Briefly, custodial teachers tend to be authoritarian while humanistic teachers tend to employ student-centered teaching methodologies. This raises the possibility of quantitatively examining the relationship between a teacher's pupil control ideology and the writing apprehension of that particular teacher's students. Willower et al., (1967, 1973) also found a limited number of correlations between teachers' PCI and the nature of instructional methodologies they chose, leading to a second area of focus for this study, which is the impact of teacher behaviors on the writing apprehension of their students.

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Although numerous studies in the last decade have explored apprehension and writing, none have sought to determine if there is a relationship between PCI and writing apprehension. Only limited studies have been done on apprehension among high school students, and little has been done to systematically examine the effect of teacher ideology and behavior on writing apprehension among high school students (Pajares, 2007). Finally, there are no recent studies that examine whether PCI is an accurate predictor of actual teacher behaviors as determined by classroom observations, examinations of student artifacts and student interviews.

Apprehension about writing causes some students to opt out of college or to limit life choices. Statistics on remediation indicate that many students are ill prepared to succeed in college because of substandard writing skills associated with writing apprehension (Walsh, 1986; Pajares & Cheong, 2004). There is no lack of research on or strategies for improving student writing skills, and yet the trends in writing shortfalls have not changed significantly over the past two decades. This study therefore focuses on evaluating how teacher behaviors and attitudes affect the writing apprehension of students.

<div align="center">**Background**</div>

My interest in effective writing instruction in public secondary schools sprang from experiences I had when I ceased teaching high school science to begin teaching English at the secondary level. Fifteen years of structuring content instruction in biology, earth science and anatomy left me almost completely unprepared to deal with the attitudes I discovered among high school students with regard to reading and writing. Following locally accepted practices of giving my English students highly specific

rubrics for writing assignments, firm due dates and clear and concrete guidelines concerning the final form of assignments, I was faced with results that a scientist would consider dismal: roughly a third of my students simply refused to read the text assigned or failed to meet deadlines for the submission of required formal writing assignments, or both.

While many of the teachers with whom I was working at the time held the view that students refuse to comply because they wish to disrupt the orderly progression of class or to antagonize the teacher, many of my resistant students were pleasant and personable. They were compliant in the social aspects of the class, and seemed to enjoy other aspects of class interaction and instruction as well, which challenged the belief that non-compliance was a sign of antagonism. For many of my students, there seemed to be a specific reluctance to write or submit writing. The logical next step was to discover why they avoided writing so that I might lessen their reluctance to write. This was a question I could not answer before examining my own beliefs about writing and how writing related to the other activities in the English classroom, specifically reading, speaking and listening, three other forms of communication utilized in my instructional methods.

Relationships Among Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening

I approach reading and listening as similar activities in slightly different formats because both involve decoding someone else's meaning through the use of words, whether spoken or written. In a similar way, I imagined that writing was simply a more permanent form of speaking, again because of the commonality between them, that is, the

use of words to convey meaning between individuals. Finally, I imagined that reading and writing were reciprocal activities that were inextricably connected.

I also believed that readers write and writers read. While my mental models might have been correct in relation to myself, they were not accurate or useful in understanding my students' reluctance to write. For my students, listening, reading, writing and speaking were not necessarily equivalent or even related activities. Many of my reluctant student writers spoke freely, listened well, and read widely. Their aversion was specifically towards writing, since they were obedient in other regards. Their refusal to write was not because they wished to be disruptive. In comments and conversations, these students indicated that they chose not to participate in an activity, in this case, writing, which already seemed to preclude them as successful practitioners. They were specifically "writer-haters," to use the term one student coined.

In speaking with students about why they did not care to write, some themes emerged. Some students said they did not like writing prompts and always did poorly on them, as the prompts often had little to do with their own interests or background. Some resistant writers even reported that they often wrote, but that the kinds of writing done in high school either did not interest them, or they were uncomfortable submitting their more personal writing to teachers. Students also said that they became disheartened when corrected papers were returned "covered with red." Many students specifically made reference to the limited forms of writing they were asked to do as well as to the nature of the assessment methods used by the teacher.

I began to realize that my mental model of these students as merely "non-compliant" neglected the impact my own behaviors and attitudes had on their reluctance

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to write. I also realized that I had a host of preconceptions that included many of the negative stereotypes of students documented by Helmers (1994). In *Writing Students: Composition Testimonials and Representations of Students,* Helmers presents case studies that reveal a cultural aversion towards non-compliant students as dissident and subversive entities. In casual conversations among themselves, Helmers noted that teachers often made derisive or mocking remarks about individual students or students in general. She discovered that teachers often viewed non-compliant student behavior, such as being off-task or not turning in assignments, as proof of a desire to upset the established order of the classroom or as an indication of defective cognitive abilities (Helmers, 1994). This attitude reduces compliance to a sort of power struggle between teacher and student, which increases student resistance to the behavior desired by the teacher (Erickson, 1984).

Student Resistance

Lunenburg, Sartori & Bauski (1999) define student resistance as the systematic refusal by students to engage in activities which are not in agreement with the students' cultural or ethnic backgrounds, or which do not conform to core student beliefs or serve any apparent purpose in their view. This definition fit the attitudes and attributes of my resistant writers. The first problem for me was how to change what I did in the classroom to minimize this student resistance to writing. Moreover, Pajares (2003) suggests that resistance to activities, once established, is difficult to reverse. This made the early and accurate diagnosis of student resistance critical if I hoped to avoid patterns of non-compliance.

The goal that led me to reflect upon my own teaching activities was to have all students write often and without resistance. This led to an interest in how teacher behaviors and beliefs may impact student writing apprehension. The remainder of this section of Chapter 1 will first put forth definitions of terms and the limitations and delimitations of the study. The theoretical framework that explains the relationship between resistance and writing apprehension and the effect of teacher behavior on writing apprehension will be briefly presented. Included in this discussion is an overview of Daly and Miller's Writing Apprehension Survey (WAS) and Willower's Teacher Pupil Control Ideology index (PCI), which is one measure of a teacher's attitude towards power and control. Finally, the purpose and questions this study is designed to answer will be presented.

Definitions

Axial Coding: interpreting and grouping qualitative data into common themes or topics to determine patterns in written or oral responses to open-ended questions.

Custodial teachers: teachers who tend to tightly control student activity and input, and who utilize negative reinforcements in response to behavior that is deemed inappropriate or unwanted (Willower, et al., 1967; Lunenburg, et al., 1999).

Curriculum: An organized framework that delineates subject area skills and content as well as the processes designed to achieve mastery in those domains (Dewey, 1933).

Humanistic Teachers: teachers who employ constructivist methodologies in the classroom, cede significant power for making decisions and meaning to the student, and who appeal to intrinsic motivations in the student to gain compliance (Willower, et al., 1967).

Reflective practice: active, persistent, overt and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it leads (Dewey, 1933).

Resistant students: students who refuse to comply with activities or assignments owing to a perception that those activities or assignments are either meaningless or contradict deeply held ethnic, cultural or sociopolitical beliefs (Lunenburg et al., 1999).

Self-efficacy: the self-perception of one's ability to successfully complete a task, learn a skill or master a concept (Bandura, 1997).

Shadow curriculum: the sum of all the beliefs, activities, decisions and relationships that do not obviously advance the learning of the student or the teacher, which promulgate existing power structures, both implicit and overt, and whose existence serves to eliminate the need or desire for reflective dialogue and activities in the classroom.

Social-cognitive theory: the belief that all knowledge is constructed in a social context in a complex and recursive manner unique to each individual learner, and that the usefulness of constructed knowledge is determined by its effectiveness in that social context (Bandura, 1986).

Social Contract: a willing agreement between parties in which individual behaviors and rights are freely and voluntarily limited in such a way that the loss of individual freedom is outweighed by the creation of a common good.

Teacher modeling: the display of observable behavior by a teacher consistent with the behavior desired among the students in the class.

Teacher pupil control ideology: the extent to which teachers are either humanistic or custodial as measured by Willower's (1967) Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form.

<u>Writing apprehension</u>: the fear of or aversion to writing or to having one's writing read or evaluated as determined by the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Survey, hereafter the WAS (Daly & Miller, 1975).

Limitations

Absences will create different conditions under which those students who are absent will complete the Daly-Miller Instrument. The aim of the study is to utilize a sample of convenience limited to teachers of junior and senior English for two reasons. First, this will limit the number of classes being observed to a manageable number. Secondly, the age of this population of students is closest to that of college freshmen, the population most often cited in research on apprehension. Depending on the distribution of students in the first and second semesters, certain sub-populations such as special education, minority or disabled students might not be proportionately represented.

Delimitations

The relatively small sample (n<400) of this study and the small number of classrooms (eight or less) will tend to limit the generalizability of the study. Since this is a sample of convenience, no attempt has been made to examine any of the variables in schools with markedly different demographics, which also limits generalizability. The focus of the study is not to measure teacher perceptions of any of the variables in the study, except through the use of the PCI, field notes from the initial in-service and brief exit interviews with teachers. The anticipated concentration of subjects in the last two years of high school (grades 11 and 12) means that no attempt has been made to determine the effects of teacher modeling on any of the variables here listed for any other grades or ages, nor has any attempt been made to measure reading or speaking abilities,

either qualitatively or quantitatively, although both are closely aligned with writing. Finally, the study is not longitudinal and therefore the extent of the changes in writing quality examined can be expected to be limited in nature.

<div align="center">**Theoretical Basis for the Study**</div>

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory suggests that all meaning is constructed in a social environment rather than being handed down as an absolute from authority figures. (Bandura, 1986). According to this theory, it is the apparent positive or negative results of those behaviors that tend to encourage or discourage their use. This is true even when the behaviors and results occur to someone else, rather than to the student who observes these behaviors and results (Bandura, 1986).

Writing Apprehension, Resistance and Self-efficacy

Apprehension towards writing is an antecedent psychological condition that is associated with resistance, a failure or refusal to write (Daly & Miller, 1975; Pajares, 2003). Apprehension is often increased when the behavior desired by the teacher, in this case, writing, is at odds with a student's personal or societal background and history. Social cognitive theory illuminates how the skills and behaviors offered by a teacher in the classroom might be viewed by students as useful in achieving success in that social setting, even when they are divergent from the student's own more familiar history and behaviors (Bandura, 1997). According to social cognitive theory, new skills and behaviors offered in the classroom can be incorporated into the complex social matrix of which the student is already a part, especially when some control is ceded to the student by the teacher (Bandura, 1997; Lunenburg et al., 1999). Students who view writing as

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useful and productive in a particular social setting exhibit lower degrees of both writing apprehension and resistance (Pajares et al., 2007).

Bandura (1986) calls the beliefs of students concerning their own likelihood of success in gaining competency or acquiring a skill "self-efficacy." This construct has attracted considerable attention in the literature of theories concerning learning and motivation, and has been shown to be a broad indicator of academic success in writing (Pajares et al., 2007). Writing apprehension is negatively correlated with self-efficacy, again making apprehension a powerful indicator of future writing success and one which links both self-efficacy and resistance theories (Pajares, 2003; Parajes, 2007).

According to social cognitive theory, there are several factors related to teacher behaviors and ideologies that could theoretically reduce student writing apprehension. First, when teachers model or exhibit the same behaviors and produce the same outcomes as their students, students are more apt to be willing to engage in those activities, since modeling appropriate and desired behaviors is a powerful motivator in learning environments (Bandura, 1986). Secondly, students who are given some control of their writing in a student-centered classroom are less apprehensive and therefore tend to produce more text (Rose 1995; Donlon, 1990; Pajares, 2003). Finally, students who experience some degree of success in a supportive environment are more likely to persevere than those who do not (Bandura, 1986).

Teacher Modeling and Writing Apprehension

Since secondary students are in the process of becoming functional adults, it makes sense that they are keen observers of the behavior of the adults responsible for their care and education. In discussing the idea of modeling, Bandura (1997) suggests

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that students will note behaviors that have a real application and will tend to emulate those behaviors. This reasoning should extend to writing and the kinds of writing they see being done by the teacher in class. Social cognitive theory predicts that students will be less apprehensive and more willing to engage in those types of writing which are apparently valued by the teacher (Pajares et al., 2007). This is especially true if the writing activities have an obvious connection to the student's concerns and a practical use in the classroom (Pajares & Johnson, 1995).

When teachers write along with their students and make their own writing and writing processes accessible to students, students will be more likely to adopt those behaviors (Emig, 1971; Pajares, 2003). In particular, they will more readily adopt behaviors they see in adults they deem competent, especially when those behaviors lead to favorable results for other students (Bandura, 1997). Failure of the teacher to exhibit those behaviors increases the likelihood of apprehension and resistance to those activities (Erickson, 1984; Pajares, 2003). This study will examine the relationship between teacher behaviors and attitudes and their students' writing apprehension.

Teacher Power and Writing Apprehension

Teachers often choose instructional methodologies based more on maintenance of order and existing power relationships in the classroom than on current understandings of which instructional activities are actually effective (Rose, 1995; Coe, Keyes, Meechan & Orletsky, 1999). A teacher's approach to instruction, in turn, has been shown to be related to control ideology, a measurable psychometric which reflects a teacher's ideas about how power should be applied in the classroom (Willower et al., 1967).

Willower (1967) divides teachers' control ideology into two extremes. "Custodial" teachers tend to retain rather than share power in the classroom, tend to mistrust students' intent and behavior, and also tend to create rigid distinctions between teachers and students. "Humanistic" teachers, on the other hand, cede significant power to the student, provide supportive environments for learning and utilize student-centered instructional methods. Standardized testing has encouraged strict teacher and school control pertaining to writing instruction, which is at the custodial end of Willower's spectrum (Emig, 1971; Tchudi, 1998). This approach can be problematic for resistant writers (Daly & Shamo, 1978; Pajares, 2003). Custodial approaches may also increase apprehension and resistance in some writers (Pajares, 2003). On the other hand, the lack of teacher-imposed structure may increase anxiety for some types of learners and make production of text more difficult for them (Emig, 1971; Pajares, 2003). This raises the question of how to determine the appropriate level of control in the writing classroom to maximize the likelihood of student production of text.

Teacher behavior, then, is a critical element in effective writing instruction, and teacher behavior is related to teacher ideology. The PCI offers a quantitative way of measuring teacher ideology and behavior, while student writing apprehension can be accurately measured using the WAS. This raises the possibility of quantitatively examining what affect, if any, teacher behaviors and attitudes have on student writing apprehension.

Purpose of the Study

Many high school students leave high school with writing skills that are not adequate for success in college, limit career choices due to writing apprehension, or avoid

college altogether because of their perceptions of their own writing skills. Despite decades of research in effective writing instruction, there has been little change in national trends concerning the writing skills of high school graduates. One way of examining how writing instruction impacts students is to measure the effects of teacher behaviors and attitudes concerning writing, and to see if there is any correlation between teacher behavior and ideology and student writing apprehension.

The purpose of the study is to provide a possible management tool for administrators that can improve the writing instruction their students receive. If the PCI is correlated with student writing apprehension, it can serve as a valuable psychometric in screening potential candidates for teaching positions. Results of the PCI can also serve as a diagnostic tool to guide reflective teacher practices, and in conjunction with the WAS, can help classroom teachers evaluate the effect of their instructional strategies on resistant writers. Finally, the PCI and WAS would lend themselves to use in in-service programs which focus on improving instructional strategies and developing improvement plans for individual teachers.

Questions to be Answered in Study

First, is Willower's PCI a reproducible measure associated with changes in levels of student writing apprehension as measured by the two applications of the WAS? Second, is there any correlation between a teacher's PCI and observable classroom behaviors such as instructional methods employed, modeling of writing and the nature of teacher-student interchange? Finally, are there any other observable classroom factors which might be correlated with reduced or increased student writing apprehension?

Chapter Summary

Student resistance to writing is the outward manifestation of writing apprehension, and both have been correlated to the failure of students to produce text (Daly & Miller, 1975; Pajares, 2003; Pajares et al., 2007). Writing apprehension as measured by the WAS is frequently high among students who exhibit resistance to writing and has been linked to reduced student self-efficacy concerning writing. Teachers' ideology concerning control in the classroom also has an impact on resistance and the production of text for some writers (Bandura, 1986; Pajares et al., 2007). Willower's PCI provides a way to measure a teacher's approach to control issues (Willower et al., 1967). Of particular interest is the difference in effect between custodial approaches to writing instruction, which utilize a high degree of teacher control, and humanistic approaches that rely on socially constructed meaning and student ownership of writing.

Chapter 2 will offer a more complete examination of the literature concerning teacher power, student writing resistance and writing apprehension, as well as studies that examine how student self-efficacy relates to apprehension and resistance. Both psychometrics, Willower's PCI and Daly and Miller's WAS, will be examined in greater detail as well in that chapter.

Briefly, PCI has been correlated to the degree of open- or closed-mindedness of teachers, the level of conflict between student and teacher perceived by students in the classroom, as well as to broader indices of positive class and school climate. The PCI has also shown limited correlation to specific sets of teacher behaviors, with significant, although limited, observable differences between custodial and humanistic teachers. The

WAS, which measures student writing apprehension, is a measurement that has been shown to be an accurate predictor of student resistance to writing and has been connected to self-efficacy beliefs, indices of self-esteem and a broad range of academic variables such as SAT scores and grade point averages (Walsh, 1986; Pajares, 2003).

There have been no studies which attempt to discover the relationship between PCI and student attitudes towards writing as measured by the WAS, or to qualitatively examine the relationship between PCI and WAS. Chapter 3 will also delineate three specific sub-questions related to the overarching question of how teacher behavior and attitude influence student writing apprehension, provide the methodology designed to answer the questions, and show a time line of phases in the study. Permission forms, contact letters and the survey and interview forms are contained in the appendix that follows Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 2

SYNTHESIS OF THE LITERATURE

Criteria for Selection of Literature

This literature review utilized standard electronic data bases and on-line catalogs and the search was confined to peer-reviewed books, journal articles and papers. Articles dealing directly with control ideology, teacher modeling, writing instruction, reflective teacher practices, student writing apprehension and student resistance were included in the survey. Because of the close relationship between writing, reading and literacy, articles that referenced reading and literacy were included when the study or paper in question shed light on unique aspects of writing instruction not found in other articles, or when the study or paper provided useful analogies to writing. Except for limited comparative purposes, articles that dealt with elementary studies were not included in the survey. Writing apprehension studies concerning college freshman composition courses were included in the survey.

There are several constructs closely related to the variables being studied here, each of which constitutes a unique and substantial area of study. These topics were included only as they relate to student writing apprehension and student resistance or teacher pupil control ideology and attendant classroom behaviors. First, the idea of self-efficacy, or the perception of one's ability to successfully complete a task or learn a new skill or behavior, is related to a student's willingness to write (Bandura, 1997; Pajares & Johnson, 1995; Pajares, 2003). Secondly, reflective teaching practices and reflective learning are both associated with a humanistic approach to teaching and learning, and as such are related to this inquiry (Rose, 1995; Landers, 2002). Student resistance, student

writing apprehension and pupil control ideology are all also related to the issues of trust and the use of power in the classroom, and so literature pertaining to trust and power was included (Nystrand & Groff, 1998; Foucault, 1978a). Finally, a complete treatment of composition theory and attendant instructional strategies is far beyond the scope of this study. In all the cases delineated here, literature was included only to the extent that it illuminated the central focus on student resistance, student writing apprehension, and teacher behaviors and attitudes.

Context of the Problem

Literacy is a critical skill in successfully navigating the demands of the new millennium, and literacy that fits the needs of the twenty-first-century student is one of the stated goals of the American educational community (Landers, 2002). While literacy encompasses more than basic reading and writing, it must begin with some mastery of the basic elements of both reading and writing. Approaches to reading in secondary school English curricula are literary in nature but often lack attendant writing activities which make the articulation between reading and writing clear to the student (Rose, 1995). The kinds of writing completed at the secondary level are far more conscribed than the universe of available types of writing, and the methods employed in structuring or completing those written pieces often increase writing apprehension (Daly & Wilson, 1983; Flowers, 1979; Pajares, 2003). The use of writing solely as a tool for evaluation or grading of students tends to increase writing apprehension and student resistance for reasons briefly outlined in Chapter 1 (Flowers, 1979; Landers, 2002; Rose, 1995).

The recent rush towards high-stakes testing has heightened concerns about the large percentage of students who are presently unsuccessful in writing as measured by

tests like the Pennsylvania State System of Assessment (PSSA) (Coe, et al., 1999). Many of these students are from ethnically, culturally or economically disadvantaged sub-populations.

Davis (1996), Fox (1990) and others contend that this difficulty in writing often reflects inattention to or marginalization of cultural, gender or socioeconomic factors. Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory agrees with this assessment, since both the understanding of content and the development of skills occur in a social context rather than being discrete skill sets divorced from the affective domain. The impact of student perceptions on writing, and the impact of teacher behaviors on student perceptions concerning writing, therefore, are both promising areas of research (Pajares & Cheong, 2004).

While social cognitive theory has found some resonance in secondary English instruction for reading, the same cannot be said about writing instruction. Currently, much of the instruction, evaluation and remediation of writing in English curricula at the secondary level tend to be teacher-centered and transmissional in nature (Buhrke, Henkels, Klene & Phister, 2002). Sometimes referred to as the "rodential" model, this type of instruction often relies on grading systems which are viewed by resistant and apprehensive writers as punishment rather than an indication of skill (Daly & Miller 1975; Pajares et al., 2007). Despite the negative impacts on a substantial number of students, such instruction is still firmly entrenched in both high school curriculum development and instructional methodology (Campbell, 2002; Harmon, 2000; Higgins, Miller & Wegman, 2006).

Teachers' choice of instructional methods is driven not only by environmental or organizational factors, but also by teacher-held stereotypes concerning the essential nature of the students in their charge (Helmers, 1994, Zallermeyer, 1994). Ironically, the use of teacher-directed and teacher-centered models, models in which the teacher both decides upon and directs all student writing activities and evaluations, is often increased in reaction to low scores on the same tests which initially indicated a need for better writing instruction. Standardized tests drive both instruction and remediation in the direction of drills in discrete skill sets and away from the practices suggested by theoretical understanding (Bandura, 1986, Zigo & Moore, 2002).

Personal beliefs of teachers rather than systematic decisions about the effectiveness of instruction are the primary determinant in the choice of both content and classroom practices for many teachers (Romanowski, 1997). This is problematic to the extent that those teachers do not actively reflect upon their instructional practices (Lumley & Yan, 2001). Teachers are also likely to resist changes that reduce their control of student writings (Zallermeyer, 1994). In fact, many teacher practices that purport to be student-centered are actually controlled and directed by the teacher (Nystrand & Groff, 1998).

The section that follows will first review the literature concerning the relationship between Bandura's social cognitive theory and writing, specifically how self-efficacy, teacher modeling and the affective domain impact student writing apprehension. Other themes which recur in the literature and which relate to writing apprehension, such as writing instruction, student empowerment, reflective learning and teacher and school resistance to reflective learning will then be presented. Finally, the literature concerning

two psychometrics, the WAS and PCI -- specifically, how both measurements relate to teacher behavior and attitude and student writing apprehension -- will be examined.

<div align="center">**Review of the Literature**</div>

Theoretical Framework of Study: Social Cognitive Theory

Self-efficacy and writing. The importance of student ownership in the learning process is implied in the way Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy, which he sees as the "belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Students perceive themselves to be competent writers to the extent that they can imagine the reasons to proceed in their writing, the potential positive effects that writing can produce in clarifying their own thoughts or communicating them to the reader, and their own ability to execute the task (Flowers, 1979; Bandura, 1997; Rose, 1989b). Bandura (1997) underscores the importance of both self-efficacy beliefs among students and the use of creative rather than formal kinds of writing when he states that:

> Research on the development of writing proficiency further clarifies how efficacy beliefs operate in conjunction with other self-regulatory influences in the mastery of [writing]…Instruction in creative writing builds students' sense of efficacy to produce written work and to get themselves to do it…A sense of efficacy to regulate writing activities affects writing attainment through several paths of influence. It strengthens efficacy beliefs for academic activities and personal standards for the quality of writing considered self-satisfying. (p. 232)

Here Bandura is suggesting that movement away from teacher-centered classrooms and towards a supportive environment increases both self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation in

students. This is in agreement with composition theorists who believe that students must be free to make their own "mistakes" in a supportive environment on the way to creating meaning (Flowers, 1979; Rose, 1995; Pajares, 2003).

Pajares and others have extended Bandura's work in studies of self-efficacy, including the relationship between writing apprehension and self-efficacy beliefs of students. Pajares et al. (2007) suggest that self-beliefs, including writing apprehension, is a promising area of research for informing writing instruction. Pajares (2003) found that there is only "modest" research concerning self-beliefs about writing in both the field of composition studies and from self-efficacy researchers (p. 141). Emotional states such as anxiety and apprehension impact efficacy beliefs, which in turn are directly related to the likelihood of a student resisting the act of writing. Writing apprehension is also often associated with the feedback students receive at school from their teachers, especially feedback that focuses strictly on the gap between student competency in written pieces and the form of writing desired by the teacher (Pajares et al., 2007).

Pajares (2003) found that anxiety and apprehension were correlated with student self-efficacy beliefs at both the elementary and secondary levels. These beliefs are often a result of teacher behaviors that impact the self-beliefs of students, so that low confidence rather than lack of capability is often responsible for maladaptive academic behaviors, including resistance to writing (Pajares, 2003). Student confidence is not only affected by the direct interaction between teacher and student, but vicariously through the experience of other students and the behavior and attitude of the teacher, which is a form of modeling, a second strand in the theoretical basis for this study.

Modeling.   Bandura (1986) suggests that modeling is at the heart of learning. Modeling operates on two levels for the student. First, students learn best what they see their teachers do on a regular basis. Citing the development of language and social complexity, Bandura (1986) writes that "[i]t comes as no surprise that humans have evolved an advanced vicarious learning capacity" which enables them to "master new competencies to fulfill changing demands throughout their life spans" (p. 20). Secondly, Bandura posits that learners often decide whether to adopt or eschew certain behaviors by examining the efficacy of peers who also act as models, so that "seeing models either rewarded or punished both raised children's attentiveness to what the models were doing" (p. 53). Interestingly, "[o]bserved punishment was just as effective as observed reward in promoting observational learning," (p. 64).

Bandura (1997) suggests, then, that teachers' attitudes are important in two ways. First, a teacher's attitude and behavior towards writing will have an effect on how students come to feel about writing. Secondly, a teacher's behavior towards all students during writing and what follows writing (reworking, editing, revising, correcting and so forth) is critical to any individual student's attitude to their own writing.

Bandura (1986) further suggests that students are hypervigilant when observing teachers, and will be less engaged by those who do not practice what they preach. Teachers who disparage writing, either verbally or through non-verbal behaviors, and who are dogmatic in their approach to discussion and decision-making, predictably will fail to move the student whose own attitude towards writing is negative. Additionally, students are more willing to attempt a behavior when they believe the teacher is proficient in that behavior. Bandura writes that "[t]hey pay attention to models reputed to

be effective and ignore those who, by appearance or reputation, are presumed to be ineffective" (p. 54). Finally, Pajares (2003) states that vicarious experiences of others in the student's social domain influence student self-efficacy beliefs. These vicarious experiences include both the teacher's behaviors and attitudes and the success of other students in the classroom. Support for all learners in the affective domain, then, is critical for increasing the self-efficacy of students who might tend towards writing apprehension. For purposes of this study, the affective domain refers simply to factors that influence how the learner feels while learning, especially emotional states present or induced in the learner as a result of his or her environment.

Writing and the Affective Domain

Bandura and others suggest that affective behaviors are critical to the development of new cognitive skills. Student attention to models is influenced not only by the efficacy of the model's behavior, but also by whether the model displays a positive and supportive, neutral or negative attitude towards the student or the student's work. Students will learn observationally from neutral models, but given a choice will choose one who is more positive and supportive, and will actively ignore and avoid a negative model, even if that model is a skilled practitioner (Bandura, p. 53).

The prevalence of standard practices in English curricula which focus on errors in reading and composition often leads to a paucity of affective support in many classrooms, which may have a significant effect on student attitude and achievement (El-Koumy, 2000; Ghaith, 2003; Hallenbeck, 2002; Troia & Graham, 2002). Negative reinforcement centering around student errors in writing tends to increase writing apprehension among resistant students (Emig, 1971; Pajares, 2003). In contrast, "student-centered" activities

such as small-group instruction, reader-response strategies and discussion all increase the need for student involvement and should theoretically reduce apprehension. However, instructional form is not always indicative of the degree to which the instructor has ceded control or power to the student. Activities may seem to be student-centered, but often the teacher controls the direction and extent of interchanges between students and teacher or among students themselves (Nystrand & Groff, 1998), the antithesis of student control.

Student control of writing is an essential part of increasing affective support in the classroom and one factor which decreases writing apprehension (Sailor, 1997). The Flanders Interactional Analysis (FIA) scale is a quantitative scale used to analyze whether teacher behavior during teacher-student interactions is student-centered or controlled by the teacher. The FIA is a nominal scale utilized by a classroom observer that defines teacher-student interchange according to ten categories, five of which are considered "directed" or controlled by the teacher, and five which are labeled "indirect," or open-ended and more student-centered. Utilizing such scales will often reveal that "discussion" may in fact be thinly disguised lecture, and that question-and-answer activities are far more teacher-directed than is initially apparent (Flanders, 1961).

While this study does not include the use of the Flanders scale directly, Willower's PCI has been correlated with the FIA. Humanistic teachers were found to utilize student-centered, indirect interchanges more often than their custodial counterparts, who spent more time on lecture and tightly controlled student-teacher interchanges. The PCI, then, may shed light on the degree to which students are allowed control in the classroom because it has been correlated with indirect, student-initiated interactions as measured by the FIA. If it is a reproducible, accurate and valid measure of

teacher control, the PCI might accurately predict WAS scores in students as well. Since the WAS has been found to be a valid and accurate predictor of student attitude, behavior and success, the PCI could theoretically provide both teachers and supervisors with a tool to evaluate and improve writing instruction.

There are a variety of thematically related concepts in the literature which may help shed light on the relationship between teacher attitude and behavior and the level of writing apprehension found among students. Each of these concepts constitutes a unique and substantial field of study, so the examination of themes found in this literature survey is limited to how the theme relates to the area of focus for this study.

Themes in the Literature

Writing Instruction and Uses of Writing

Current understandings both of how students learn to produce text and how they learn to read and understand text point to the importance of student-centered instruction as outlined by Bandura (1986, 1997). Those commonalities suggest a way to link literary instruction with writing so that students can understand the relationship between the two activities and thus be more willing to engage in either one (Zigo & Moore, 2002). First, the element of student choice or control in writing instruction is critical to the construction of meaning, both in reading and writing text (Graham & Harris, 1994; Kern, Andre & Schilke, 2000). Second, skilled writers self-manage their writing behavior, the composing task and the writing environment to achieve desired results, and one factor in that process is being a reader of one's own text (Graham & Harris, 1994). Finally, learning to write for audiences other than the teacher is a critical skill in developing

writers and requires the writer to read as if he or she were someone else (Spaulding, 2001; Thomas, 2001).

A teacher's behaviors can validate the link between reading and writing as well as the value of both reading and writing, especially through modeling. The ability to assess one's own writing accurately is evidence that the student has learned to some extent to read as if he or she were the teacher, and has accurately learned the behaviors and competencies he or she has seen acted out by the teacher in class (Bandura, 1997; Song, 1998). However, an overt link between the act of reading and writing is not the only factor that increases student's likelihood to write often and well; there must also be a link between activities and the instructional goals of the class (Pajares & Cheong, 2004).

Teachers' choice of instructional practices is critical to productive writing instruction. Those students whose teachers required revision and multiple drafts have been found to have higher scores on standardized tests (Unger & Fleishman, 2004). Children who were given challenging texts to read concurrent with writing instruction also scored higher on standardized tests (Kern, et al., 2000; Nicholson, 2006). Teaching strategies that stress metacognition have been found to be critical to individual student growth and development, and to improvement in student writing (Lumley & Yan, 2001). Allowing students freedom has been found to create a psychological distance from the instructor necessary for critical thought and risk-taking, while instructional and managerial techniques that reduced students' feelings of autonomy reduced intrinsic motivation to write (Spaulding, 2001).

Teacher modeling also directly affects students' perceptions of the writing process and their subsequent success (LeFavor, 1995). Composition theory suggests that

effective teachers of writing build trust and empower students by modeling positive writing behaviors (Kern, et al., 2000; LeFavor, 1995). Because the path to a finished written product is not linear but rather recursive, writing is a self-rectifying system that has no discrete stages that can be generalized from one writer to the next (Emig, 1971; Bandura, 1997; Pajares & Cheong, 2004). Furthermore, because meaning is individually created by each student, whole-group writing instruction typically found in high schools is often ineffective as an instructional strategy (Rose, 1995). Such instruction may increase student writing apprehension (Daly & Shamo, 1978; Pajares, 2003). Instead, allowing student choice in writing where appropriate empowers them to forge links between new knowledge and what they already know (Calfee, 1996).

Student Empowerment

In the reading and writing classrooms, Zellermayer (1994) suggests that if teachers are indeed primarily concerned with student learning, new ideas about the "relationships between teaching and learning" as well as ideas and issues of "power, authority, and control" will be the key to improving writing instruction (p. 343). One model that explains the complex interactions in social settings with which students make meaning is to extend Rousseau's concept of the social contract from the political to the educational world. In both cases, individuals willingly forego certain freedoms to ensure the common good.

In this model, the teacher in a writing classroom does not insist upon giving or validating meaning, which is a "transmissional" approach to teaching and learning. In exchange, the student foregoes the "right" to opt out of the work in which the class is engaged. Class behaviors and methodologies which foster transactional interactions with

the writing of others, including those of the teacher, tend to encourage student participation and enable students to compare their own writing with other texts in the classroom.

Reflective Learning

Reflective learning is based on Dewey's (1933) definition of reflection, which is learning that is "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it leads" (p. 34). According to social cognitive theory, this examination of beliefs and knowledge, although internal to each learner, relies on information garnered from the social reality in which the idea or knowledge is meant to function. Supportive social environments allow interchanges among learners and give the student other perspectives from which to evaluate the veracity of his or her beliefs and the usefulness of his or her knowledge (Bandura, 1997).

Frequent use of reflective discussions in conjunction with reading and writing activities promotes the creation of the supportive type of environment described by Schraw and Bruning (2000), which they also call "transactional" in much the same as Rosenblatt's (1978) use of the term. Reflective reading, writing, speaking and listening activities and activities that rely on peer response and teacher modeling validate each member of the class as a member of a community committed to learning (Zigo & Moore, 2002).

These class discussions should, in turn, help bridge the gap between students who come from cultural backgrounds that have different norms of communication than the norms associated with academia (Crist & Shafer, 2001). On the other hand,

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authoritarian behavior associated with custodial teaching styles is antithetical to student reflection and to the kinds of personal writing which reflection encourages (Lunenburg et al., 1999). Lunenburg et al. (1999), utilizing the PCI, make several points in their discussion of the effect of custodial teaching behaviors. Custodial teachers tend to favor instructional techniques that centralize power and control in the teacher, and generally hold a stereotypic view of students as untrustworthy and prone to misbehavior (Lunenburg et al., 1999; Willower et al., 1967). These types of teachers were less likely to generate a class climate students perceived as robust and interesting, and increased students' perception of perceived conflict between teacher and students in the classroom (Lunenburg et al., 1999).

Teacher and School Resistance to Reflection

There are a variety of factors that inhibit the use of reflection as an element of instruction in the average secondary school English classroom. First, many classroom teachers still rely on transmissional, didactic modes of discourse (Rose, 1995). While the didactic model of instruction may be effective for students raised in upper socio-economic strata, students who tend to be adept at the language of the dominant culture, the discourse of academia is often inaccessible to those populations who possess internal cultural constructs that vary from the dominant culture (Fox, 1990). Students struggling with writing often find traditional instructional techniques inaccessible and threatening for reasons outlined in Chapter 1. In fact, Fuller (1994) contends that many instructional practices chosen by teachers are actually attempts to reinvent minority students as white middle-class students, nullifying their unique cultural and ethnic backgrounds. In these

cases, instruction becomes a kind of power struggle between teacher and student, just as Willower suggests.

Teachers' Modes of Instruction and Attendant Effects on Students

The idea that control issues between student and teacher arise as a result of the hegemony of those presently in control of language and culture is not new. Hegemony is the control of a political or social institution by a dominant population through control of beliefs, practices and protocols for making meaning.   Such control tends to be transmissional rather than transactional.   Cook-Sather (2002) contends that the educational establishment has been dominated by behavioral principles relying on external, teacher-controlled reward-and-punishment schemes, rather than principles which appeal to intrinsic, student-controlled motivations. This results in learners being subjected to rigid and teacher-controlled teaching methodologies that tend to silence their collective and individual voices. Viewed in this light, student writing apprehension and the resulting resistance to writing is natural and easily understood among students who may suspect that the rules of the writing game are fixed against them (Foucault, 1978a; Vygotsky, 1968).

The link between instruction and student resistance is illuminated by Clark (1991), who argues that "student resistance too often appears as ignorance, stupidity, or willful misunderstanding" (p. 123). These are all attributes attached to the student alone, rather than to behaviors that are also linked to the complex social milieu in which the student operates.   Allen (1999) makes a similar point when she writes that "[a]cademic achievement is not so much about cognitive ability or skills acquisition as it is about how

the territorial practices of teachers and others at a school create alienation, resistance and community membership" (p. 2).

Because hegemonic forces tend to be implicit or even covert, students learn from an early age to reference behaviors and compare them with the explicit goals, mores and values of the responsible adults in their worlds. Students also evaluate activities and expectations based on the congruence, or lack thereof, between stated and unstated belief systems (Bandura, 1986). Tishman and Perkins (1992) suggest that since all teachers are in one sense agents of acculturation, teachers should be aware that they are "cultural exemplars" whose modeling has an impact on the behaviors of their students. Often, however, the behavior which is desired is at odds with the student's own cultural, ethnic or socioeconomic background, which may lead to resistance and apprehension, as discussed earlier.

Miraglia (1997) suggests that teachers are "invested … with the maintenance and reproduction of tradition" and that they are often intent on "devaluing behaviors which represent non-compliance to that tradition, to traditional roles, or to the reproduction of traditional values" (p. 418). Justification for the consolidation of power and the devaluing of students may be that secondary teachers feel threatened by an age group that is usually characterized in a highly negative manner both in pedagogical literature and in popular media (Helmers, 1994).

Whatever a teacher's motivation for utilizing authoritarian, custodial behaviors in writing instruction, the literature suggests that using only transmissional forms of instruction, such as lecture and teacher-controlled writing activities like formal expository papers, may increase student writing apprehension and thus inhibit writing

among apprehensive writers (Britton, 1970; Daly & Miller, 1975; Emig, 1971; Flowers, 1979; Pajares, 2003). Hallenbeck (2002) contends that such approaches, especially drill activities often utilized in remediation for struggling writers, actually foster learned helplessness and reduce the chances that students will become independent learners, readers and writers.

Pressure from the Pennsylvania State System of Assessment (PSSA) has served to incubate remedial programs in high schools that tend to focus teacher attention and class time on drill set instruction to the exclusion of constructivist activities most likely to reach at-risk populations (Harmon, 2000; Zigo & Moore, 2002; Higgins, et al., 2006). These standardized tests tend to drive teachers towards narrow instructional techniques and drill sets rather than the rich student-centered instruction that contributes to student success on high-stakes tests (Zigo & Moore, 2002). Ironically, studies have indicated the value of metacognitive activities such as rich classroom discussion, a variety of texts and student-centered writing assignments. Students who were instructed in such a fashion successfully completed high-stakes testing with higher scores than their counterparts in classrooms that utilized the traditional remediation techniques (Zigo & Moore, 2002).

As discussed earlier, Willower's PCI is indirectly related to the probability that teachers will opt for direct interaction with their students in addition to illuminating their attitude towards control of students. Control issues, class climate and the nature of teacher attitude and behaviors may have a significant impact on student writing apprehension. The following section will examine the literature on both the PCI, a direct measure of teacher attitude, which impacts teacher behavior, and the WAS, which measures student writing apprehension.

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<center>**Summary of Literature on WAS and PCI**</center>

The Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Survey

Daly and Miller (1975) developed the scale called the Writing Apprehension Scale (WAS), a 26-item lickert-like questionnaire that was developed from a similar scale designed to measure public-speaking apprehension. The WAS measures student writing apprehension by surveying students' feelings and attitudes towards writing and submitting writing for assessment. This instrument reveals a negative correlation between high-apprehension scores and the willingness to write (Walsh, 1986). While high apprehension scores are generally associated with basic writers, some basic writers have been found to have low apprehension scores (Minot & Gandle, 1991).

Adult community-college freshmen who were exposed to supportive and apprehension-reducing techniques like peer-response groups experienced a decrease in writing apprehension as measured by the WAS (Sailor, 1997). Supportive classroom activities also decreased writing apprehension more than traditional instruction techniques among 100 undergraduates, although both groups showed reduced apprehension and improvement in writing quality (Fox, 1979). Classes termed "apprehension producing," in which assignments were highly ambiguous, evaluation schemes intense and assignments continually novel, increased writing apprehension, and classes designed with clear and articulated assignments and flexible evaluation schema reduced apprehension (Donlon, 1990; Donlon & Andreatta, 1987).

Relationships Between WAS and Academic Scores and Psychometrics

Students who exhibited high degrees of writing apprehension scored lower on the American College Test among 754 undergraduates in all subject areas, and particularly in

English. Students who were enrolled as undergraduate honors students exhibited low apprehension as measured by the WAS (Boening, Anderson & Miller, 1997). Decreases in writing apprehension as measured by the WAS were correlated with an increase in self-reported self-efficacy among introductory undergraduate composition students (Crumbo, 1999). Higher apprehension as measured by the WAS was inversely proportional to writing quality, reading comprehension and general verbal ability in a study of 110 undergraduate college students who were purposefully selected, 55 of whom scored as high-apprehensive and 55 who scored low on the scale (Feigley, Daly & Witte, 1981). Feigley, et al. (1981) found that writing apprehension was also inversely related to length of written pieces, syntactic complexity and maturity in written pieces, indicating that students who exhibit high apprehension are ill equipped for the demands of academic writing. High apprehensives found writing unrewarding and even punishing, but apprehension could be reduced by positive skill development and reinforcement (Feigley, et al., 1981).

Walsh (1986) found that writing apprehension as measured by the Daly-Miller instrument revealed the following relationships: First, high writing apprehension was consistently correlated with lower writing quality on both standardized tests and holistically scored essays of a variety of forms. Second, high writing apprehension and lower grades were also consistently related, and not just in classes where writing was a significant part of the class. Third, students with high levels of writing apprehension avoided classes that were writing-intensive as well as careers that involved writing.

The literature also indicates that writing apprehension is directly related to self-efficacy beliefs and to self-reported ideations of self-esteem, not only concerning writing,

but with respect to broader indices of self-esteem as well (Pajares & Cheong, 2004, Pajares et al., 2007). The WAS, therefore, is a useful predictor of both student success in writing and overall academic success. Although there are a few qualitative studies that examine the effect of teacher behavior and attitude on student writing apprehension, there are none which attempt to quantify the possible relationship between them. Willower's PCI is a quantitative measure of teacher attitude, and one which has been correlated with teacher behaviors as well. Therefore, examining both WAS and PCI may be one way to determine how teacher behavior and attitude influence student writing apprehension.

Relationship of Teacher Pupil Control Ideology to Teacher Behaviors

In 1967, D. J. Willower began examining the possibility of developing a survey to measure what he termed "pupil control ideology," based upon a similar construct utilized in psychology to study institutionalized mental patients. The Pupil Control Ideology form (in Appendix G) was developed by Willower (1967) and others to measure teacher ideology on a continuum from custodial to humanistic as defined in Chapter 1. Briefly, custodial teachers exert more control and utilize teacher-centered instructional and assessment techniques, while humanistic teachers cede significant power to the student and use more student-centered class activities to achieve educational goals.

In the first part of the study, teachers, counselors and principals were surveyed with both the PCI form Willower developed and with Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (RCS), used to measure open- and close-mindedness. In the second phase of the study, 133 principals, teachers and guidance counselors were given the PCI form to test the hypothesis that those working most directly with students would exhibit the greatest degree of custodial behavior. This hypothesis was supported, with teachers scoring

highest and principals lowest on the PCI, with the counselors scoring in between. In all cases in the following discussion, the PCI and RDS showed positive correlation: more experienced teachers were found to be more custodial and less open-minded than those who had taught less than 5 years, possibly as a result of cultural forces in the teaching community that exert pressure towards custodial ideology, just as Helmers (1994) also documented. Men were more custodial than women and secondary teachers more custodial than elementary teachers. Although Willower added the caveat that there were more male secondary teachers and more female elementary teachers, he found the relationship still held (Willower et al., 1967).

Ironically, principals were found to be less close-minded and custodial than teachers at all levels, and less experienced and less educated principals were found to be more custodial and close-minded than experienced ones. Counselors scored high on the humanistic scale. Willower contends that the high degree of custodial peer pressure at the secondary level explains why most counselors had once been secondary teachers who eschewed the cultural norm of custodial behavior and "escaped" into counseling (Willower et al., 1967).

Willower speculates that part of the pressure to become more custodial is that

[t]eachers are obligated to cope with the expectations of the principal, those of parents, and those of their teacher colleagues while carrying out their main work in a kind of confrontation with pupils. The pupils, unselected clients with no choice concerning their participation in the organization, are caught up in their own peer group culture, a culture

which, from the perspective of the teacher, may be seen as inimical and

antagonistic." (p. 38)

Frequently ridiculing students and their mistakes in the faculty room, as Helmers had

seen, for example, is explained by Willower as a kind of practice for real shifts in

ideology. In this case, the shift would be from a humanistic ideology to a custodial one

by teachers who initially might tend towards the humanistic end of the spectrum.

The need to present a united front against parents and pupils is one force that

Willower posits as driving this norming behavior in teachers. Teachers' perceptions of

the expectations of their superiors also drive change towards a more custodial ideology.

This is ironic because teacher perceptions of principals' PCI were not found to be

accurate. Principals were perceived to be more custodial than they actually were by

teachers, possibly as a result of the need for teachers to believe they would be "backed

up" in cases of confrontation with pupils. In contrast, teachers' PCI was accurately

predicted by principals based upon a simple written summary of humanistic and custodial

characteristics (Willower et al., 1973).

Research into the effects of a humanistic instructional ideology reveal a

relationship to other measures of school climate. Humanistic schools as determined by

Halprin and Croft's (1962) Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire were found

to have teachers who work well together, exhibit high morale, and enjoy both productive

and positive superior-subordinate communications as well as an open and accepting

atmosphere. This congenial relationship was found to extend to the relationship between

teachers and students in such schools (Hoy & Appleberry, 1970). Furthermore, the more

custodial the orientation of the school, the less inner-directed the student body will be.

An inner-directed individual uses a small number of internal principals to guide behavior, rather than allowing external forces to guide behavior (Hoy & Appleberry, 1970).

Finally, in a study that examined the relationship between the nature and extent of teacher talk-time, it was found that PCI results for 24 purposefully selected teachers had no correlation to the amount of time teachers spent talking. Teacher talk-time is sometimes offered as a way of measuring teacher control, but in this case proved unreliable (Rexford, Willower & Lynch, 1972). The nature of the teacher-student interchanges for custodial and humanistic teachers, however, was found to be different in this sample. Rexford et al. (1972) found that custodial teachers as identified by their PCI scores exhibited more direct interaction as measured by the Flander's Interactional Analysis (FIA) protocol. The FIA classifies behaviors into five direct or teacher-controlled and five indirect or student-controlled teacher-student interactions.

Humanistic teachers spent more than twice as much time praising students, five times as much time clarifying and accepting student ideas and twice as much time asking students questions. Custodial teachers gave directions five times more often than humanistic teachers, and lectured a third of the time as opposed to humanistic teachers, who spent less than 25% of class time on that activity. Student-initiated talk was more common in humanistic classrooms as well (Rexford et al., 1972). Indirect interaction encourages student ideation and interaction during instructional time, an affective support which may reduce writing apprehension (Pajares, 2003). It would appear that humanistic teachers are more prone to that behavior set, which again raises the question of what influence teacher attitude and behavior has on student writing apprehension.

Evaluation of Literature

Summary of Review

Student writing apprehension has been linked to self-efficacy, modeling and the nature of the affective domain in which the student finds him- or herself. Teacher behavior and attitude may have an impact on student writing apprehension in a number of ways. The nature of instructional activities and teacher modeling have an impact on student writing apprehension, as does the extent of student empowerment in the classroom. Humanistic, reflective approaches to learning should theoretically decrease writing apprehension, while authoritarian approaches should increase writing apprehension. Both schools and teachers have been known to resist attempts to incorporate these instructional and behavioral elements in their classrooms, even though the literature suggests that they would be highly effective.

Writing apprehension as measured by the WAS has been linked to student resistance, writing quality, self-efficacy beliefs and career choices. This makes writing apprehension a powerful predictor of a wider array of learning behaviors and beliefs as well as a valuable diagnostic tool for formulating strategies for effective instruction.

Choice of instructional strategy is affected by such things as teacher and institutional biases towards teacher-controlled activities as well as by the results of standardized test scores. The concept of custodial teacher pupil control ideology has been linked to a limited number of teachers' instructional practices. Humanistic teachers tend to utilize transactional, student-centered activities and methods and custodial teachers use more transmissional, teacher-controlled techniques as measured by Flanders' FIA. Custodial teachers were found to be more closed-minded, and to increase students'

perceptions of conflict in the classroom. PCI was also related to student self-image and self-motivation, with these increasing to the extent that humanistic ideology was present in the classroom.

Willower's PCI has been shown to be a useful psychometric which measures teachers' attitudes towards power and control. Daly and Miller's WAS is another psychometric which measures students' attitudes towards writing, specifically student writing apprehension. Since the intent of this study is to examine the effect of teacher behaviors and attitudes on student writing apprehension, the PCI and WAS can be useful tools for assessing that effect. If there is indeed a correlation between the two measurements, a teacher's PCI may be helpful in informing classroom instruction and in curriculum development as well.

Specifically, is the PCI a reproducible measurement of teacher attitude which is correlated with increasing or decreasing student writing apprehension as measured by the WAS? If not, are there any other observed or student-reported teacher behaviors, such as modeling or the choice of instructional activities, which may have an impact on student writing apprehension?

<div align="center">

Overall Weaknesses and Strengths

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Strengths

Although there is wide acceptance of the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Survey in the literature on post-secondary institutions, no systematic use of the survey was found in the literature on the secondary level. Willower's Pupil Control Ideology indices were commonly used in studies as well, but only in a limited form in connection with teacher behavior and instructional strategies, and never with regard to the WAS. In

a similar vein, while the literature is clear on the value of constructivist ideation and the use of reflective and metacognitive instruction in the classroom, there is an apparent disconnect between theory and practice at the secondary level. The qualitative aspects of this study may provide insight into classroom practices that students report as being helpful in alleviating writing apprehension. Qualitative data may also generate data to inform teachers so that they may better develop strategies to encourage reflective practices and improve instruction. Limiting the direct aspects of the study to a pair of surveys for the majority of students, excluding those few dozen who will be interviewed, will minimize the intrusiveness of the study.

Weaknesses

The study has some inherent challenges. Custodial teachers can be expected to eschew what might be viewed as interference in their classrooms and might opt out of the study or otherwise misrepresent themselves or their practices. Limiting observation of lessons and short student interviews to field notes taken by the researcher rather than recording or videotaping minimizes concerns about privacy issues, but makes accuracy a concern. In-depth student interviews will audio-taped, however, ensuring the accurate representation of interview information for the longer interviews. As each teacher's classroom lessons will be observed for three 30-minute periods, the picture of the "average lesson" may be skewed, although examination of student artifacts such as notebooks, portfolios and other assessments can fill in the blanks left by the paucity of sampling. Finally, the fact that the researcher is currently an English teacher with preferences in instructional techniques raises the possibility of bias in the qualitative portion of the study.

Gaps and Saturation Points in the Present Literature

Gaps

There has been little utilization of the WAS at the secondary level, and no study has compared WAS and PCI. There are limited studies that compare PCI with actual teacher behaviors, including instructional techniques chosen in the classroom. There have also been few studies which examine the effect secondary teachers have on students by modeling appropriate writing behaviors.

Saturation

The literature is clear about the essential practices of an effective writing classroom, as well as the personal and institutional biases against such practices. The strong connection between reading and writing instruction and similarities in instruction is made repeatedly in the literature. Many studies have examined the qualitative effects that teacher decisions have on student attitude and student performance; hence the need for quantitative measurements concerning teacher control ideology and student attitudes towards writing.

Avenues for Further Inquiry

Studies that explore the relationship between student self-efficacy, writing apprehension and teacher activities would extend the scope of this examination. Examining the relationship between writing apprehension and writing quality at the secondary level would also shed light on instructional practices, as would utilizing the PCI to examine the effect of custodial or humanistic teaching approaches on student attitudes towards reading. Finally, an exploration of the relationship between utilization of the WAS and/or the PCI instrument and reflective changes in teacher decisions about

instructional practices would provide a valuable tool for teacher training and staff development.

Chapter Summary

The population that is most at risk according to standardized test scores is also the population least likely to be provided with the varied and meaningful activities that are the hallmark of good literacy instruction. Students with high apprehension towards writing score poorly on standardized tests and are often compelled to complete remediation that is generally of the drill-set variety or which focuses on correction of surface errors. Utilizing these types of instruction is of limited value in helping students improve their own writing, as is the focus on formal writing to the exclusion of other kinds of writing. In fact, the literature supports the notion that these kinds of instructional techniques will increase student resistance to writing. Despite these findings, this is the type of instruction most writers will receive in their secondary career. Writing apprehension is linked to performance on a variety of other academic variables such as the SAT and ACT, GPA, and even career choice. Reducing writing apprehension and resistance should therefore be a major concern in the classroom.

Willower's PCI is a valid measure of teacher pupil control ideology, and custodial teacher methodologies are associated with negative pupil attitudes towards classroom climate and school in general, as well as reducing students' intrinsic motivations and increasing student perceptions of conflict in the classroom. The PCI has also been linked to a teacher's open- or closed-mindedness and to the nature of teacher-student interchanges in the classroom. Studies that help illuminate the relationship between PCI, WAS and instructional protocols may make it more likely that individual teachers will

reflect upon and change their instructional to better serve their students. Such a study may also provide administrators with an alternate avenue for evaluating curriculum and instruction.

Chapter 3 will examine the statistical validity and accuracy of both the PCI and WAS, as well as describing the protocols for administration of both measures. Included will be the methodology utilized in this study for data collection during classroom observation, student interviews and examination of student artifacts during observation. Finally, a time line of events in the study, addenda of letters of permission to those involved with the study, and the PCI and WAS forms will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

INTRODUCTION

Student apprehension towards writing is an antecedent psychological condition associated with student resistance to writing (Daly & Miller, 1975; Pajares, 2007). Writing apprehension and resistance have major impacts on a student's success at the secondary and undergraduate college levels, and upon career choices as well (Walsh, 1986; Pajares & Cheong, 2004). Both composition theory and social cognitive theory suggest that teacher behavior and attitude is one element that may influence student writing apprehension.

Specifically, social cognitive theory predicts that modeling of writing can be a powerful motivator for students who are apprehensive about writing. Social cognitive theory also supports the idea that authoritarian, custodial teaching styles will increase student apprehension, while humanistic behaviors will reduce writing apprehension. In the same vein, ceding some choice and control of writing to the student should also theoretically reduce apprehension towards writing. Despite the theoretical support for utilizing these instructional techniques, many teachers do not choose those types of instructional strategies, for a variety of personal and institutional reasons. A reproducible means by which administrators and teachers can evaluate and improve classroom practices concerning writing would be a valuable tool for reducing writing apprehension at the secondary level.

There are presently few reproducible protocols for quantitatively measuring or evaluating the effect of secondary teacher behaviors and beliefs on student writing apprehension, and none which compare Willower's PCI with the Daly-Miller WAS. In

fact, there have been few studies that explicitly examine writing apprehension at the secondary level (Pajares, 2003). The majority of work with writing apprehension has been with college students, usually freshman. Although there is not a great age difference between high school juniors and seniors and college freshmen, attendance among college students is voluntary, while their counterparts in the high schools are required by law to attend school. Therefore the broad question this study wishes to examine is whether secondary English teacher behaviors and attitudes have any effect on student writing apprehension.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to provide a possible management tool for administrators that can reduce writing apprehension among their students and improve the writing instruction their students receive. On the quantitative end, if the PCI is correlated with student writing apprehension, it can serve as a valuable psychometric in screening potential candidates for teaching positions. Results of the PCI can also be used to guide reflective teacher practices, and in conjunction with the WAS, may provide classroom teachers a means by which to evaluate the effects of their instructional strategies on resistant writers. Finally, the PCI and WAS may lend themselves to use in in-service programs which focus on improving instructional strategies and developing improvement plans for individual teachers, as well as guiding the development of curricula related to writing. In the event that there is no correlation between PCI scores, teacher behaviors and student writing apprehension, observations of classes, student interviews and examination of written student artifacts might reveal other factors which had an impact on student writing apprehension.

There are three sub-questions to be answered in this study. First, is Willower's PCI a reproducible measure associated with changes in levels of student writing apprehension as measured by the two applications of the WAS? Changes in the WAS and any possible relationship to a teacher's PCI will be quantitatively examined, as explained later in this chapter. Secondly, is there any correlation between a teacher's PCI and observable classroom behaviors such as instructional methods employed, modeling of writing and the nature of teacher-student interchange? Finally, are there any other observable classroom factors which might be correlated with reduced or increased student writing apprehension? Several different qualitative techniques were utilized to answer the last two questions in this portion of the study, including field notes from the initial teacher in-service, short student interviews, in-depth student interviews, classroom observations, examination of student writing artifacts and brief exit interviews with teachers.

The remainder of Chapter 3 will describe the methodology used to determine participants and to conduct the study. The narrative will be presented chronologically, with supporting details presented at each stage. The reliability of the measurement instruments, the theoretical basis of the study, analysis of data, risks, benefits and compensation as well as a time line will follow the methodology section.

Participants

The population studied was comprised of high school English teachers and their students at a 9-12 public school with approximately 1300 students. This population was chosen for two reasons. First, limiting the study to high school yielded approximately five teachers of juniors and seniors and their respective students for the observational

portion of the study, and a population of 600 students for the student questionnaires, which were distributed to all students taking English during the fall semester. This was a manageable sample size for the five data sets. Secondly, the preponderance of literature about writing apprehension deals with college freshman. Including only juniors and seniors and their teachers in the population being observed and interviewed minimized disparity in maturity and development between the population most often studied in the literature--college freshmen--and the population being surveyed.

Method of Selection

The site was chosen due to the existence of a cooperative relationship between the school district being studied and the doctoral program for which this study is being conducted. This district has also identified the improvement of student writing as one of its goals for 2009-2010, such that results of this study can be utilized in staff development and in-service programs.

Design and Procedure

The study included both quantitative and qualitative methodologies and participation was strictly voluntary. The Superintendent of Curriculum and Development granted permission for the use of one part of a summer in-service to explain to the teachers the protocols utilized in the study and to hear any concerns or questions they had. A formal request to conduct the study was mailed to the Superintendent (Appendix A). Before the August in-service, a meeting was held with the English department head to share all forms and procedures in the Appendix and to address any concerns. All 11th and 12th grade teachers were then hand-delivered a letter introducing the researcher and the study (Appendix B, p. 1).

During the August in-service, teachers were informed that the purpose of the study was to examine factors which may influence student writing apprehension, including the challenge in determining the appropriate levels of control concerning writing instruction. Appendix C contains a sample script showing the major points covered during the presentation. The WAS (Appendix D) and the protocols for procuring permission from students and their parents were explained at this time (Appendix E). This is the same protocol which was followed in a pilot study in the researcher's own school, which was submitted and approved by the International Review Board at East Stroudsburg in 2006 and 2007. Procedures for the administration of the WAS in the first and last weeks of the semester and for conducting student interviews were also explained at this time (Appendix F).

Teachers were informed that they would be assigned a number based upon alphabetical order. Those five numbers were drawn and the new order was that teacher's code number. This protected the privacy and confidentiality of the teachers. Appendix H displays a graph of actual data gathered by the researcher in his own building as part of the requirements of a curriculum design class at East Stroudsburg University. The graph shows the frequency of reported instructional techniques for one teacher over the course of the semester, and is similar to the ones that were utilized to display results of the study for each teacher. During the in-service, teachers were also shown how the data from observations and short student interviews would be displayed, again based upon the protocol developed and utilized at researcher's school for the same currriculum class (Appendices J and K). Teachers were also informed that the student data would be coded alphabetically so that their privacy and confidentiality would be protected.

Teachers were given a chance to ask questions and air concerns, to which the researcher responded, and which were recorded as hand-written field notes and utilized as qualitative data wherever appropriate. Teachers were then asked to sign a permission form, to provide personal contact information (Appendix B, p. 2), and to retain samples of students' written work in a folder whenever possible to be used as student artifacts. Finally, the PCI was administered to cooperating teachers (Appendix G), and a tentative schedule for observation in each respective teacher's classroom was developed. The teacher in-service lasted approximately one hour.

Utilizing personal days, the researcher visited each teacher's classroom in the opening weeks of school to introduce himself to the students, pass out permission forms and briefly explain the study and the forms to those students. The brief student in-class student interviews that were part of the study were also described (Appendix L).

During the presentation, students were informed that the information collected on the forms and during interviews was confidential, meaning that the individual data points could not be linked to any particular individual. They were also informed that the data would not be shared with anyone except as an average, again ensuring the confidentiality of their individual data. Finally, they were informed that data would be shared as required by law in the event that there was any reason to suspect suicide ideation or threat of harm to others, or in the unlikely event of a subpoena. The researcher visited all 12 junior and senior classes during the first day's visit.

In the week after the initial visit, the researcher met periodically after school with individual teachers to collect permission forms. Approximately 10 days after the initial visit, the researcher administered the WAS to students. On the next visit in October, the

researcher began observing and conducting the first set of short student interviews. The researcher again visited three classrooms per period per day, with the exception of the fourth block, during which only two English classes met.

From the third through twelfth week of the semester, observations were conducted in the same manner, with the researcher conducting all the short student interviews and the classroom observations over two days, one in November and another in December. Data from observation was in the form of field notes, which were summarized and tallied according to observed teacher behaviors, including instructional techniques, the nature of student-teacher interactions and teacher modeling of writing. This protocol was developed and used in the researcher's own building in three teacher's classrooms, and cooperating teachers reported minimal disruption to the normal flow of the lesson. Finally, with all the short interviews and observations completed, the classes were visited approximately 10 days before the end of the semester to complete the second administration of the WAS and to thank the students for their time and consideration. Light refreshments were served in accordance with the district wellness policy.

Means of the two WAS scores were then compared to see if there was a statistically significant shift in student writing apprehension for any of the 25 English classes utilizing a one-tailed t-test. Those means were to be compared with the respective teacher's PCI, utilizing r values and regressional analysis to determine if there was any correlation between PCI and WAS for each teacher and their respective classes. The first t-test also examined if there were any class-by-class or teacher-by-teacher differences in WAS scores for all 25 English classes.

During the course of the study, a frequency analysis of reported classroom activities was compiled for each teacher based upon observations, student interviews and examination of student artifacts such as portfolios, notebooks and any other projects the teacher may have provided. Using a random number generator, three students in each class whose alphabetical position on class rosters corresponded to that number were briefly interviewed.   If the student whose number appeared was absent, the next student on the random number list was interviewed until three brief interviews had been completed. One student per class was interviewed during each of the visitations.

Appendix F was used during the brief interview, and displays student estimates of the most commonly utilized instructional activities for that class. There were no set answers for "activities" so that students were free to respond to the prompt in any way they wished. Form F also recorded the student's perception of the frequency of teacher modeling of writing and the kinds and frequency of writing done in that class. Finally, the three selected students were asked to write for a few minutes about what made them more or less likely to write in that class. Since there were 11 classes observed daily, there were a total of 33 data sets for this portion of the study.

Hand-written field notes of each observation were also recorded. The researcher noted instructional strategies employed during the lesson, including the presence or absence of teacher modeling of writing. Interchanges between teacher and students were characterized as either direct interchanges, such as teacher requests for recitation or correct answers or commands, or indirect interchanges, examples of which include open-ended questions, paraphrasing, praise or student-generated questions.   Other factors which may have related to control issues between teacher and student or class climate

were also noted where appropriate. Again, since there were three visitations per class, there were 33 data sets per teacher generated in this part of the study as well.

The responses to questions about common activities from each trio of students were tallied for each class and then for each teacher and listed in order of frequency of appearance. In the event that students repeated information or displayed information in slightly different form, all responses were counted. The qualitative data was then grouped into categories and examined to reveal trends in instructional techniques common in each classroom, and if possible, among classrooms for each teacher (Appendix J). This information was compared with the data gathered during three 30-minute observations of each teacher conducted on different days (Appendix K). The goal of this portion of the study was to construct a snap-shot of what instructional activities were most common in those classes and for that teacher. In a similar way, student estimates of the frequency of teacher modeling and the kinds and frequency of writing were tallied and examined for trends along with the observational data.

Another component of classroom observation was the examination of student work by those students selected for the brief interview. Portfolios, student projects, notebooks and work accumulated in each student's folder, if present, were examined to see what kinds of writing had been completed in the course, as well as to compare completed student work with the observed instructional components of that particular teacher's class. Briefly, student-generated writing or writing activities which allowed for student choice of form or topic would be evidence of a humanistic cast to a class, while fill-in-the-blank worksheets, restrictive writing prompts and other teacher-generated activities would be considered more custodial in nature. The brief student interviews,

examination of student artifacts and class observations provided a rich qualitative picture of teacher behaviors in the form of teacher-student interactions and instructional techniques chosen for that class.

The qualitative trends in observed and reported teacher behaviors were listed under each teacher, beginning with the teacher with the lowest numeric PCI (least custodial) to the teacher with the highest PCI (most custodial). Trends in instructional activities, teacher-student interaction, teacher vs. student control of writing and classroom activities, and the presence or absence of teacher modeling were noted and recorded from most to least common on a "Recorded and Reported Teacher Behavior" form similar to Appendices J and K. Visual inspection of this chart helped identify possible areas for further study as well any apparent correlation between teacher behaviors and a teacher's PCI scores.

The last component of the qualitative data was a more in-depth interview with selected students. Questions posed during that interview are listed in Appendix I. From the entire population of students sampled, a purposeful sample of three students who showed the greatest changes in WAS and who consented to be interviewed were interviewed in more depth utilizing the questions on Form I to determine what factors they believed had had the greatest impact on both positive and negative changes in their writing apprehension.

Interviews were conducted after school in the library to eliminate bias due to the presence of the teacher and to avoid any appearance of impropriety. Each interview was audio-taped and written transcripts of each interview were prepared. Factors which students contended had an impact on their writing apprehension or willingness to write

were tallied each time they were mentioned. For example, a student might say that the way a teacher corrected papers, the way a teacher approached due dates, the kinds of writing prompts or of writing assignments given, or class climate made it more or less likely that they would write. From reported factors, overarching themes concerning factors which impacted writing apprehension among the students interviewed were determined.

Size, Demographics and Variables

The county in question is located in northeastern Pennsylvania, a rural area that has begun to attract urban and suburban students in the last decade. The student body of the district is approximately 97% white, 2% Hispanic and 1% other ethnicities, with approximately 31% of the population receiving free or reduced lunch. Graduating classes have included around 350 students in each of the last five years (New America Foundation, 2008). Since block scheduling services approximately half of all available students each semester and this study was confined to one semester, the sample size for the WAS was approximately 600 students, or half of all students in the school. Five teachers and 11 classes of juniors and seniors were observed.

Theoretical Basis for the Instruments Chosen for This Study

The literature supports the theoretical validity of the Daly-Miller instrument for measuring writing apprehension. Although most of the studies found were done on the undergraduate level, there were several done on the secondary and adult level as well. The results are best summarized by Walsh (1986), who found that high writing apprehension as measured by the Daly-Miller instrument had effects on a large number of academic variables, including SAT and GRE scores, student grade point averages,

student self-efficacy beliefs and self-esteem indices. Students with high levels of writing apprehension avoid classes that are writing-intensive and careers that involve writing as well (Walsh, 1986; Pajares, 2003).

Willower's (1967) PCI has been found to correlate with the nature of teacher-student interactions, with humanistic teachers using more indirect, student-centered instructional techniques compared to their custodial counterparts (Willower et al., 1973). The PCI was also correlated with student perceptions of a more robust and interesting classroom climate for classes of teachers scoring on the humanistic end of the scale. Students' perception of conflict was higher in the classrooms of teachers scoring on the custodial end of Willower's spectrum (Lunenburg et al., 1999).

The qualitative piece of the study is based upon sound research protocols, and utilizes short and long interviews, observation, and examination of student artifacts. The use of learning walks, upon which the observations and short student interviews are patterned, are well supported by current literature and practice. Long interviews with students who are have shown the greatest change in apprehension serve to validate trends which discovered in the initial phases of the qualitative piece.

Risks, Benefits and Compensation

The benefits of this study to educational establishments in general are several. First, a reproducible and easily administered measure of teacher behavior and attitude can serve as a valuable psychometric in screening potential candidates for teaching positions. Secondly, results of the PCI can also serve as a diagnostic tool to guide reflective teacher practices, and in conjunction with the WAS, may provide classroom teachers a means by which to evaluate the effect of their instructional strategies on resistant writers. Finally,

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the PCI and WAS may lend themselves to use in in-service programs which focus on improving instructional strategies and developing improvement plans for individual teachers, as well as guiding the development of curriculum as it relates to writing.

The benefits of the study to the district in which it is being conducted are two-fold. First, the district in question has already identified writing instruction as an area of focus in their annual improvement plan, and the study will establish a benchmark or baseline from which changes in curriculum and instruction can be evaluated. Secondly, administration of the PCI and WAS in the high school may be utilized in staff development and in-services for the 2009-2010 school year.

Cooperating teachers were offered $20-gift certificates to Borders or other area businesses. Classes that participated in the study were given juice boxes and light snacks in accordance with the district wellness policy during the last visit of the study. Students who participated in the in-depth interviews were given $20 I-Tunes or Borders gift cards.

Rationale for Research Design

The literature supports the statistical value of the instruments chosen to examine student writing apprehension and humanistic vs. custodial teaching ideologies. The WAS and PCI both had average split-half values greater than .90, meaning that when the survey was split into two halves and re-administered to subjects who had taken the entire test, the results were substantially the same. The WAS had a test-retest value of .93, which means that the same subjects taking the test two separate times over a span of some weeks displayed essentially the same answers in both applications of the test. Studies also support the idea that student estimations of teacher behaviors are statistically accurate enough to make meaningful comparisons of instructional strategies. Steele and

Milan (1971) found that in over 120 classrooms, students accurately assessed the extent of teacher talk-time compared to observed times to within 5%, while the teachers themselves generally underestimated the time they spent talking.

The literature revealed that the use of the Daly-Miller instrument is well documented and its statistical validity and reliability is sound. A high score on the Daly-Miller survey indicates a low level of writing apprehension. Beyond statistical validity, WAS is a powerful predictor of a wide range of other academic variables, making the use of this survey in high school populations potentially valuable for future studies (Walsh, 1986).

Willower's PCI index has been correlated with the nature of teacher-student interactions as measured by the Flanders Interactional Assessment, which categorizes interactions as either "direct" and hence teacher-controlled, or "indirect," which is more student-oriented instruction. Humanistic teachers have been found to utilize more indirect interchanges with students that tend to encourage student participation. These interactions are thus transactional techniques in agreement with composition theory. Custodial teachers, on the other hand, tend to use more direct interactional techniques that are controlled by the teacher, and are therefore more transmissional, which tends to increase writing apprehension (Willower et al., 1973; Daly & Shamo, 1978). In this respect the PCI not only acts as a predictor of a teacher's utilization of student-centered activities in the classroom, but also provides an indirect measure of transactional or transmissional teacher-student interchanges (LeFavor, 1995).

PCI was found to be correlated to the level of perceived conflicts in the classroom, with custodial teachers reported by students to be more confrontational than

their humanistic counterparts. PCI was also found to predict the self-sufficiency of students, with the students of humanistic teachers displaying more ownership and initiative in their work than students in custodial classrooms (Hoy & Appleberry, 1970). Students in humanistic classrooms also reported that they found the class more robust and interesting than classes taught in a more custodial fashion. There have been no studies of a teacher's PCI with regard to student writing apprehension.

The variables examined quantitatively include changes in student writing apprehension as measured by the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Survey (WAS), and custodial vs. humanistic ideologies as measured by Willower's Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form. The relationship between teacher behaviors and writing apprehension was examined through field notes from the initial in-service, brief exit interviews with cooperating teachers, observations and in-class interviews with students, and through examination of student artifacts such as portfolios, projects and notebooks.

Classroom observation protocols and short student interviews were tested during a peer observation study as part of a supervision and curriculum design course in the researcher's building in the spring of 2008. Participating teachers reported that the observations were accomplished with a minimum of disruption to the normal flow of the lessons observed. The use of the WAS in junior and senior classes in a pilot study in the researcher's own classes from the spring of 2006 through the spring of 2008 was approved by the International Review Board at East Stroudsburg University, and there were no negative effects discernable among those students. Observations extended from the beginning of the first marking period to the end of the semester, or approximately 10

weeks of instruction, and WAS measurement was administered in the first and last weeks of the fall semester.

Procedure

The following is a time line of procedures followed during this study:

- **August 1:** Submit design to IRB for approval; apply for permission to conduct study from superintendent of school district and other appropriate district personnel (Appendices A, B and C).

- **August 3-August 14:** Meet with assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction, principal and English department head as needed to develop in-service in August.

- **August 24, 2009:** Meet with cooperating teachers in in-service to describe the parameters and methodologies of the study and to administer PCI. Schedule observations of classes and student interviews with cooperating teachers (Appendix C).

- **September 1-September 9, 2009:** Hand out and collect student/parent permission slips for each teacher participating in the study (Appendix E).

- **September 10, 2009:** First administration of WAS to students (Appendix D).

- **September 11-September 19**, **2009:** Teachers to re-administer WAS to students who were absent on September 10.

- **September 20---December 10, 2009:** Three observations of cooperating teachers in each of their classes and interviews of their students; three per classroom. Classroom observations and interviews will consist of field notes and forms only, and not video or audio tapes. Students who are interviewed will be asked a series

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of questions and asked to write to an open-ended writing prompt as per Form F in Appendix.

- **December 1, 2009-January 15, 2010:** Analysis of observational and short interview data (Appendices J and K).

- **January 15, 2010:** Administer second WAS to students and calculate means. Run one-tailed t-test on paired data points. Calculate r values of the PCI of each teacher and WAS means for that teacher's students. Determine numeric ranking of changes in WAS for students and identify those with greatest changes. Send letters of consent to those students and schedule interviews with the first six to eight students who return permission forms.

- **January 25, 2010:** Interview sample of students with the greatest changes in WAS scores—six to eight students. These interviews will be audio-taped and the tapes transcribed, with commonly reported factors which influence writing apprehension and willingness to write displayed according to frequency (Appendix I).

- **March 1, 2010:** Complete data analysis and complete Chapters Four and Five.

- **March 1, 2010:** Submit results of study to appropriate district personnel as identified by the superintendent or his designee.

Analysis

Utilizing SPSS, the means and ranges of the two WAS scores of each teacher's students were compared using a one-tailed t-test to discover if there was any significant change in means for the teachers' respective students among any of the classes studied. An r value comparing both aggregate student WAS means by class with the individual

teacher's PCI was calculated to discover if there was any relationship between PCI and WAS.

For the qualitative portion of the study, reported classroom instructional techniques were ranked from most commonly reported to least commonly reported by students (Appendices J and K). The presence or absence of teacher modeling of reading and writing, and student-centered instruction were determined through observation, student interviews and examination of student-produced artifacts, and both sets of qualitative data were then compared with the results of the two psychometrics administered in the first phase of the study. Finally, three purposefully selected students whose WAS scores showed the greatest change were interviewed at length to determine which factors may have had an impact upon their change in apprehension (Appendices I and M).

Limitations

The sample size (n~600 for students, and n=5 for teachers) of this study was fairly small, although it did represent approximately 50% of the population being sampled, and as such proved statistically significant in some regards. The fact that all the observations occurred in one building increases the chance that other variables may have skewed results. Because of the distribution of students in the first and second semesters, certain sub-populations such as special education, minority or disabled students were not proportionately represented. Since this high school is still considered a rural school, the study may not represent students in more urban or suburban environments, limiting the generalizability of the study. Block-scheduling may yield different results than would be seen in schools which utilize single classes over the entire school year.

Delimitations

The focus of the study was not to measure teacher perceptions of any of the variables in the study except in field notes from the initial in-service and in brief exit interviews among cooperating teachers. The fact that only juniors and seniors were observed means that no attempt was made to determine the effects of teacher modeling on any of the variables here listed for any other grades or ages, nor was any attempt made to measure reading or speaking ability, either qualitatively or quantitatively, although both are closely aligned with writing.

Chapter Summary

Statistical analyses of changes in students' WAS and comparison of WAS to teachers' PCI provided a starting point from which to examine the effect of teacher pupil control ideology and teacher behaviors on student attitudes towards writing. Larger sample sizes and a more robust qualitative component would have yielded superior results, but the sample size of students (n~600) and the statistical validity of the two quantitative instruments still yielded meaningful results. In the absence of a correlation between the quantitative measures, qualitative data still illuminated to some degree other factors that have an impact on writing apprehension for secondary public school students in grades 11 and 12.

CHAPTER 4

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine teacher behaviors and attitudes which may have an impact upon student writing apprehension as measured by the changes in Daly/Miller Writing Apprehension Survey (WAS), and to evaluate the usefulness of Willower's teacher Pupil Control Ideology survey (PCI) in predicting both the classroom behaviors of teachers and any possible changes in the WAS scores of students. Teacher modeling of writing, the kinds and uses of writing in the classroom, the degree of teacher control exercised in the classroom, and the nature of teacher-student interactions have all been identified in the literature as possible factors which impact student attitudes towards writing.

This chapter contains four strands of data which relate to the questions in this study. Self-reported teacher PCI scores, observed and reported teacher behaviors, changes in student WAS scores and the results of 32 short and three long student interviews will be presented in that order, as this was the approximate order in which each data set was completed.

Background

The school district in which the study was conducted is located in a rural area of northeastern Pennsylvania. The high school population of 1223 is 93.9% white, 1.8% black, 3.6% Hispanic, and less than 1% Asian or Native American (retrieved from Schools-data.com, 2009). The school reported that 19.4% of the students filed for free or reduced lunch in 2009. Results of the 2008 PSSA show that the high school is below the state average in reading, writing and math scores as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: *2008 PSSA Testing*

	Mathematics	Reading	Writing
State average	58%	64%	84%
School average	43%	52%	66%

There were a total of 601 students in grades 9 through 12 taking English in the fall semester of 2009. The English department in the high school in which the study was conducted is composed of 10 English and two special education teachers, as well as a staff member who teaches a remedial PSSA course called Read 180. Class sizes ranged from the high teens to the low thirties.

Results

Teachers' Self-Reported PCI Scores and Teacher Behaviors

The first question in the study was to determine if the Willower PCI is a reproducible measure that predicts teacher behaviors, which may have an impact on student writing apprehension.

In the first section of this chapter, the PCI scores of each teacher, their observed and student-reported instructional techniques and the nature of observed teacher-student interactions will be presented, with several caveats. First, the PCI is a self-reporting survey, raising the possibility that teachers might misrepresent themselves. Since all teachers knew the purpose of the study, the possibility exists that they may have edited their responses to the PCI to present themselves in a manner they thought was more in keeping with the perceptions of their administrators, their peers, their students and/or the researcher. Second, the concept of control is multi-dimensional, operating on both the

conscious and unconscious levels, and on the cognitive and affective levels as well, making it a difficult construct to evaluate (Vygotsky, 1968). Although there is a correlation between control ideology and control behavior, that relationship is complex, and is influenced by the culture of the institution being considered, which means that while a teacher may believe in a more humanistic approach and even perceive himself or herself to be humanistic, his or her actual behavior may be more custodial, and vice versa (Rose & Willower, 1981). Finally, several of the teachers commented that the grade level and academic level of the sections taught had an influence on the degree of control exercised and of activities selected, with more stringent control needed for lower-track students. Since the teachers only completed one PCI, there is no way of knowing which class or classes they had in mind when they were completing the PCI.

As the range for the PCI (Appendix G) is between 20 and 100, 60 represents the tipping point between custodial and humanistic scores. All teachers in this study scored in or nearly in the custodial half of the spectrum. The range of scores on the Willower instrument was from 58, slightly humanistic, to 71, or moderately custodial, with a score of 61 in the middle. The one special education teacher, who scored a 62, was paired with the teacher who scored the highest in custodial ideology (71). In all the lessons observed, the English teacher acted as lead teacher, determining activities and lessons. Therefore the tables will display only the five English teachers' scores.

Table 2: *Self Reported Teacher PCI Scores*

Lower Custodial			Higher Custodial	
Betty	Joe	Bert	Steve	Pattie
58	58	58	61	71

Willower et al. (1967) stated that PCI scores tend to increase with the tendency of the teacher to employ instructional techniques with more teacher control. Accordingly, those teachers with lower control scores should utilize more transactional and reflective instructional techniques such as journaling, free writing, discussion and exploratory group work, while teachers with higher scores should utilize more transmissional techniques such as note-taking, recitation, seat work and work packets. Since all five teachers PCI scores ranged from slightly humanistic to moderately custodial (PCI~60 or greater), instructional activities for all five teachers should tend towards teacher-directed techniques. Thus, rather than examining observations on a teacher-by-teacher basis first, the researcher compiled a tally of all observed activities for the five teachers, and then examined it to see if activities were teacher- or student-centered.

The next section of this chapter will therefore examine PCI scores for the five teachers and compare aggregate rather than individual teacher behaviors and student-teacher interactions relative to those PCI scores. First, higher PCI scores should be associated with more custodial teacher behaviors, and custodial teachers should exert more teacher control and offer less student freedom in the choice of writing and instructional activities. Second, higher PCI scores should also be correlated with more frequent use of direct interactions with students, such as lecturing, recitation and frequent

corrections, while lower PCI scores should be associated with discussion, supportive comments, or student-initiated talk.

Observed Writing Activities

Since the effect of teacher's behaviors on student writing apprehension was the focus of the study, the data was first examined for examples of writing activities and instructions. There were few examples of writing seen in the classrooms observed. Nearly all examples of writing activities observed were literary in nature, such as several days' worth of students working on research papers in Bert's and Steve's classes and a full class of instructions in Betty's class on the format expected for a literary critique that comprised a significant part of students' grade. Only two writing activities were witnessed which contained possible elements of actual writing instruction. In one of Joe's classes, the activity was small-group peer editing of or peer response to a story the students had written patterned after *The Caunterbury Tales*, and in one day's worth of Betty's classes, students were asked to write to a prompt on veterans that was requested by administration. During observations, all five teachers made reference to writing assignments, but only once to writing strategies or instruction. Teachers were then asked if they would spare a few minutes at their convenience to discuss the kinds and uses of writing they employed in the classroom.

Four of the five teachers made themselves available for short interviews or volunteered information about the writing they conducted in class, with only Betty refraining from doing so. Two reported that they utilized Web-based writing programs. Steve used a Wiki space which the researcher visited, in which students wrote biographies for themselves, and in which there was opportunity for interactive responses

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to teacher-provided prompts. Joe utilized Study Island, a site in which students were expected to choose and complete 60 prompts from a long list he provided. Bert also reported using current events as warm-ups to get the students to write. In these exercises, students would first read a news article, then write about it, and then the class would discuss the article. Pattie reported utilizing short writing prompts in her classes as warm-ups early in the year, and these warm-ups appeared in student notebooks, but after the first month of instruction she substituted vocabulary drills in place of writing. Finally, Betty's students reported that they were asked to write "opinion writing." Only two of these activities were witnessed during observation: students writing to the Wiki space in Steve's class and the discussion of current events in Bert's class, during which they discussed the death of NFL star Pat Tillman. In Chapter 2, teacher modeling of writing was identified as one of the factors which may have an impact on writing apprehension, but there was no teacher modeling observed or reported during the study. Modeling is one of four factors associated with a sense of self-efficacy, an individual's belief that they can successfully complete a task or learn a new skill. Increases in self-efficacy have in turn been found to be correlated with decreases in writing apprehension (Pajares, 2003). Chapter 2 also noted that another factor which may improve self-efficacy and thus reduce writing apprehension relates to psychological condition, such as the presence of affective support in the classroom. Such support is typified by student-centered activities and indirect teacher-student interactions such as praise, validation, paraphrasing of student comments, student-generated comments and questions, and use of humor. As Pajares (2003) states, instruction which incorporates these elements can increase self-efficacy beliefs and reduce writing apprehension, even if the instruction is not directly related to

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writing. Therefore, even though there was limited use of writing instruction observed or reported in the study, the data was examined for student-centered instructional activities and those which were more teacher-centered, even if they were not related to writing. Teachers' self-reported PCI scores falling in the custodial range would predict activities with higher level of teacher control as compared to student control in these classrooms.

Observed Teacher-Centered Activities

There were a total of 52 discrete activities recorded during the observations, some of which lasted only a few minutes and others which took up the entire observation period. Of these recorded activities, 45, or 88%, were teacher-directed. Seat work in the form of worksheets, vocabulary or note-taking was the most commonly witnessed activity, usually done individually but on three occasions in pairs or groups. Most examples of seat work were literary in nature and related to whatever book the class was reading at the time, such as a family shield activity in Pattie's class that related to *Beowulf*, or comprehension/recall fill-in-the-blank worksheets for *Death of a Salesman* in Betty's class, a report on Karl Marx in Steve's class that went with *Animal Farm,* and a vocabulary game in Joe's class with words taken from *Hamlet.*

In all 45 cases these activities were structured and directed by the teacher. Discussion was listed eight times in the field notes, comprising 15% of the recorded activities. Discussion here was defined as any interchange between teacher and student which was not in the question/answer or recitation format, but rather referenced opinion or interpretation on the part of the student. However, in only two cases were there multiple interchanges between the teacher and student or among the teacher and more than one individual student, one in Joe's class and one in Bert's. In the remainder, the

"discussion" followed what Nystrand and Groff (1998) term the IRE pattern, where the teacher initiates the conversation, the student responds, and the teacher evaluates the answer, which is actually a form of custodial interaction. Individual work on laptops was the third most common activity witnessed, occurring seven times. This work was most often related to research papers or other teacher-assigned writing assignments, both of which are teacher-centered assignments, although in one of Steve's classes, laptops were used for writing on Wiki spaces, which is a more student-centered form of writing. Lecture and note-taking was observed five times, and reading and writing each occurred three times. The majority of the time in all five classrooms was therefore spent in teacher-directed activities, with only occasional student control or input, all of which occurred in classrooms of teachers with lower PCI scores.

Observed Student-Centered Teaching Activities

There were seven student-directed activities of 52 witnessed during observations, five of which occurred in Bert's and Joe's classes, whose PCI scores were the most humanistic of the five teachers. One was a mock trial of the principal characters in *The Scarlet Letter* in Bert's class, and one a discussion about *The Lord of the Flies* in Joe's class during which students were responsible for generating questions and carrying on discussion. Both of these activities lasted the entire duration of the observation, approximately 25 minutes to a half an hour. Three discussions occurred in which multiple students volunteered ideas to which other students responded, or in which the teacher and several students took turns speaking and responding. The remaining two activities which might be seem student-directed were discussions in Pattie's classes about the problem with American high schools, and one day's lessons in Joe's class, during

which students in all three classes initiated a discussion concerning grading of a test. In the first case, both the IRE pattern and student-generated comments were witnessed during the classroom interchanges, making the lesson only partially student-centered. In the second, the interchange, although student-initiated, falls under the sub-category of defending or explaining teacher behaviors, a teacher-centric behavior according to the Flanders scale. This interchange, however, might also be considered part of a reflective interchange both student and teacher could use to change attitudes or beliefs, a somewhat student-centered result. There was one student-centered activity in Steve's class in which students worked on self-directed Wiki spaces, and no student-centered lessons observed in Betty's classes.

Student-Reported Lessons

Three students in each teacher's class were interviewed using the Student Interview Form (Appendix H). A total of 32 students were interviewed for approximately ten minutes, and the aggregate results of the interviews is displayed in Appendix L. Student-reported data was used to triangulate the data gathered during observations, and supported the idea that the majority of classroom instructional activities in all five classrooms were direct and teacher-controlled. Notable exceptions included current events discussion, listed by Bert's students, and six more mentions of discussion among Betty's and Joe's students, as well as reports by two students of "At The Bell" activities which included both grammar (teacher-directed) and short writing prompts which may have been student-centered. Students reported that Pattie asked for journaling, Joe's and Steve's students cited on-line topics and poems, and Betty's students included "opinion writing."

Table 3: *Reported Frequency of Instructional Activities*

Work Packets, Notes and Teacher Reading	25
Current Events/Discussion	9
Discussion	6
Question/Answer	5
At the Bell	5

Observed Student Artifacts

Selected students were asked to show the researcher any notebooks, folders or portfolios they might have for English class. No students had portfolios. In 32 student notebooks and folders examined during the observations, notes were seen most frequently, a total of 24 times, with worksheets appearing 21 times and graded items like tests or papers seen in 13 of the 32 notebooks and folders. Again, these artifacts were mostly literary in nature. Journal entries and writing prompts were the only student-generated pieces seen, occurring in 7 of the notebooks. Reading and responding, essays, research papers and writing to teacher-provided prompts were most commonly reported for all five teachers.

Table 4: *Student Writing Artifacts*

Notes	24
Worksheets	21
Tests/Quizzes	13
Journaling	7

The results of observations, student-reported activities and student artifacts in this study were all consistent with the moderately custodial PCI scores, with the majority of class activities teacher directed and controlled, with occasional examples of student-generated writing and speaking seen in all five classrooms, and with few interactive, student-centered writing activities noted. The preponderance of teacher-directed, transmissional activities in this study have been associated in the literature with an increase in student writing apprehension as measured by the WAS (Britton, 1970; Daly & Miller, 1975; Pajares, 2003).

PCI Scores and Teacher-Student Interactions

Instructional activities are often closely related to the nature of teacher-student interactions, and so the two categories can be expected to overlap. For example, the previous section showed that the majority of instructional activities were not student-centered in nature, and most interchanges between teacher and student fell into the category of direct exchanges in the way that Flanders defined the term. That is, only seven of the 52 recorded teaching activities of any appreciable duration were initiated by students or involved student control over the direction of the conversation during the lesson.

In order to clarify the nature of teacher-student interactions, field notes for all five teachers were again examined for evidence of teacher comments of praise, clarification, paraphrasing, or student-initiated conversations, all considered indirect exchanges by Flanders. Included in this category was acknowledgement of feelings by the teacher, including humorous exchanges, which were typified by laughter among students during the lesson. During observations, the researcher jotted down each occurrence of an

activity or each comment from a teacher or student as one line, and at the end of the study had compiled 28 typed pages of field notes (Appendix M).

Of 28 pages, approximately three pages of the notes were praise and validation from teacher to student, teacher statements that clarified student comments, student-initiated talk, or occurrences of laughter. Not counted in this tally were the two pages that recorded the classes in which Joe was justifying grading procedures, or about a page's worth of students arguing with or talking back to the two teachers in Pat's two classes. There were no observed interchanges which validated student feelings, nor were there any interchanges which referenced student feelings witnessed during the visits. There was therefore very little affective support witnessed during most lessons, although all five teachers did interact on a less formal basis with their students before and after classes, which might be considered a form of affective connection. For example, both Betty and Bert allowed students to leave gym bags or other personal items for storage in their rooms, and Betty's walls were covered with pictures of students and student-created art. Students were often witnessed visiting teachers in all but Betty's classroom before and after the bell, and in Bert's case during his lunch period, which he spent in his room.

Although sarcasm is a form of humor, it does not tend to validate or support the student towards whom the sarcasm is directed, and this form of interchange was noted in all five teachers' classes. Of interest is the fact that all five teachers responded negatively to a question on the PCI asking whether the use of sarcasm was an effective classroom strategy. In one lesson, Pat responded to a request to play a game by responding, "How about we play a game where we tell you what to do and you do it?" During one of Joe's lessons, he related the story of an alleged incident of plagiarism by saying he "caught one

[student], and when he was done crying," the student received a zero. In Bert's class, one student challenged another during the mock trial as to whether she had actually read the book, which brought laughs from many of the students, and the girl explained that she had "read the book for honors class over the summer and Spark-noted it" to review, to which Bert replied, "Oh, a student doing research on a book. *There's* a concept!" In giving instructions for a research paper, Betty responded to a student's question by saying." Well, you could start by going to that place they call the library." Finally, on an early visit to pick up permission forms, Steve said no one had brought any in and then commented in a joking manner that his class was "incompetent" in front of them, perhaps not an example of sarcasm but certainly negative in tone.

Teacher behaviors which might reduce writing apprehension include a supportive affective environment, teacher modeling, student choice in the writing topics and some student control in the writing process. None of these were common and some were not witnessed at all in the classes observed in this study, nor did students report them as being a significant element in the classroom culture. The PCI was fairly accurate, then, in predicting the overall nature of instructional and interpersonal behaviors exhibited by the teachers in this study. All five teachers scored in or nearly in the custodial half of the scale, and utilized mostly teacher-centric lessons as well as direct teacher-student interactions in the classroom. Whether individual self-reported PCI scores related to differences in teacher behavior among the five teachers in the study will be examined in the next section.

Differences in Teaching Activities as Compared with PCI Scores

While there were many similarities among the five teachers concerning choice of instructional activities and in the nature of teacher-student interactions, there was some difference in the PCI scores for each. Three teachers, Betty, Joe and Bert, had the most humanistic self-reported scores of 58, two points below the mid-point between custodial and humanistic scores. While both Joe and Bert did present at least one lesson in which there was observable student control and direction, Betty, whose PCI score was tied with Joe's and more humanistic than Bert's, was not observed presenting student-centered lessons.

In an attempt to triangulate the results of the PCI scores and examine what seems to be an anomaly with Betty's score, the researcher asked the principal to complete a version of the PCI for each of the five teachers, using a ranking system based upon Willower's original seven descriptors, from least to most custodial for each term. Although many of Willower's original terms for custodial behavior have a negative connotation, they were used here without modification, and the opposite end of the spectrum was created by the researcher, such as "Open to New Ideas" as the counterpart to Willower's "Rigidly Traditional." The principal was instructed to position each teacher where he thought appropriate. Figure 1 represents the scale used in this part of the study, which will be referred to as the Principal's Narrative Form, or PNF.

Name:

Rigidly traditional   open to new ideas

I_____I_____I

Control flows downward   more democratic

I_____I_____I

Strict pupil control   student self-control

I_____I_____I

Depersonalized teacher-student interaction   student as individual

I_____I_____I

Extrinsic controls: rewards and punishments   intrinsic motivator

I_____I_____I

Stereotypic view of students   non-judgmental

I_____I_____I

Pessimism and watchful mistrust   trust unless violated

I_____I_____I

Figure 1: PNF.

The principal's scores of the five teachers on the PNF index are presented below

in Table 5, with self-reported PCI scores in brackets.

Table 5: *PNF Scores*

Custodian			Humanistic	
Betty	Bert	Pattie	Joe	Steve
65 [58]	41 [58]	51 [71]	10 [58]	9 [61]

On this scale, 70, or ten times the seven variables, would be the most custodial score, and 7 the most humanistic. According to the principal, Betty was the most custodial (with a PNF score of 65), with Bert and Pattie ranked as moderately custodial with scores of 41 and 51, and Joe and Steve with strongly humanistic scores of 10 and 9. While his rankings on the PNF are congruent with Betty's and Pat's observed and student-reported behaviors, which were more teacher-centered and direct than Bert's or Joe's, his ranking of Bert was not consistent with the observed data. There were at least some indirect and student-controlled activities observed in Bert's classes, while relatively few such behaviors were witnessed in Pattie's lessons. Accordingly, observational data would support the idea that Bert and Pattie's scores should have been inverted, with Bert scored as more humanistic than Pattie.

The relative rankings of the five teachers on the two scales display several differences. First, Betty's PRF score puts her on the opposite end of the spectrum from her PCI score. Secondly, Bert's PNF score puts him mid-way between humanistic and custodial ideology, while his PCI was one of the three most humanistic. Steve, Joe and Pattie occupied the same relative position on both scales, or very nearly so. One notable feature of the PCI and PRF scores is the degree to which Betty's scores differ. While she

scored herself as slightly humanistic on the PCI, her score of 65 on the PRF was very near the most custodial score of 70.

Individual PCI and PNF Scores and Teaching Activities

In the following section, the comparison of the classroom environment and a "typical" lesson for each of the five teachers with their PCI and PNR scores is presented. Description of the classroom environment and "typical" lesson includes common instructional activities and teacher-student interchanges witnessed, seating and room arrangement, teacher movement and student-reported activities. At the end of this section, results of the PNF completed by the researcher, based upon observed and student-reported data, will be compared to the principal's PNF and the teacher's self-reported PCI score.

Betty

Betty taught two sections of 11th grade College Prep and one of 12th grade Honors English. Her PCI score was 58, the lowest score recorded and one which indicates a low level of teacher control. Her PNR score, however, was 65, suggesting a perception of an extremely high level of control. As observed, most lessons were lectures from which the students were expected to take notes, and the nature of student-teacher interchange tended to be direct, with call-and response and recitation of facts most common. There was no student-to-student interchanges witnessed while the teacher was in the classroom, and few students were observed in the room in between the bells. Betty did tell personal stories from her past to illustrate points, usually standing at the lectern in the middle of the classroom, with student seats arranged radially around that central point. There was

therefore little physical proximity to her students, and she did not tend to move around the classroom.

Student-reported activities confirmed a custodial pattern, with "Teacher Reading," "Questions and Answers," and "Notes" listed as the three most common commonly reported class activities. Notes, graded items and hand-outs were the most common artifacts seen in student notebooks and folders. All three strands of qualitative data would have predicted Betty's PCI score to be more on the custodial side of the continuum. However, this was not the case, as her self-reported PCI was slightly on the humanistic side of the scale.

Betty reported an aversion to having other teachers in her room and was reluctant to participate in the study, factors which may have led her to craft her responses to the PCI to appear more humanistic. On the other hand, the huge number of student pictures on the walls of her room suggests that connecting to her students beyond the academic realm was important to her. These classroom artifacts and her frequent interchanges with one or two students during class raise the question whether high-control teachers display student work and cultivate "teacher's pets" to validate perceived affective connection to all students.

Bert

Bert taught three sections of 11th grade College Prep English. Consistent with his lower score of 58 on the PCI and his PNR score of 51, Bert's lessons usually included individual seat work, during which time students had brief conversations among themselves or were silent. Seat work usually culminated in "going over" the work in lecture/discussion, during which Bert spoke more often than the students, at times telling

personal stories that illustrated a point. There were periodic student comments and questions and laughter in most of his lessons, all indirect interactions. Even though chairs were arranged in rows with the teacher desk at the back, Bert moved among three points: the back of the classroom, where he sat at his desk; the front of the class at the podium, where he addressed the students; and the center of the room at the overhead, where he shared transparencies. Although none of his students reported seeing him write while they wrote, that is what he was observed doing most often when I passed his classroom.

Student-reported activities verified this impression. "Current events" was the first most commonly reported activity, with "at the bell" (ATB) and "discussion" listed second and third. Student interviews revealed that "current events" is a reference to an ATB in which students read a news story, wrote about it, then discussed it, although the researcher did witness one ATB in which students corrected a grammar overhead. Two of the three activities, "current events" and "discussion," would be considered indirect in Flander's system, with the ATB either direct or indirect, depending on which the student was thinking of when he/she responded. On the other hand, handouts, notes and graded items were the most common artifacts found in Bert's students' notebooks, all evidence of direct instruction, although journal entries were also listed by 6 of his students.

Pattie

Pattie co-taught two sections of 11th grade Tech Prep, with half of her students in the Special Education Program. Her third class was a 9th grade Honors English section which was not observed. During observations, the most prevalent activity seemed to be seat work, with both teachers circulating throughout the room to help students or keep

them on task. In September, the opening activity for both classes was journal entries, which Pattie checked for completion. By October, journal warm-ups had been replaced by vocabulary drills in which students were asked to define vocabulary words and create sentences using them. There were frequent episodes of back-talk while the class completed their tasks, which might explain high-control behavior. For example, when Pattie asked one boy to get to work, he replied, "How can I get done if I don't know what I'm doing?" to which she replied, "Ask for help." He then said, "How can I ask you, you're always running around!" Conversations between students were frequent when one of the two teachers was not nearby. At the beginning of the year, students were seated at tables arranged in a "U" shape, but by October the tables were lined up facing the front of the room. In January the "U" shape was reprised once again.

Consistent with her higher PCI control score of 71, most of the observed and reported activities and student artifacts were high-control, with very little evidence of student control or choice in any area. The nature of teacher-student interaction, while individualized, was also primarily teacher-directed, with re-directing and correcting students most often witnessed. Of all the classes observed, Pat's students often lacked supplies like pencils and paper, and engaged in constant requests for help and clarification, with off-task behavior that decreased with physical proximity of the teacher. Her PNR score of 41, however, is more humanistic than observations would suggest.

Joe

Joe taught two sections of 11th grade Honors and one of 12th grade Advanced Placement English. Joe's PCI score was 58, one of the three least custodial scores among the five teachers, and his PNR score was 68, highly humanistic. His classroom lessons

included both lecture and discussion, and there were some examples of student-generated questions and comments, which are indirect interactions. His lectures were punctuated by open-ended questions, such as the opening of a lecture on *Hamlet* in which he asked students to evaluate whether Hamlet was weak-minded and then listened to various opinions before he began his lecture. Students initiated conversations as often as the teacher. Joe's room was long and narrow, with student seats facing the side of the room so that no seat was more than 4 desks away from his podium, and Joe moved around the perimeter of the room frequently. At points during the year seats were arranged in sets of four, but by the end the original seating arrangement was reprised.

Joe also seemed to cede some control of daily activities and writing to the students while still holding them accountable for completion of the work. For example, students had to write 60 journal entries for the semester, but there were a wide range of prompts from which the students could choose, mostly having to do with personal experiences and thoughts, and which Joe graded for completion. Joe was also the only teacher observed making explicit reference to writing strategies and goals during the classes in which he discussed the rationale for grading essays. During that discussion he mentioned that "the five-paragraph essay is not the be-all and end-all" in writing, implying uses of writing beyond evaluation.

While very little writing was witnessed in Joe's classes, students reported that reading and responding to readings in writing was a common activity, as was discussion. Student artifacts included class notes in 6 cases of the 8 students whose artifacts were examined, and 15 "other" artifacts, including numerous examples of student writing. In Joe's case the PCI score of 58 and his PNR score of 10 were in agreement with the

observed and reported evidence concerning his classroom practices and behaviors, which was partly indirect and student-centered.

Steve

Steve taught one section of 11th grade College Prep, with three IEP students. His other two classes, Yearbook and Newspaper, were not observed. Of all the teachers in the study, Steve spoke the least during classes and there were often long periods of time during his lessons when there was no dialogue of any sort, as students worked independently and silently on projects. Much of his interaction with students occurred via a Wiki space, which students accessed during several visits, and which Steve allowed me to access as well. On the site were writing prompts and assignments, along with due dates and directions for completion of assessments. When he did whole class instruction, he stood at the front of the classroom, which was long and narrow.

During lectures, students furthest away from Steve were witnessed engaging in horse-play for several minutes before they were redirected. Steve only lectured for a brief period of time during my visitations, however, usually moving around the room and interacting individually with students as the need arose.

Students reported note-taking as the most common activity, with 7 other activities listed as "most common." Student artifacts included notes and vocabulary definitions and 9 other items of various sorts, including student writing, poems and pictures. All three strands, the observed lesson, student artifacts and short student interviews, supported his relatively low control PCI scores of 61 and his PNR score of 9.

Interpretation of Data

There were areas of commonality as well as distinct differences in the instructional activities and teacher behaviors witnessed during the 32 scheduled observations and other informal visits to the classrooms. Two of the five teachers, Betty and Pattie, whose PNR scores were the most custodial, tended to use transmissional strategies for instruction: lecture, notes, and worksheets, while the other three sometimes used reflective discussions, student-centered projects and activities like debates and guided discourse.

Based upon the writing samples and information provided by students and teachers, the same three were also more likely to allow some choice in writing, to ask opinions via writing, and to grade writing for completion rather than for form and content. The literature suggests that all three are effective uses of writing to reduce student writing apprehension (Rose, 1995; Pajares, 2003; Bandura, 1997). Betty, the teacher who was observed primarily lecturing, also gave students the opportunity to write reactions and opinions according to their reports. Two of the five teachers, Joe and Steve, utilized computers in discussion and Wiki boards, while three did not. None of the teachers utilized portfolios for assessment, a practice that Bert reported had been used at one time, but was no longer.

With two exceptions, both the PCI and the PNR form ranked the five teachers in an order consistent with their behaviors. Betty's PCI results were not congruent with her observed and reported behaviors, while the principal's ranking of Pattie and Bert seemed inverted. The PCI, then, was fairly accurate in predicting trends in individual instructional activities and in the nature of teacher-student interaction among all five

teachers, as well as delineating differences between teacher behaviors. Based upon the PCI and principal's PNF, observations and student reports, the researcher attempted to rank the five teachers on the PNF. Table 6 represents the researcher's perception of control ideology, based upon observed and reported data. Principal's PNF and teacher's PCI scores are presented in parenthesis and brackets after the researcher's scoring.

Table 6: *Researcher's PNR with Principal's PNF and PCI Scores*

Custodian			Humanistic	
Betty	Pattie	Bert	Joe	Steve
59 (65) [58]	45 (51) [71]	28 (41) [58]	21 (10) [58]	21 (9) [61]

Finally, in order to gauge whether a collective set of PCI scores might illuminate a school-wide culture, the researcher asked five English teachers at his own high school to complete the PCI. The average age of this sample was younger, and the school in question was both larger and more ethnically diverse, with approximately 15% of the student population non-Caucasian. In addition to these differences, research for a previous study showed that all five teachers at this school utilized portfolios in the classroom as part of their assessment, all of them listed some student-centered activities in their lesson plans, and all had taken at least one class in writing instruction. Three of the five teachers scored 50, while one scored 58 and the other 42, indicating some difference in the mean and range of scores in this high school compared to the high school in the study, whose teachers did not utilize portfolios or appear to utilize many student-centered activities.

The PCI, then, is a psychometric which appears to have accurately predicted the largely custodial behaviors in this sample of teachers, although there were some differences in the style and content of their instructional activities. The second part of the question, then, is to determine if the PCI is associated with a change in student writing apprehension, based upon a change in WAS scores. The following section will therefore first examine if there was a significant change in WAS between September and January among the students who completed both applications of the questionnaire.

WAS Scores, Round One

The first thing the data revealed was that the population of the high school was already sorted by a scheduling mechanism in which non-academic students were more likely to be in English during the spring and college-bound students in Honors English and College Prep sections in the fall. Despite the relatively homogenous nature of the sample, there were 78 students, approximately 15% of the surveyed population, who scored below 70 on the initial WAS, a score which indicates moderate to high writing apprehension. This supports the idea that writing apprehension is relatively common even among college-bound students (Walsh, 1986; Daly, 2001).

Mean WAS scores for each class were calculated using the SAS program, and the initial WAS scores by class showed some variation in means. The mid-point of the WAS is 78, which indicates a neutral attitude towards writing. Higher scores indicate lower apprehension, while scores below 78 indicate more apprehension. Eighteen of the 25 classes had WAS means which indicated a neutral to slightly low writing apprehension. The 9th grade Honors sections and the 12th grade AP section had means indicating very low writing apprehension, while 2 sections of 11th grade "Tech Prep" and two sections of

9th grade with IEP students had means indicating higher apprehension. In general, the scores were higher than the midpoint of the WAS, indicating overall neutral or low writing apprehension.

This led to a comparison of grade and course levels to see if there was any pattern to higher or lower scores. Table 7 displays the results of the WAS means for the first round of the questionnaire. In general, WAS scores aligned with the degree of difficulty of course levels, with co-taught classes exhibiting greatest writing apprehension, College Prep classes lower writing apprehension, and Honors and AP classes showing the lowest writing apprehension.

Table 7: *WAS Class Average Scores, Round One*

Grade/level	Section# /WAS		Section#/WAS		Section#/WAS		AVERAGE
9 CP	2.3	82	2.7	82			**82**
9 CP*	2.1	80	2.2	76			**78**
9 Honors	1.1	100	1.2	87	1.3	94	**95**
10 CP	6.3	82	6.4	81			**82**
10 Honors	5.1	87	5.2	87	5.3	88	**87**
11 Tech Prep*	2.2	68	2.3	79			**73**
11 CP	1.1	82	1.4	84	1.6	87	**84**
11 Honors	6.1	85	6.2	85			**85**
12 CP	2.2	81	2.3	82	2.6	84	**83**
12 Honors	1.1	87					**87**
12 AP	4.1	88					**88**

*IEP students, co-teachers

Results of the Second Application of WAS

The second administration of the WAS occurred in January, after thirteen weeks of instruction over four months of the 2009 school year. A repeated measure t-test found a statistically significant (pr>.03) reduction in WAS scores, which suggests *increased* apprehension over the entire sample of 405 students of 2.14 points. Pr values of .03 indicate that the measurement of level of apprehension was valid at the 97% confidence level, meaning that the change in apprehension is not a statistical fluke. Tables 8 and 9r display the summary of the pre-post analysis of data.

Table 8: *WAS Means, Deviations and Ranges, September/January*

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
Score 1	521	84.411	16.611	27.000	130.000
Score 2	460	82.448	18.017	24.000	128.000

Table 9: *Change in WAS and Confidence Level of Statistics*

T-Tests			
Difference	DF	T Value	Pr > |t|
Score1 – Score2	404	2.14	0.0331

A univariate test of time effects was conducted for each teacher. This test would show if any teacher's classes became more or less apprehensive compared to the total population. Results of the test are displayed in Table 10.

Table 10: *Change in WAS Scores Per Teacher*

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
time*teacher	7	1713.08074	244.72582	0.98	0.4485

Despite the apparent differences in teacher behaviors as revealed in both observations and short student interviews, there was no differential effect on WAS scores for individual teachers or classes, since Pr values did not meet the .05 value that indicates a 95% confidence level. In fact, there was a uniform increase in student writing apprehension in this sample population. In an attempt to examine other factors which might have influenced writing apprehension, the data set was examined to see if grade level, gender relationships between teachers and students, or course level such as College Prep, Honors, or Tech Prep had an impact on WAS scores for those selected sub-populations. Although some individual teachers' classes showed increases or decreases in WAS means, they did not meet the Pr<.05 criteria which would indicate statistical significance.

A second univariate test of time effects was conducted. This analysis of gender, level or year of course revealed that there was no differential effect due to year of schooling, or to teacher and student gender, nor were there any statistically significant difference in the change in WAS scores for Honors, College Prep or Tech Prep sections, since none of the sub-populations met the 95% confidence level represented by a Pr value smaller than .05. Although Table 7 shows a numeric difference in WAS means for different levels, this difference was not statistically significant according to the Pr values. Table 11 shows the results of the second round of univariate tests.

Table 11: *Univariate Tests of Hypothesis for Time Effect for Gender, Type of Class,*

   or Year of Schooling

Univariate Tests of Hypotheses for Within Subject Effects					
Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
time*honors	3	43.89593	14.63198	0.06	0.9805
time*CP	3	330.50671	110.16890	0.49	0.6918
time*grade	3	254.88967	84.96322	0.36	0.7812
time*teacher*gender	7	442.66379	63.23768	0.25	0.9713

Analysis of Changes in WAS Relative to Teacher PCI Scores

   The first objective of the study was to determine if the PCI was a reproducible psychometric of teacher behavior which had a relationship to student writing apprehension, defined as a change in WAS scores. Since differences in WAS could not be calculated until the second application of the survey in January, the researcher concentrated on recording differences among teacher behaviors, specifically the instructional activities chosen by the teacher in the classroom, and the nature of teacher-student interactions. Ironically, although there were differences in both PCI scores and teacher behaviors as well as the statistically significant change in WAS scores for the overall sample, there was no evidence of an individual teacher effect, and therefore those changes could not be correlated to either observed or reported differences in teacher behaviors or to individual teachers' PCI scores.

   The increase in writing apprehension among students in this study is consistent with overall PCI scores which are more similar than dissimilar, as the resultant teacher behaviors were more similar than different in two significant ways. First, there were few examples of writing instruction or teacher modeling of writing observed or reported, and

teaching activities tended to be transmissional and teacher-centered. According to social cognitive theory, both of these factors run counter to an increase in self-efficacy, which in turn is related to reduction in writing apprehension. The increase in apprehension is also consistent with the fact that all five teachers relied primarily on direct interactions with students during classes and seldom provided affective support, both psychological conditions also identified as increasing self-efficacy and reducing writing apprehension. There was a relationship, then, between the PCI scores of the teachers and changes in WAS, in that the PCI scores were largely custodial in nature and the WAS showed increased student writing apprehension, as the literature predicts (Daly & Miller, 1975; Rose, 1995; Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2003).

The next section of the chapter is devoted to the final objective of the study, which is to determine what other factors besides modeling and affective support might have an impact on student writing apprehension. Writing apprehension was identified in Chapter 2 with student willingness to write, and therefore, in order to determine what these other factors might be, 32 students were asked to write about what would make them more or less likely to write. Three students were also interviewed at greater length with respect to the same question. The following are the results of the short and long student interviews. Spelling errors in the first part are those of the student writers themselves, and where needed, words have been added or spelled correctly in brackets to delineate any editorial changes made by the researcher.

<center>**Summary of Short Student Interviews**</center>

Introduction

      Three questions were posed at the beginning of the study, the last of which concerned factors might reduce writing apprehension according to student reports. Writing apprehension as measured by the WAS has been identified in the literature as an antecedent psychological condition which predicts the likelihood that students will be willing to produce text. In short student interviews, therefore, thirty-two students were asked to write about which factors made them more or less likely to write as an indirect measure of factors which might reduce writing apprehension.

      Cooperating students nearly always sought clarification of the question, such as asking what the researcher wanted, in which case they were told to write whatever occurred to them, and that there were no right or wrong answers. The major themes which emerged from these short pieces support the theoretical predictions of factors that make student writing more likely, and include some student control of writing topics, teachers who value student opinions and allow freedom in the composing process, a supportive and comfortable environment, and the use of writing as a means of communication among class members. The following section will quote several different students who made the same point to illustrate common themes, each followed by the student's numeric order in the data base.

Reported Factors Which Make Students More Likely to Write

      First, most students assumed that "writing" meant writing that was requested by a teacher, although no such limitation was placed on their response, and their questions were answered in a way that encouraged them to include all writing in their answer. The

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most commonly reported factor that made them more likely to write was having freedom to choose a topic or being given a topic which the student liked or enjoyed, and about which the student already had a firm knowledge base. Of the 32 interviews recorded, 27 of the students listed an interesting topic as the first determinant influencing the likelihood that they would write.

For example, one student wrote "I like it when we have more freedom in picking our own topic. When we're forced to write about a specific thing I feel restricted, censored" (Student 27). Another said "I like writing about things I can relate to. For instance, I live and work on a farm, so writing about farming, working, or animals would give me plenty to write about. I also like writing about serious events like the Great Depression because it informs me about the lifestyle my grandparents had and what they went through" (Student 29).

A second theme centered around the purpose of writing, in this case, writing to think and express emotions. For example, one student wrote that "My teacher like(s) to make us write about important things. For instance, he sometimes gives us journals to write and the journals are about what we think. This is why I like to write in this class. He allows us to express our feelings and opinions which is what all teachers should do" (Student 7). Another stated that "my favorite writing assignments are free-writes just because I can write about whatever I am thinking about and/or feeling" (Student 1).

Students identified environmental factors as making writing more likely. One student said that such factors were important in setting a mood conducive to writing, citing "a comfortable environment: warm temperatures and cushioned seats" as important (Student 10). One student summed up the three related concepts of topic, teacher attitude

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and environment when she wrote that "a good topic, a teacher that allows you to think freely, and a nice quiet environment to me are key in developing a good writing assignment" (Student 16).

The importance of using writing to communicate to one another in the classroom, whether it was teacher to student or among students themselves, was also reported. One student wrote that "I believe [the teacher] enjoys reading about how others feel about certain situations" (Student 5). A second said that writing was most effective when students were asked by teachers to write about "topics that are relevant to both our minds, so to speak," a statement which implies teacher as audience rather than as evaluator (Student 21). Another wrote that she enjoyed when "my writings were shared with my peers as well as theirs' shared with myself" (Student 11).

Reported Factors Which Discourage Writing

One student mentioned that a lack of structure or vague expectations made it more difficult to complete assignments. He wrote, "What would make me less likely to write would be if there is no structure. Although I like journaling, it is better when the writing has a neat, structural body" (Student 19). Another said, "I don't like when writing assignments are too vague," and went on to say that there was a time when she disliked handing work in to the teacher because she was insecure about her writing skills (Student 27). Confidence was a major factor for this student, who went on to say, "I also believe that the reason why I was embarrassed to hand in my work because I always had bad grammar and spelling…. I felt in made me look stupid because it was something I struggled with. Even today, I make 'silly' mistakes" (Student 27).

The impact of negative teacher feedback on student willingness to write was another thread in the responses. One student wrote that she preferred "not really writing about right or wrong but having the teacher simply revise my writings." Another said that "when a teacher will say 'No, you can't use that' my initial response is 'too bad I'm not changing it.' But when a teacher says 'Let's try to put your idea in different words' it's helpful and makes me want to experiment with different things" (Student 26). A third mentioned specifically that she became resistant to writing when "the teacher put a lot of pressure on the student" or "threatened to fail" them (Student 22). Finally, students mentioned environmental and emotional factors which inhibited writing. One said, "I cannot write when stressed or tired," (Student 26) while another said she couldn't write "when there was a lot of commotion" (Student 25).

One student seemed initially reluctant to write until she discovered that she could write as much as she liked and in any form that she pleased. She then worked through her lunch to produce this written piece, which underscores the importance of writing which fulfills a personal and emotional need, as opposed to writing produced to transmit information or to be evaluated by the teacher:

"Asking about writing is like asking what the meaning of life is. You will never get a straight answer because it is different for every person. For some people, writing is a release. They write poetry that touches the soul, or lyrics that people can relate to. For others, writing is just a hobby; that is, something to do in their spare time. If they weren't able to write, they would just shrug it off and go on with their lives.

"Then there are the people like myself. Writing is our escape to build walls around the parts of our hearts no one is able to see. We create our own world, our own

characters, our own plots and problems and solutions. Sometimes, creating our own little worlds is what keeps us from going insane. On most occasions, our created worlds are better than the reality we face every day.

"On the opposite side of the spectrum, there are the people that prefer informative writing over creative writing. As I am not one of this group, I am unable to provide much insight expect for what I have observed. Informative writers value logic and knowledge above all else. They perform tests and experiments before forming a thesis and writing a paper. That, unfortunately, is all I am able to give you" (Student 32).

Both the positive and the negative themes which emerged from these short written pieces, then, agree with the literature that student control of writing topics, validation of student opinions, freedom in the composing process, positive environmental factors, and a variety in the types and uses of writing are likely to make writing less disagreeable to students. However, few of these instructional elements were observed by the researcher or reported by students as a routine or significant part of the classes observed in this study.

Conclusions, Short Student Interview Data

In the first part of the chapter, teachers' self-reported PCI scores and the principal's PNR proved useful in identifying the tendency for teachers to utilize custodial behaviors and direct interactions with students, although there were two instances, Betty's PCI and Bert's PNR, where the two matrices did not agree with observed and reported data. The second part of the chapter dealt with changes in student writing apprehension, which showed a significant increase over the course of the semester for all classes. Although differences in teacher behavior had no measurable impact on changes

in WAS means, many individual students reported that teacher behaviors did influence their willingness to write, whether it was allowing some student choice in writing, providing feedback to help students improve writing, or providing a congenial and supportive environment in which to write. These student comments mirror closely the factors identified in Chapter 2, validating the theoretical basis for the study. The increase in apprehension in this sample as measured by changes in the WAS is congruent with the relative paucity of these teacher behaviors in the English classes observed in this high school.

The final thread of data are the results of longer interviews with three students who exhibited a change of greater than 20 points in WAS scores, in either direction, from September of 2009 to January, 2010. Nine students in 11th and 12th grade who had signed permission forms exhibited such a change. Of these, seven had scores indicating a lower level of apprehension, and two showed an increase in apprehension. Both students with increased apprehension declined the interview. Of the remaining seven students, one declined, one moved from the district, and two students were unable to schedule due to academic or extra-curricular demands. The three students, two males from Joe's class and one female from Betty's, met with the researcher immediately following school in the school library conference room, and interviews were taped. Interviews were approximately twenty minutes long, and complete transcripts of those interviews can be seen in Appendix E.

Results of Long Student Interviews

Teacher behaviors as reported by students and observed by the researcher tended to follow a pattern of transmissional and teacher-centered activities the majority of the

time, while written student comments about what might make writing more likely for them were also fairly consistent, with "choice of topic" ranked first in frequency, 27 out of 32 times. The three student interviews, in contrast, show more variation then they do uniformity with respect to some of the same questions. For factors such as importance of topic, teacher behavior, or types of writing used in the classroom, two out of three interviewees were in agreement with one another. However, seldom were the same two in agreement from one factor to the next, indicating a complex set of opinions between just three students about three questions.

One similarity among the three students who consented to the long interview was that they all found some utility in the act of writing, although each of them reported very different value in that act. Bob reported that "writing's not really my best thing. I don't really like that much, but … I do it." He went on to explain that "mainly I'd try to get the work done if it has to be done." This student characterized himself as task-oriented, a "fast writer," and the apparent utility of writing to him was the successful completion of the assignment. For Aaron, writing's value lies in "opening doors in my mind, looking at things in different ways and just seeing them from a different angle." Angie said that the act of writing had value as a way of communicating and of expressing creativity. She stated that "I used to be like the shyest person on the planet … but you know I write a lot more and I think that's what's bringing my personality out because I put my personality in my stories and I can express it to people."

Two students thought that teacher behavior had little or no impact on their attitude towards writing. When asked if there were certain types of teachers for whom he might be more or less inclined to write, Bob stated, "I might've did that when I was younger,

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but I think once you hit high school it's a little[more] mature than that. Like I'd say grade level kids might do that … [but] not me." When asked if there were anything teachers might do that would hamper her desire to write, Angie said "Probably not, 'cause I love to write. There's … nothing about it that I don't like … so I don't think I'd be discouraged in any way." Aaron, however, thought that "things not to do for a teacher is just say the prompt and sit down" but that he preferred when teachers ask [students] what their thought train is" and share "their own personal input." He added that "what they think or maybe what they would do in a situation" might help students look at things from a "different angle."

Two students, Bob and Aaron, thought topic choice was important, while Angie did not. Bob said that "when you get to pick your topic and you actually like it and it interests you then you're going to write a better paper." Aaron said that "if I'm writing about just a sport or something that happened in the world, I'll write about the facts and I don't really put a lot into that. But if you're writing about my religion and you're questioning the fact, I'll probably try and write a lot better than that 'cause it means something personally to me."

On the other hand, all writing was a chance for Angie to practice her technique, so she reported no preference for or aversion to any particular topic, saying that "I actually use my creativity in that too, kind of like change up the words and stuff so it sounds like me instead of just like some computer doing the report." Angie also reported that the kind of writing she was asked to do had little impact on her attitude towards writing. "[T]here's not [a] particular writing that I wouldn't do, I kind of do all writing." Aaron, however, reported that he preferred "first-person writing" or "persuasive writing …

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because that's where I feel strongest." Bob said that he would rather write "a story or … an essay, not so much poems."

Finally, only Aaron was keenly aware of a change in his attitude and was not surprised to hear that his WAS scores had changed. He said that "in the beginning I was neutral with it. I mean, it was just schoolwork … it just didn't flow. Now when I write I can look at what I have to write and put down my thoughts. It just comes out of the pencil, I don't have to stop." This change may have been related to the fact that Aaron was also the only student who reported that a teacher's attitude made a significant difference in how a student might react to writing in the classroom, or to the fact that Joe, who employed some humanistic activities in his lessons, was his teacher.

Aaron said, "I think you can tell when teacher doesn't feel writing is important. Like I said, if they just go back to their desk, sit down, they don't have an interest in it. And when they are grading your paper, they give you lots of good feedback, ways you can improve, they probably have a good experience with it, but if they don't like writing, they just say, 'Oh, you spelled this wrong, maybe put a little more into it,' they don't go into depth what you can put into it, how you can make it better. If you have a teacher that cares you are going to put more into the writing. They may grade you harder because they know you can do more … they pull that from you."

Joe was the only teacher who made explicit references to writing instruction in his class, telling his students that "the five-paragraph essay is not the be-all and end-all" of writing, and suggesting that writing had other values beyond good grades. These statements are examples of social persuasion, one of the four tenets of self-efficacy which will be explored more thoroughly in Chapter 5. Joe was also observed engaging in some

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student-centered and indirect behaviors, and two of the three interviewees were Joe's students, suggesting that while teacher behavior may not be associated with a statistically significant improvement in overall student attitude towards writing, it may have dramatic effects on individual students.

The fact that the three students had such different perceptions of the impact of teacher activities and behaviors might help illuminate how mean scores could decline while individual scores increased. Bob reported that teacher attitude or personality had little impact on his feelings about writing, and so a student like Bob might not respond as readily to modeling or affect support as a motivation to write compared to clear statements about how to get the writing job finished, an example of an individualized approach to student motivation by the teacher. Meanwhile, Angie also reported that teacher behavior made little difference to her, and no teacher statements would be needed for her to finish the writing task willingly. An interesting extension of this is that, even though Angie's teacher, Betty, was observed to utilize mostly custodial behaviors, such behaviors would have had little impact upon Angie, who would write "no matter what." Aaron stated that he was sensitive to both a teacher's unstated attitude, revealed by the teacher's approach to student writing pieces, and a teacher's words, and so a student like Aaron might respond best to both. If this case holds across larger numbers of students, it is possible that absent an individualized approach to writing, any combination of word and deed by the teacher might have no effect or an adverse or positive effect on an individual student's attitude towards writing, depending on that student's individual thoughts and feelings. There were few signs that such diagnostic and personalized instruction was a significant element in the lessons the researcher observed. This fact,

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combined with the observed and reported custodial teacher behaviors, is again consistent with the increase in writing apprehension among the 404 students in this study as evidenced by changes in the WAS scores.

Conclusion

In the initial round of student surveys, there was variation among WAS scores, with higher apprehension among the non-academic tracks and lower apprehension for Honors and most College Prep courses, a result that agrees with theoretical predictions. In the four months between the first and last application of the WAS, the researcher spent five full days observing classes, and visited over lunch hours or before or after school another ten times to collect permission forms or to speak to individual teachers or the department head or principal. The focus of the observations was to determine how instruction differed from one classroom to another, and there were observable differences in teaching styles among the five teachers. For example, Betty tended to favor a lecture format for disseminating information, Steve provided on-line tutorials instead, while Pat tended to use worksheets for the same purpose.

When observations were over and the second round of the WAS had been completed, the overall student sample showed a statistically significant increase in writing apprehension as measured by the WAS. At the same time, the data did not support the idea that there was any individual teacher effect despite differences in observed teacher behavior. This finding led the researcher to run an analysis of the data set to see if there were any other factors, such as gender, grade or tracking level, which may have influenced writing apprehension.

Because the focus of the qualitative data-gathering was to detect differences, initial attempts to analyze the qualitative data set were unsatisfactory. It was only when the first approach was abandoned and similarities among all five teachers made the focal point that the quantitative and qualitative data sets began to yield sensible results. There was a consistent lack of modeling and affective support during observed lessons for all five teachers, a paucity of student choice about writing topics, as well as limited uses of writing in the classroom. Despite small differences among the Willower PCI scores of all five teachers, they all scored as moderately custodial, and the fact that the observed and reported activities among those teachers were generally direct and transmissional rather than student-centered is consistent with those scores.

Students reported that choice of writing types and topics was the single most important classroom element that would reduce apprehension. Students also said that other parameters like teacher attitude and uses of writing in the classroom and a supportive environment in which to work were all desirable. None of these elements were witnessed or reported in this study. Finally, three longer interviews of students who showed large changes in WAS scores over the course of the semester revealed that the student-perceived elements of an appropriate approach to writing were different, as was the perceived utility of the writing act, for each of the three. All three, however, did report a perceived utility to the act of writing, an element the literature suggests is vital to the likelihood of reducing writing apprehension.

Some things which were not witnessed during most of the observations are worthy of note here. First, there was no teacher modeling of writing observed or reported for any of the five teachers, and very little student writing and no writing instruction was

observed during the thirty or so classes visited. On several occasions students worked on research papers or class assignments, but the teachers did not write along with them or interact with their writing during class. In one instance, Betty asked her students to write on the question, "Why we should be grateful for veterans?" prefacing the assignment with the comment that "we have so much to do, and administration springs *this* on me." While the researcher and students wrote, Betty tidied up her room and checked something on the computer. In another class, Steve's students worked on an assignment, and while they did so he said that there were "14 pages of instructions" on how to complete the assignment they were working on, and that such support was needed because of the quality of the prior writing assignment. While that level of instruction might be considered desirable by some standards, it is a highly teacher-centric strategy and is therefore custodial in nature.

Modeling, affective support, and student control of topic were seldom witnessed, and so the increase in writing apprehension is not surprising. In more than one conversation with the principal and department head, the fact that teachers seemed resistant to student-centered activities and lessons came up, and the department head suggested that grammar exercises and other more traditional English activities were so ingrained in the culture of the school that teachers still used them, even though the benefits of the activities were questionable. Only once did the researcher hear a teacher speak about writing instruction, although they all mentioned writing assignments, as if the two terms were synonymous. Composition theory, however, presents a different outlook on the terms, one which might help administrators articulate possible methods of improving writing instruction in their schools and which might also provide a tool for

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reflective practices for teacher development. In addition, social cognitive theory, upon which the importance of modeling and affective support are based, goes further in describing other factors which have an impact on self-efficacy, which in turn has been shown to reduce writing apprehension.

Chapter 5 will therefore first look at the four factors associated with self-efficacy and compare them to data presented in this chapter. Secondly, the writing models of Britton (1970) and Flowers (1979) will be presented and observed writing activities will be analyzed based up those models. The third section of Chapter 5 will examine the difficulties and limitations of this study, including a discussion of improvements which could be made to the study design. Finally, Chapter 5 will examine the relationship of the study to existing literature and point to new areas of research suggested by its results.

CHAPTER 5

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher behaviors and attitudes which may have an impact upon student writing apprehension as measured by the changes in Daly/Miller Writing Apprehension Survey (WAS), and to evaluate the usefulness of Willower's teacher Pupil Control Ideology survey (PCI) in predicting both the classroom behaviors of teachers and any possible changes in the WAS scores of students. Classroom behaviors such as teacher modeling of writing, the kinds and uses of writing in the classroom, the degree of teacher control exercised in the classroom, and the direct or indirect nature of teacher-student interactions have all been identified as possible factors having an impact on student attitudes towards writing (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2003; Rose, 1995).

Specifically, Chapter 1 established the need for competent writing instruction in public high schools and outlined the relationship among writing apprehension and other academic measures, such as standardized tests, grade-point average, and SAT scores (Walsh, 1986; Daly & Miller, 1975). Chapter 2 defined the relationship between writing apprehension and student resistance to writing, and supported the need for transmissional and student-centered writing instruction (Rose, 1995; Pajares, 2003). Chapter 2 went on to discuss how such instruction improves student self-efficacy, which is strongly correlated with reduced writing apprehension (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2003). Finally, Chapter 2 outlined personal and institutional factors which work against the use of student-centered and reflective practices in the classroom (Coe, et al., 2002).

The results of the study, presented in Chapter 4, showed that Willower's PCI was a useful psychometric for predicting the likelihood of humanistic or custodial behaviors by teachers, although there were some problems with the measurement, mostly having to do with the fact that it was a self-reporting instrument. These shortcomings will be examined in more depth in this chapter. The results also revealed that systematic writing instruction was not a common or significant element in the curriculum of the high school in this study, according to observed and student-reported data. Data also indicated that the nature of teacher behaviors tended towards the custodial end of the spectrum, and teacher-student interaction tended to be direct and teacher-centered (Willower et al., 1967; Flanders, 1961). Finally, student writing apprehension increased over the sampled population, with no differential effects found among the 25 classes studied, a result that is consistent with overall custodial behavior and direct teacher-student interactions (Pajares, 2003).

In the first section of Chapter 5, the concept of self-efficacy will be utilized as a critical lens through which to examine changes in student writing apprehension as they relate to teacher behaviors. In addition, a discussion of the shortcomings or problems in methodology of the study will be presented. Finally, areas of further interest and study will also be identified. The second portion of the chapter will offer a brief presentation of composition theory in order to present a model for representing the types, uses and impacts of writing observed and reported in this study. The final section will examine how the study compares with current literature on writing apprehension, and areas for further study, as well as possible uses of the study to inform training and screening of teachers.

Results of WAS

Changes in WAS Means

As stated in Chapter 4, the student sample surveyed for this study was comprised mostly of students who had signed up for College Prep or Honors English. This population was screened by both English teachers, who had to sign off on their course selection, and the guidance department, which actually designed their respective schedules. Despite this tracking mechanism which concentrated college-bound students in the fall semester, 78 of the 506 students scored below 70 on the first application of the WAS, indicating moderate to high apprehension concerning writing. Approximately 100 students were absent or opted out of the study during the first round of the WAS, and one might suppose that an equally large percentage of them was also apprehensive about their writing skills. Finally, as apprehension is generally greater for those not college-bound, one might further expect an even larger number of students taking English in the spring to score as moderately to highly apprehensive about writing (Walsh, 1986).

At the beginning of the study, then, a sizable minority of at least 15% of students taking English in the fall semester in this particular high school displayed moderate to high writing apprehension, a metric that has been linked to writing aversion and lower scores on virtually all standardized tests. Results of the PSSA in writing for 2008 in this high school indicated that 66% of this year's seniors scored as advanced or proficient, well below the state average of 84%, which supports this conclusion.

Daly (2001) found that students who scored as highly apprehensive exhibited poorer writing skills than those who were not apprehensive, while students who were not apprehensive sometimes produced poor writing, revealing an over-estimation of their

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writing skills. Despite individual scores which indicated moderate to high writing apprehension, initial averages for the WAS among the 25 English classes taught during fall semester ranged from 78 to a high of 93. Even though there were a significant number of students who scored as moderately or highly apprehensive, WAS means represent a population with lower-than-expected writing apprehension overall, which again supports theoretical predictions since this population had more college-bound students than the student body at large.

The second round of surveys revealed a statistically significant change (pr >.03) in WAS values among the 405 students who completed both applications of the survey, with scores dropping 2.14 points for the semester, meaning student writing apprehension as measured by means in the WAS scores increased over the course of the semester for students of all teachers, in all sections and in all grades. While many students did exhibit decreased apprehension as measured by WAS scores, roughly twice as many student scores showed increases in apprehension. In other words, twice as many students felt more apprehensive about writing after a semester of English instruction than felt less apprehensive. One could therefore argue that the data shows that twice as many students were adversely affected by their experiences in English classes than were helped, a possibility which will be examined a later in this chapter.

First, however, two other possibilities present themselves. First, the literature suggests that students with low apprehension often over-estimate their own skill in writing, so it is possible that the increase in apprehension was in part a result of students with initially low-apprehensive scores re-evaluating their own writing. This scenario could be a sign of student growth as writers, and points to a second area that warrants

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further study. Specifically, are increases in apprehension associated with the maturity and quality of writing among initially low-apprehension students? The question might be answered by examining the quality of writing samples over the course of a semester for a stratified sample of students based upon WAS scores. A second possibility is that there are developmental forces at work which make apprehension more likely as students mature and experience more demands than they did in middle school, a hypothesis that could be tested by longitudinal studies of one population or by comparing WAS scores between middle and high school buildings.

Even if both factors were found to impact student writing apprehension, however, the data still suggests that the most common modes of instruction chosen by teachers in this study failed to increase self-efficacy for the population they served. Self-efficacy beliefs are positively correlated with decreases in writing apprehension, so improving self-efficacy should theoretically improve student attitudes towards writing (Pajares, 2003). Bandura (1997) cites four factors associated with increased self-efficacy: modeling, mastery experiences, social persuasion, and psychological conditions. Modeling behaviors are those in which the teacher writes along with his or her students and also shares the results of that writing with them, and was discussed in great detail in Chapters One and Two. Mastery experiences are ones in which the actor tries a new behavior and is rewarded with some degree of success. Rewriting a paper based upon teacher comments and producing a superior second draft would be an example of a mastery experience. Social persuasion involves encouragement in a social setting through positive or negative reinforcement, so praise from teachers or encouragement from fellow students of an individual student's efforts in writing should theoretically

improve self-efficacy. Germaine to the results of this study, Bandura (1997) suggests that it is easier to reduce efficacy beliefs through negative reinforcement than it is to increase efficacy through positive reinforcement. Negative reinforcement might include negative teacher comments on assignments or low grades on a writing piece. This raises another area of interest: if the use of positive or negative reinforcements were logged using the protocols developed for this study, would there be a preponderance of negative reinforcement reported or observed among these teachers? The two-for-one increase in writing apprehension in this study is consistent with the use of more negative reinforcement, as opposed to positive feedback and reinforcement, which was not often observed or reported. Finally, psychological conditions impact self-efficacy, and include apprehension, nervousness and fear of failure, all of which are actually measured by the WAS (Daly, 2001).

Pajares (2003) found that self-efficacy and writing apprehension are inversely correlated. The presence or absence of the four parameters associated with self-efficacy, that is, modeling, mastery experiences, social persuasion and psychological conditions, might therefore have an impact on writing apprehension. Over the course of four months in this study, no teacher or peer modeling was observed or reported; no teachers were witnessed writing along with their students; and no student reported seeing the teacher writing or sharing his or her writing with the class. There was only one activity observed in which students apparently shared their writings, as part of a lesson on Chaucer in Joe's classroom. Peer modeling of writing, therefore, was also seldom witnessed.

In writing, mastery experiences refer to when a student tries to learn a new skill set or acquire new knowledge. Mastery experiences in writing therefore imply feedback

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from teachers or peers about a student's attempts at learning and subsequent revision of writing pieces. The few student writing samples examined in notebooks or folders were mostly produced for assessments, and teacher comments, when they appeared, were cursory. Artifacts containing feedback from teacher to student and among students were limited, and only one student, Aaron, reported such interactions. Therefore, mastery experiences in writing were seldom witnessed or reported during the observations and short interviews. Social persuasion from teacher to student or among students was therefore apparently limited, according to observations and student reports. The focus of most observed lessons was either literary or evaluative, and often lessons and activities included both these aspects of instruction. Interactions were therefore primarily between student and text or student and teacher, not between the student and the class as a social unit.

The increase in student writing apprehension is consistent with the fact that all five teachers scored as moderately custodial according to the PCI. The range of scores among the five teachers was 13 points on a scale of 80, and there did appear to be some correlation between observed teacher behaviors and the individual teacher's PCI. Those differences, however, had no appreciable effect on average WAS scores.

It is possible that the lack of modeling, social persuasion, mastery experience and supportive psychological environment found in this study trumped any individual differences among teachers. Although the teachers had divergent teaching styles, all five teachers made limited use of the four basic tenets of self-efficacy, and therefore the effect on apprehension overall could be expected to be negative. The qualitative portion of the study, then, agrees with Rose's (1995) contention that there is seldom individualized

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support for students learning to write in many secondary schools, and that writing instruction, where it exists, is formulaic and limited in scope. These limiting factors may explain how such instruction impacts student writing apprehension

Discussions with the department head and principal revealed teacher resistance to student-centered instruction on the part of some staff members, and in the opinion of the department head, this was mostly an inertial phenomena: teachers had become so used to doing certain things like grammar instruction or worksheets that they continued to do them even though there was no data to show that these instructional strategies actually improve student aptitude and attitude. When informed that student writing apprehension had increased over the length of the study, the department head suggested that this was because students had not been consistently exposed to instruction in which they had some control and input. In other words, the culture of that particular school was still largely custodial, with only sporadic use of transactional instruction, or what educational literature refers to as constructivist activities.

In this regard, the department head's comments mirror a concept called "islands of excellence" in which comparatively few teachers utilize effective instructional strategies, while the culture at large eschews such activities. In this case, strategies which allow students to create meaning in a supportive social milieu are the basis for increases in self-efficacy, closely associated with a reduction in student writing apprehension (Bandura, 1986; Pajares, 2003). These behaviors were seen infrequently, even among the teachers who tried them. The challenge for administrators is to advocate training programs which encourage reflective practice and provide structure for those practices,

such as the National Writing Project, designed to help teachers use writing as a tool for learning as well as for evaluation.

There are models which might help explain how writing instruction in high schools affects students, both generally and in this study, and the use of such models might make it easier for administration to articulate the need for change. Also, as Pajares (2003) contends, the area of writing instruction as it relates to self-efficacy and teacher behavior is a promising one, and one for which there is a dearth of literature. In order to better define areas of future interest, it is appropriate here to include some parts of composition theory. This will provide a framework which may help to explain some of the motivations for writing and some common realities for the beginning writer. Second, the types and uses of writing observed and reported in this study will be compared with those which the literature suggests. The last part of this section will offer a model which may further clarify the results of the study, and may be useful in teacher screening and training.

Writing Models of Britton and Flowers

Writing as Self-Discovery or Reflective Practice

Results of the three longer student interviews reveal that the perceived utility of writing varies largely from one individual to the next. Joe saw writing as a necessary but not enjoyable academic reality, Aaron believed the use of writing was largely to learn more about himself and the world, while Angie saw writing as a creative exercise and a means of communication with others. While writing can be a form of communication between people, there are other, more personal reasons for writing. One such personal and introspective kind of writing is associated with self-discovery and reflection. Moffett

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& Wagner (1991) point out that writing often serves the same function as speaking in that both can be used to clarify thought to oneself. "Thinking out loud" is an apt description of one of the functions of spoken language, and the saying finds an analogy in writing.

Britton's "Expressive" Writing

James Britton (1970) categorizes this first function of writing as "expressive," meaning that the writing has value and purpose mainly to the writer, and that the purpose of writing is to "express" an inner reality to oneself and to examine how that reality may be modified to be more accurate, descriptive or useful to the writer. Here the writing is a visual reminder of a state of mind, akin to the "pretend writing" that Vygotsky (1968) witnessed in children, whose squiggles enabled them to accurately tell a story even though they had no meaning for anyone else.

Writing to oneself, then, is a form of discovery, which Foucault (1978b) says must precede announcement, meaning that a clear understanding of one's thoughts or mental constructs concerning any topic is needed before one can effectively write for or to others. Smagorinsky & Smith (1992) extends this idea in a model that represents the relationship between thought and language, whether it is written or spoken. Smith contends that thought is essentially non-verbal, and language is the means by which we give form to those thoughts. Where thought is fluid and continuous, language is the snapshot of our thoughts at any one point in time. As time progresses and our experiences accrue, the form of these "snapshots" can be expected to change as well.

Comparison of these different forms over time allows the writer to evaluate the validity and clarity of each individual and discrete version of thought related to a topic. In this way, language can modify thought, and that modification can then be expressed in

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new language that may itself be considered. This is the essence of the idea of the reflective and recursive nature of writing, constantly looping upon itself as the writer attempts to distill an understanding of the world at large or the author's own thought-world.

Flowers' "Writer-Based Writing"

Flowers (1979) offers a third way of looking at writing. She suggests that the first and most common type of writing, common among basic writers, is "writer-based writing," which has some similarities to Britton's expressive writing. Both writer-based writing and expressive writing are forms of text produced by the writer for the purpose of clarifying the writer's understanding or memory, although the first is often unintentional and the second frequently intentional. Many writers never grow beyond the writer-based stage of writing, in which the writer often assumes a narrative stance recounting a series of events in which he or she is the central character. Because the non-verbal "picture" associated with the written text is entirely idiosyncratic, because the narrative is embedded in a historic event accessible only to the writer, and because words are an incomplete and not wholly accurate representation of that "picture," writer-based prose is often difficult for the reader to follow or understand.

<div align="center">

Writing as a Form of Interpersonal Communication

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Flowers' "Reader-Based Writing"

Flower's concept of reader-based writing is linguistically more sophisticated than her idea of writer-based writing. While the goal of writer-based writing is to examine or clarify one's own thoughts, reader-based writing is designed and intended to communicate to another, for a variety of reasons. Writing for another is more complex

than writing for oneself, because it requires the writer to first distill the essential messages from the more relaxed but less thematically cogent narrative form of writer-base writing, then to understand the mind or heart of the audience, and finally to display those messages in text so that a reader can understand what is being said. What seems like reader-based writing to beginning writers is often actually expressive and "writer-based" writing, an attempt to give concrete form to their own memories, impressions or understandings. Many beginning writers never go beyond this stage, as the meaning of the writing seems clear to them. Since there is no revision if one produces only one draft, beginning writers do not produce recursive text, further limiting the utility of their writing both as a tool for self-realization and as a form of interpersonal communication.

Britton's Sub-Sets of "Reader-Based" Writing: Transactional vs. Poetic Writing

Britton, like Flowers, sees a distinction between writing for oneself and writing for others. He goes beyond Flowers to offer a useful description of writing intended for an audience other than oneself. He divides reader-based writing into two diametrically opposed categories, which he calls "transactional" writing and "poetic" writing. Poetic writing is writing for its own sake and is not intended to cause any change or result in anything other than the enjoyment or appreciation of the writing by the reader. Britton uses the extent to which the recipient of the writing plays the role of passive audience as the measure of poetic writing. The "purest" form of this type of reader-based writing is indeed poetry, in which the form and order of the words themselves and the resultant enjoyment of the audience are the intent of the author.

Transactional writing, at the other end of Britton's spectrum, is writing intended to produce a result or change in the minds of the audience, for example, writing which

changes their minds about something (persuasive writing), or writing which entertains, educates or informs them in some way. This kind of writing is transactional precisely because the text offered to the audience is considered useful or correct only when it produces the desired effect in the audience, that is to say, only when it is truly effective in educating, informing, entertaining, or persuading the reader.

 One can first imagine the expressive function of writing as a written version of Vygotsky's (1968) "inner language," which then bubbles to the surface at some point along the continuum Britton defines (see Figure 2).

Transactional   Poetic

←------------------------------------I--→
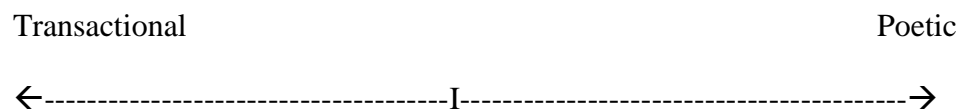
Figure 2: Transactional vs. poetic writing.

Britton qualifies this diametric paradigm by stating that writing can be a blend of the two types, so that a memo is clearly designed to inform and is thus transactional, even while it may be cleverly written to induce enjoyment in the reader. Reader-based writing, then, can be located anywhere along the continuum from poetic to transactional, depending upon the degree to which it successfully educates, informs, entertains, or persuades the reader.

Combining both Britton's and Flower's concepts of poetic and transactional writing and reader- and writer-based writing produces a quadrangular chart as in Figure 3, in which any writing sample can be positioned. The domain of thought and of Vygotsky's "inner language" lies beneath the page, and can "bubble up" anywhere in the chart, depending upon the intent of the author and the effect of the writing on an audience, whether that audience is oneself or another. Skilled practitioners of writing

have an explicit or intuitive grasp of where on this chart the written piece is located, and can readily judge the efficacy of their writing by comparing intended with actual results.
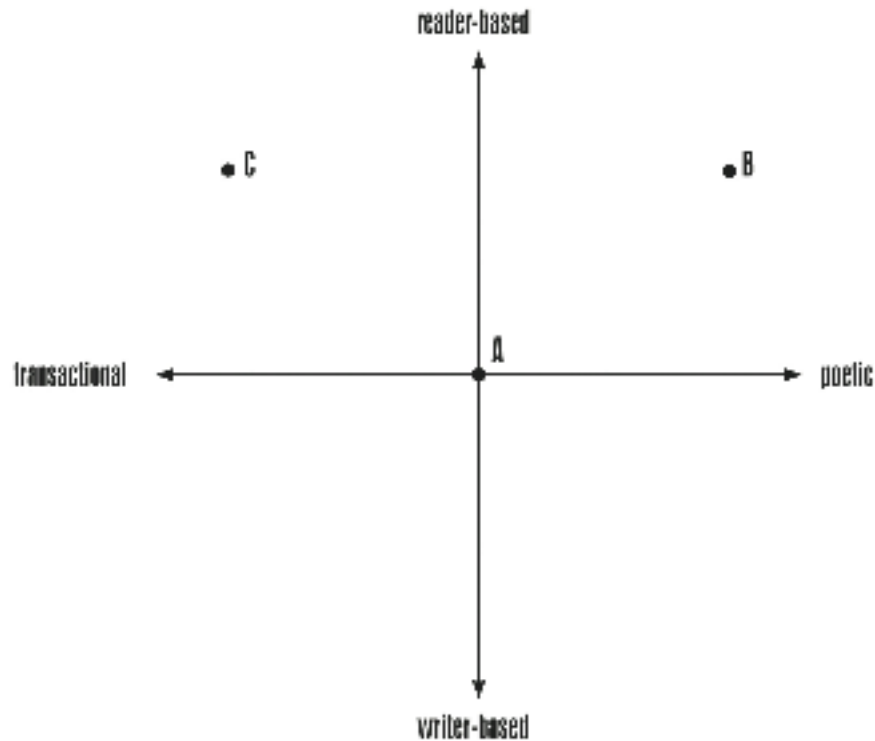
Figure 3: Types of writing.

A written piece located at the nexus of the chart, point A, would be equal parts poetic and transactional, and would be designed to clarify a thought to both the reader and the writer simultaneously. One of Shakespeare's sonnets would be located in the upper right corner, point B; a directive from a superior, in the upper left corner at point C; and the random musings of a journal entry somewhere below the center line, depending upon whether the intent of the writing is to clarify meaning to oneself (transactional) or to simply express oneself to produce an emotional response. Utilizing this model, one can imagine that writing which appears on the chart can be "moved" to another quadrant

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through revision, with each draft judged based upon the effect on the audience, whether it is oneself or another.

Making the distinction embodied in this chart explicit to a basic writer might be advantageous on a number of levels. First, it validates a student's writing, no matter what the form, since all writing has some point or effect. Second, it provides a set of expectations which can readily be transformed into standards or rubrics to judge the effectiveness of a written piece. Third, it makes explicit the relationship between various kinds of writing, enabling the writer to move the piece into different quadrants if desired. Presenting different forms of writing to basic writers can make the distinction between reader- and writer-based prose and between transactional and poetic writing more clear, and can also serve as a template for examining the health and robustness of an English curriculum. What kinds of writing, then, are most common in typical English programs, and how does this relate to the difficulties a basic writer might face in improving writing skills? An examination of the types and uses of writing as illustrated by the data generated in this study is in order here.

Types and Uses of Writing Found in Secondary School English Programs

The range of writing encompassed by Figure Two is a wider range of type and purpose than is encompassed in the rubrics and standards put forth by the state of Pennsylvania, which sees only three kinds of writing—persuasive, narrative and expository—all reader-based and transactional forms of writing, according to Figure One. State standards do not reference expressive or writer-based writing in their rubrics and tests, and thus beginning writers who write solely or largely in those forms are at a disadvantage when taking such tests. Moreover, those who are not adept at writing are

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often subjected to remediation which does not take into account the need to use expressive or writer-based writing as a starting point for improvement (Flowers, 1979). State standards and the methods used to ensure student compliance with those standards, then, are one force in secondary English instruction which is apparently at odds with current understandings of appropriate writing instruction. This seemed to be the case in this study, with research writing and literary analysis the bulk of the writing required by the five teachers in question.

The three types of writing recognized in the Pennsylvania state standards are expository, narrative and persuasive writing, all reader-based forms of writing. However, the bulk of writing used for assessment in secondary classrooms is expository, so that writing routinely done at the secondary level is an even smaller and more limited sub-set of these three available writing types (Landers, 2002). These types of writing are located primarily in the upper left-hand quadrant of Figure Three. Meanwhile, the bulk of instructional time and energy in the average high school English course is spent on literary endeavors, so that most high school curricula are defined by literary titles and attendant literary devices: explaining the symbolism of light and darkness in *Macbeth*, the use of setting in *Of Mice and Men,* or the meaning of symbols in *The Scarlet Letter,* for example.

In that sense, the kinds of writing high school students are exposed to tend towards the poetic end of Britton's continuum, or the upper right-hand quadrant, while writing tasks and assessments tend to be mostly transactional in nature and located in the upper left-hand quadrant. Instruction in writing and assigned readings in the secondary English classrooms observed in this study, then, seemed to be disarticulated from and

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perhaps antithetical to each other. There was seldom an obvious connection observed or reported between assigned readings and the writing required from these high school students except for the fact that the teacher and the school required them.

In practical terms, the kinds of writing done in class should be an extension of literary examinations if all students are to make the connection between reading and writing. If students read literary critics and then were asked to emulate them by writing critical essays about *Macbeth*, or if they were instructed to imitate the use of literary devices of the authors they read in their own writing, those activities would come closer to satisfying Atwell's (1986) definition of literacy: learning to see what authors write and to do as other authors do. However, writing activities in this high school did not appear to be articulated with literary instruction on a day-to-day basis, and this may have limited the apparent usefulness of those writing activities for apprehensive students. Such students generally require both a sensible reason for writing and a reasonable chance at successful writing before they will be willing to engage in that activity (Bandura, 1986).

Failure to provide such connections and reasons by the classroom teacher increases the chance that students will be apprehensive about the task at hand (Cook-Sather, 2002). The results of the WAS, then, are supported by this theoretical understanding of the nature and impact of writing instruction. How might instruction be modified to decrease writing apprehension? The next section will examine some factors which might theoretically reduce writing apprehension in the classroom.

Use of Expressive Writing in Writing Instruction

Whatever final form writing may take, and whatever the final use for which writing is intended, the beginnings of writing must be expressive and grounded in

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personal experience and understanding. Limiting writing to transactional writing ignores students' need to forge links between their own personal experiences and memories and the text which they produce, which is the function of expressive writing and writer-based writing. The few writing tasks observed in this study were most often transactional and reader-based in nature, eliminating the expressive use of writing as a tool for reflection and self-discovery and the poetic use of language to delight and entertain.

The expressive function of writing is especially critical for those who are reluctant or afraid to express themselves in writing because of differing cultural, ethical, or sociopolitical backgrounds or beliefs (Fox, 1990). Students who exhibit writing apprehension often do so because the implied cultural norms of academia are at variance with their own, and their own cultural norms have been judged as deficient or incorrect (Cook-Sather, 2002). Expressive writing is one way of encouraging beginning writers to examine both their own ideology and that of the institution in which they find themselves apart, and makes subsequent production of transactional or poetic writing more likely (Britton, 1970). There were a significant number of students who scored as moderately or highly apprehensive about writing in this study, which suggests a need to create a better link between student interests and the writing done in the classroom to reduce student writing apprehension. Finally, the topic and type of writing done in class was the factor students most often cited in the short interviews as making it more likely that they would write, an indirect measure of reduced apprehension.

Expressive writing, however, was little utilized according to observations, student reports, examination of student artifacts and interviews with teachers themselves, even though it is an instructional strategy that could help beginning writers. While three of the

teachers in the study did seem to incorporate some of these elements in their requirements, the remaining two were not seen to use them.

Moreover, the two teachers who did utilize Wiki spaces and other interactive Web programs as part of their instruction had three Honors sections and one College Prep section, with few students identified as needing instructional support. One of these teachers, Joe, reported that his approach to the less academically adept was far more conscribed, asking them to write things like "ten steps to degrease an engine" rather than engaging them in reflective discussions with writing as one element of the instruction.

A second teacher, Pattie, had the highest custodial score, the largest number of IEP students and utilized the most teacher-centered instructional techniques. Her younger co-teacher from the special education department emulated her interactional techniques even though her Willower score was more towards the humanistic end of the scale. Numerous references to the problematic behavior of these two sections by both teachers make it likely that the instructional techniques were an attempt to instill order in those classes, since in a 9th grade Honors section, Pattie was seen on two brief visits discussing readings and debating literary points of those readings, a very different instructional technique from those witnessed in the two observed "tech prep" sections. Her observed classes utilized limited expressive writing, mostly journal prompts early in the semester which, by October, had been replaced by custodial activities like teacher-generated vocabulary lists.

The observations of this study indicate that teacher modeling of writing was not a substantial element of writing instruction in this secondary school. Modeling here refers to teachers who exhibit the same kinds of behaviors or produce the same outcomes as

their students. Students are more likely to adopt the behaviors they see in adults whom they deem competent, especially when that behavior leads to favorable results for other students (Bandura, 1997). Failure of the teacher to exhibit those behaviors in the classroom devalues the activity in the eyes of the student. This increases the likelihood of both apprehension and resistance to those activities (Erickson, 1984).

Effects of Formal Expository Writing as Dominant Writing Activity

Formal, expository writing with teacher-generated rubrics stresses form over function and encourages the production of pseudo-text, text designed solely to satisfy a specific form and devoid of any significant substance or value to the student (Beale & Trimbur, 1991). This tends to eliminate the essential quality of immediate and interesting writing: an authentic voice expounding upon individual ideas and ideals of critical importance to the writer (Tchudi & Tsudi, 1999). This conclusion is supported by student comments listing choice of topic as the most critical factor discouraging or encouraging writing.

Discourse between student and teacher or among students was seldom observed during most observations. Whole-group instruction concerning grammar and form and complete correction of errors on a single draft seemed to be the norms for the writing done in this study. Rose (1995) contends that the most important commonality of effective classrooms in widely dissimilar schools is the existence of trust and acceptance of the student as an individual, neither of which are advanced by whole-group instruction, teacher-imposed organizational schemas and attention solely to errors in grammar, spelling and construction.

Emig (1971) contends that standard English writing curricula are often both limited and limiting, that they are not only "other-directed" but in fact "other-centered," and that the main concern of most English teachers is to have the student produce a product which can be criticized (p. 97). She suggests that the task of writing instruction should be instead to help students develop processes for writing text that begins with the imagination of the student and is then modified through a student's interaction with his or her own text and by other readers' reactions to that text. This was not witnessed in any of the observations, although students in Joe's and Steve's classes reported that they utilized Internet discussion boards and writing prompts, Bert's students reported use of current events discussion associated with short periods of writing, and Betty's students reported that they did some "opinion writing" in her classes.

Theoretical Value of Surface Errors as Diagnostic Tool

Composition theorists term errors in form as "surface errors." Rather than being undesirable, theorists believe that mistakes are where real gains in understanding and proficiency in writing begin, as the "mistakes" reveal the mind and understanding of the writer and can then be compared with any final form the writer desires (Flowers, 1979). For reluctant writers, the fear of surface errors acts as a deterrent to producing text. Beginning writers do not see surface errors as opportunities to revise and improve, as Flowers (1979) suggests, but rather as proof of a lack in skill or ability (Daly & Miller 1975; Pajares, 2003).

To the resistant writer, these errors are an indication of their own inability to craft acceptable forms of writing, since they see other, more successful students producing such text with apparent ease. Struggling writers, then, mistrust both their own

capabilities and the intentions of the teacher. They mistrust themselves because it is often the form and not the content which is being evaluated, and they may have had experienced poor success with that form over their years of schooling. They tend to mistrust the teacher to the extent that the writing is done for the teacher's benefit only and not for the benefit or growth of the writer or anyone else in the wider world (Daly & Miller, 1975). There were no reported or observed cases of students being allowed to rewrite or resubmit written assignments, which composition theory suggests is critical if beginning writers are to learn how to utilize errors as a diagnostic for improvement.

The literature suggests that focusing on the elimination of surface errors codifies the misconception that student failure to produce "correct" variants of text is a function of the student alone, rather than a result of complex interactions among students, teachers and the institution within which both teacher and students function. As Erickson (1984) writes, it is not enough to lay blame or assess causes of student failure; understanding the impacts of decisions concerning instruction and assessment should also drive teachers to reflect upon their own instructional and assessment preferences and change them when they prove to be ineffective. Willingness to critically examine classroom practices, despite being supported by the literature, was not often witnessed during observations and conversations with the teachers at this high school, although it was a reported goal of the district's administration.

Teacher Resistance Observed During Study

The department head in the school under study maintained that there had been some cultural shift away from transmissional and teacher-controlled instructional techniques in the eight years he had been there, although there were teachers who "still

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did not get it." One older teacher who was in the English department but not part of the study commented to the researcher during lunch that the department was being studied to death, and expressed resistance to the idea that reflective practices were worthwhile, deeming them an imposition by central administration with little practical use. On a blackboard in the break room, the initials "PLC," presumably an acronym for "Professional Learning Community," was seen on the board, with the comments that PLC required more "TLC" and that those who were not with PLC were against "the good of the order." All of these observations show the resistance of some established teachers to the concept of reflective teacher practices.

This discussion began with the idea that the traditional English curriculum employs limited kinds of writing, mostly expository writing assigned for grading purposes. In a similar way, individual teachers espouse values that may not advance the agenda of student growth as much as they do the preservation of order and existing power relationships between student and teacher. That is to say, teachers often choose instructional methodologies based more upon maintenance of order and existing power relationships in the classroom than they do based upon current understandings of which instructional activities are actually effective (Rose, 1995; Coe, et al., 2002).

As Willower, et al. (1973) points out, the power relationships in a public school mimic those of only two other social institutions: insane asylums and prisons. In all three, membership in the population is involuntary among those being cared for, and those in charge cannot control who is included in the population. Teachers' ideas and behaviors concerning control make a difference in student outcomes, and the quantitative portion of the study supports that conclusion. There was an overall increase in writing

apprehension, consistent with custodial behaviors that concentrate power in the teacher. There was also a notable impact on individual students, some of whom experienced changes in WAS scores of 20 or more points and reported teacher attitude and behaviors as a factor which had a significant impact on their writing apprehension.

All three longer student interviewees reported that teacher personality and behavior had some impacts on their attitudes towards writing, although the differences in their perceptions about writing suggest the possibility that an approach that works for a creative writer may not resonate at all with one who writes as an act of self-discovery. A metric such as an improved PCI or a protocol like the one followed in this study might offer administrators a starting point to encourage reflective teacher practice. This in turn could encourage shared power and individualized writing instruction in the classroom.

The problem of sharing power with students, however, lies in the possibility that those who possess power, whether teacher or student, may sometimes try to abuse it. Certainly the use of teacher-centric instructional strategies makes the teacher's life easier and makes assessment less irksome. Students know exactly what is expected: produce a certain artifact on command that displays the information and understanding validated by the teacher. The extent to which they can do that will determine whether the student receives an A or an F. However, humanistic strategies that allow students some power to direct and evaluate themselves present a different set of problems.

Constructivists would argue that a certain transparency about the goals and objectives of instruction is necessary for students to be successful in learning, and that instructional activities should address real skills and competencies beyond producing a specific form of text. The fact that almost every student who wrote about what made

writing more or less likely began by asking what was wanted, underscores the implied bias of writers in this school, which is that writing is a school activity and that the teacher is the final and infallible arbiter of the value and quality of that activity.

By the same token, however, there was more than one example witnessed in which teachers and administrators spoke about each other in adversarial terms, in which teachers themselves made disparaging remarks about other teachers, or in which students "acted out" in class, all cases of an implied power conflict which is not in keeping with the ideal of a learning community.

Finally, there is the fact that if there *was* a writing curriculum being systematically followed in this school, it was not readily apparent, nor were there many student artifacts produced that proved growth or competency. The argument could be made that teachers jealously guard their privacy and are not used to sharing power or openly evaluating themselves or their teaching techniques. The hidden nature of the curriculum, then, might contribute to increases in student writing apprehension, and foster other undesirable consequences such as learned helplessness and resistance in students. At the same time, this behavior might also harm teachers by limiting personal and professional growth through reflective practices. Anecdotal evidence gathered during the study might shed some light on the problem of the use of power in the classroom, whether it was the prescribed use of power by the teacher or administration or the surreptitious use of power by the students.

Teacher Data

Introduction

The concept of gatekeeper, one who is the arbiter of creating meaning and of validating the right to speak, is central to the construct of hegemony, the tendency for a dominant culture to perpetuate itself. One can argue that such a tendency is antithetical to the production of new or individual meaning for students. Dominant cultures and individuals who are part of that culture have a vested interest in limiting lines of inquiry or modes of thought which might diverge from the status quo. Teachers, as cultural exemplars, may be limited by personal and institutional expectations concerning the maintenance of order. However, teachers also have a responsibility towards their students to help them maximize their unique and individual educational potential. This places the educational leader firmly in a conundrum: how does one encourage independent thought while also inculcating societal mores? In other words, how much teacher control is required to satisfy the teacher's role as exemplar of the dominant culture within which he or she works, and when does that control begin to have an adverse impact on student ownership of his or her learning?

From personal experience as a student and teacher over the last five decades, I can attest that the sixties and seventies saw a shift in the paradigm of instructional strategies, from transmissional, whole-group instruction towards constructivist and individualistic transactional models which are designed to allow for more student ownership. The Flanders Interactional Analysis was designed to divide teacher-student interaction into direct, teacher-controlled interchanges and indirect, student-centered exchanges. The idea was that reflective instruction should include and encourage indirect interactions

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between teacher and students to allow the student to derive a different understanding from that of the teacher. In this model, indirect interactions between students and teachers are thought to minimize the subtle norming that the literature suggests leads to the marginalization of non-mainstream students.

The Willower PCI index was another metric that attempted to measure how teachers interacted with the non-voluntary population in their charge. Willower's results showed that males were more custodial than females, and that younger teachers were more humanistic that older ones. He also discovered that all teachers overestimated how custodial their principals and peers were, in a phenomenon the literature terms "pluralistic ignorance," a widespread and mistaken belief about the attitudes of the other members of one's group (Willower et al., 1973). Teachers of the early to mid-sixties tended to overstate the perceived need for teacher-centered classroom control. Might the present emphasis on constuctivism create a cultural pressure to appear humanistic, even if one is actually more custodial?

The behavior of the teachers on the first and last days of the study might illustrate the extent to which some of them acted as gatekeepers in relation to their own classrooms. The reactions of the teachers during our first meeting could be interpreted as a microcosm of the school at large, and in hindsight may have offered some clues as to the cultural forces at play in this particular high school. When first ushered into the library of the school which was to become my second home for a semester, I was distressed to learn that, rather than a conference room in which participants could sit facing one another, I would be meeting and presenting to a collection of professionals in a room with round tables which could not be pulled together.

I greeted the ten English teachers as they entered, tried to conduct some small talk, and was most conscious of presenting a non-threatening demeanor, which must have been effective, as one of the elder male faculty asked me when "the guy" was going to arrive. That brought some chuckles from a couple of the younger staff who had already met me and introduced themselves. Older teachers tended to interact with one another and not with the younger teachers, and males tended to sit and interact with other males. There seemed to be, then, some stratification in their chosen grouping for this meeting

When the last teacher had wandered in, five minutes late, and the department head introduced me and quickly ran to his next task, I saw that I was addressing four groups of teachers, three of whom were sitting at separate tables, and two gentlemen who had taken chairs and rocked them back against the bookcases as far away from me as they could get. While seated, I explained the idea of the study, the whole time registering the body language of the staff. Tightly crossed arms, backs partially turned towards me, and whispered comments between some of the staff made it clear that some were merely tolerating me and were unconvinced of the value of the endeavor, while others, through attentive behavior and questions, seemed more open-minded and interested.

It seems now that the round tables which could not be pulled together were an apt metaphor for the department itself. Separated into two clusters of classrooms in two separate hallways, there was a contingent of older teachers who were witnessed over the course of the study eating lunch together and interacting in the faculty work room, while the younger staff also seemed to form their own sub-group. Within these observed sub-groups, most teachers tended to pair up and interact with only one or two other members of the department. For example, Joe and Steve passed between their two classrooms

frequently and were in each other's rooms before and after the bells, and Bert, the head coach of a fall sport, had a frequent visitor in his class whom I took to be his assistant coach. As the study progressed, this pattern of "partnering up" seemed to hold, although not always with teachers in the same department. Although most of their day was spent alone with their students, the remainder of teacher time seemingly was spent with like-minded teachers.

The teachers who worked in this building were no different than I would have been had the tables been turned. All of them were circumspect to some degree, waiting to see how I went about my business before they signed on to the study or afforded me a degree of trust. The two teachers referenced earlier had to be contacted privately and personally before they would consent to be part the study, and then only after I told them that I understood the study could be seen as a bother and an imposition of will from central administration. I was quick to say that I was uncertain about the results of the study and was not looking for any particular results, as befits a good researcher. In retrospect, however, I came to realize that I was not immune from the difficulties of separating myself from my own biases. Because I had met with success utilizing portfolios and a student-centric instructional style in my own classes, it was natural for me to undervalue the need for custodial behaviors among teachers, a bias that might have been readily apparent to the teachers in question.

During the second application of the WAS and while chatting with the teachers on the last day of the teacher portion of the study, I had a chance to reflect on some of my initial impressions. First, the differences in PCI scores of most of the teachers seemed to correspond to differences in their behaviors. Three of the teachers, all males, displayed a

teaching style I would have initially characterized as low-control, the opposite of Willower's results in 1968, which showed that males tended towards more custodial methodologies. I wondered at that time if their gender was to some advantage in gaining or maintaining compliance, allowing them greater flexibility in instructional techniques. Additionally, PCI scores did not ascend in order of age in this very small sample, whereas Willower found that younger teachers had more humanistic ideologies than did older ones. The PNF scores, however, were most humanistic for the youngest teachers and became increasingly more custodial with age, just as in Willower's study.

Nystrand & Groff's (1998) concern with the problem of determining the actual centricity of instruction was also apparent. Activities like the writing prompt Pattie administered on the last day, "What is wrong with American Education?" would seem to be highly student centered. During the introduction to the lesson with her problematic class, however, she gave comments that might be considered limiting, such as "Don't just write that it's boring," or as attempts to force compliance with the writing task at hand. An earlier class in which the same lesson was being delivered seemed to be in "discussion" mode, but a Flanders analysis of the interchange would have revealed that the teacher's reaction to student talk was direct, much of it validating the need for education and excusing the shortcomings of schools. This observation was in keeping with her relatively high PCI score, and the younger special education teacher who had scored more moderately on the PCI was not seen to interact at all during that lesson. However, the most stringent control was exerted in her problematic fourth block class, one which a teacher in the lunch-room had taunted her about and which she termed her

"class from hell." This was a teacher who seemed most eager to help out with the study on the first day, so that she could learn "the right way" to approach writing instruction.

Clearly my bias had been that custodial behavior was associated with a lack of affective connection to the student, an idea not supported by some of the qualitative data. For example, Betty, whose PCI score seemed low compared to many of her observed lessons, had her students coloring a picture that represented their utopia in relation to *1984* or a similar work of literature. One student seemed so rapt in writing a description of his picture he had to be reminded twice to cease work on that to complete the WAS, an example of student-centered activity at odds with much of what I had formally observed. Meanwhile, I had a final chance to examine the artifacts on the walls: masks made of paper plates, posters, and hanging dodecahedral student projects were everywhere, as were pictures of students. While the students worked, Betty had small conversations with some of them, asking about siblings or news of the day. Although her instructional style and personality seemed very custodial during formal lessons, I realized that there seemed to be a desire on her part for an affective connection with at least some of her students. Conversations with the department head supported this conclusion, as he stated that "She really does care about her students, in her own way."

There were other areas in which the PCI results were problematic. Steve's students were all working independently on computers to write a research paper on the day of the final visit, and he had strict guidelines for the steps they should follow, seemingly a high-control tactic compared to his PCI score. While waiting for them to finish their task, and before he allowed me to pass out the WAS, he said that the prior research paper had garnered such poor results that he had had to revamp the instructional

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strategies he would follow, saying that he had to assume that they "knew nothing" and needed to be walked through each step. While the instructional activity would be an example of high teacher control, it stood in contrast to his moderately humanistic score and his personal interaction with his students, which was understated and respectful. Similarly, Bert's students were studying in preparation for a test independently and silently at their seats on that final day, and he did not once need to ask for compliance during any of his three classes. This might have been a reflection of his low PCI score, or of the fact that he is 6' 6" tall.

Joe's sections were asked to read *Hamlet* by a regular substitute, since Joe was absent on that day. Students were more or less compliant, less so as the periods progressed, and during one class while I waited for the students to complete the WAS, one asked me if the survey would "count for anything." The question confused me, and I said that the form would be scored and compared to his earlier results. He replied, "No, I mean will this hurt me if I answer the questions a certain way?" When I asked if he meant would the results would be shared with Joe and thus possibly change his opinion of the student, he affirmed that interpretation. He was relieved to learn that there would be no negative results from his honest answers, but this exchange did illustrate the subtle control a teacher may exert even when he or she is not in the room. It also confirms the existence of what the literature terms the "underworld" of students, who make decisions and form perceptions based upon unstated expectations in the classroom (Beale & Trimbur, 1991).

Joe had on more than one occasion expressed frustration at "grade-grubbers" and had also spent some time justifying and explaining his grading to his classes. As all

three were Honors or AP classes, grades were a powerful extrinsic motivation for his students. Although those "discussions" about grades were respectful, sometimes humorous, they would still have been classified as direct under the Flanders system. At the same time, these lessons did allow for student and teacher to discuss and think about the nature of assessment, which is reflective in nature. This interchange also illuminates one aspect of shared power, which is that students are allowed to question the teacher. During one class, which was unconvinced of the merits of Joe's argument, he joked that he was going to "retreat behind his podium," although he did not concede any points about how he had graded. This illustrates one of the features of student empowerment, which is the permission to openly question classroom activities and grading policies. Considered against this backdrop of complex interpersonal relationships and sometimes conflicting personal agendas, the adequacy of the PCI as a single metric is questionable. When coupled with rich qualitative data, however, the instrument does provide a means for framing discussions about classroom practices, not only in writing, but in many related areas which will be outlined at the end of the chapter. First, areas of further study and means of improving this protocol will be presented.

Conclusions

Limitations of Study and Methods of Improvement

One of the prevalent concerns in the design of the study was to construct the data collection protocols to be as non-threatening as possible to both teachers and their students. It may have been more effective if the PCI had been administered in a "double-blind" manner where staff was unaware of why the questionnaire was being requested. This may have minimized the tendency of staff to present themselves in a manner they

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thought was more appropriate to the data-gather. Similarly, Willower had also developed a teacher Pupil Control Behavior questionnaire, completed by students about their teachers, which was found to be an accurate measure of custodial behaviors. This instrument, however, is not a self-reporting instrument as are the WAS and PCI, and was deemed to be problematic for use in this study, as it invites student evaluation of the teacher, not a normal procedure in this district.

The use of field notes in the study was inferior to video-taping lessons, and audio tapes of the short student interviews would have been more accurate, although both of these techniques would have been more disruptive during observed lessons. During student interviews, questions were specifically constructed to avoid directly asking students their opinions of teachers or of teacher behaviors. This was also done to minimize the perceived threat of having students evaluate teachers for third parties. This data stream, however, would have been most helpful in triangulating the impact of teacher behavior and attitude on students in general and specifically on student writing apprehension.

Finally, it is interesting to note that when the PCI proved to be problematic, I had no compunction about approaching the principal to complete the PNF, which was at odds with the self-reporting protocol designed for the study. Further, it is noteworthy that the principal readily provided that information, which could validate concerns of some of the staff that this research was just another example of the failure of administration to actually share power or information with teachers. Such sharing could be considered a form of administrative modeling that would alleviate some of the perceived conflicts between administration and teachers witnessed during the study.

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Areas for Further Study

First, the study was conducted in a rural area of Pennsylvania, raising the question of what effect, if any, the demographics of an area have on student writing apprehension and teacher behavior. As mentioned earlier, another area of study would be to determine how apprehension changes as the student matures and moves through grades, an area not covered by any of the literature and one factor which may have influenced WAS results. Class-by-class analysis of a larger sample or longitudinal studies could answer that question. Such studies might also capture the possibility that students overestimated their own skill as writers, something that would be revealed if stratified samples of students amassed writing samples over the course of one or several years which could then be compared with changes in WAS. A third area in which to examine teacher behaviors is the compare the use of positive and negative reinforcement in the classroom and on writing assignments with any possible changes in the WAS. Finally, a comparative study might be done in which one set of teachers was trained in employing the four tenets of self-efficacy and one continued to utilize traditional forms of instruction to examine how that might influence WAS.

The PCI also offers the possibility of further studies. First, the language of the PCI is archaic, as evidenced by terms like "hoodlum," and teacher culture has also changed, raising the question as to whether a revamped questionnaire would yield superior results. A related question is whether a narrative form of the survey like the PRF developed for this study is a reproducible metric that predicts teacher behaviors. A larger sample of teachers, such as all teachers in a district or building, would yield a superior data base from which to evaluate the findings of this study. Finally, a different

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form of study, such as case studies, larger numbers of student interviews, or teacher interviews could be utilized to shed some light on the accuracy of both the WAS and PCI. Use of the WAS and PCI in teacher training and screening might prove an effective way to begin conversations about best teaching practices and student-centered methodologies.

Since reading and writing are closely aligned activities, studies which examine the effect of teacher behaviors on reading apprehension would provide data against which the results of this study could be compared and contrasted. Also, the model prepared in this chapter could be utilized in studies to determine what kinds of writing and reading are actually required or requested in cooperating schools, both in English and in other disciplines, and the efficacy of such a model in making instruction more transparent could be evaluated in future studies. This could help the educational community in several important regards. First, such models may help administrators foster professional growth in their teaching staff. They might also aide teachers in becoming reflective practitioners of their art, and finally, help improve student aptitude in and attitudes towards writing.

Conclusion

Despite inherent problems with the self-reported PCI, the metric did predict with some accuracy the tendency of teachers to employ certain types of instructional techniques and teacher-student interaction. The WAS also demonstrated how apprehension changed for a group of rural Pennsylvanian high school students, and interviews revealed factors that students reported were important to them as maturing writers. The study itself revealed the difficulty in measuring and analyzing power relationships among members of an educational community, shrouded as they often are in

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secrecy. As seen in the examples of Joe's student, who asked if the questionnaire "counted," Betty, who disliked the scrutiny of a visiting teacher, and the principal, who felt some teachers just "didn't get it," the dynamics of power do not often lend themselves to openness.

By the end of the study, it was apparent that there were some in this educational community who did not feel comfortable talking about themselves and their teaching behaviors openly. This extended to distrust between administrators and teachers, between teachers and students, and among individuals in all three of the stake-holder groups in the institution. This makes reflective decision making about instructional strategies and methods of encouraging learning problematic. More explicit discussion about power, about who possesses and wields it, and towards what end it is employed is an institutional behavior that might help schools rise above the tyranny of the mediocre. Such behaviors are the emblems of humanistic instruction, and of an organization that abides by humanistic principals.

Students are moved powerfully by example, hence the importance of modeling in changing students minds about something they initially distrust or abhor. In a similar way, reasoned discourse between teachers and administrators, among teachers, and between teacher and student might help to build a social contract in which each group voluntarily limits its freedoms so as to advance the common good. In this case, the greater good would ideally be two-fold. Such an approach might improve student attitude towards writing while also affecting teachers' attitude towards modeling, shared power and affective support of student writing efforts in their classroom.

Change is not without risk, and changes in educational policies and procedures may often seem disjointed to teachers, and so skepticism among them is easily understood. Staff development programs, then, should be developed with an eye towards gaining willing support among the teachers affected by such programs. One way to do this is to devolve power to learn and grow back to the teacher, and this study provides one possible tool for doing so.

Whether or not the teachers in this study scored as custodial or humanistic on the PCI scale, observations support the idea that these were all individuals who cared deeply about teaching and about their students. Teaching strategies such as modeling, affective support, and reflective instruction seemed to have a larger impact on student attitudes concerning writing than did teaching style, allowing individual teachers to develop classroom teaching strategies that suit their own personalities while still addressing student needs for ownership of their own learning. Finally, the use of the protocols developed in this study as a summative tool for evaluating teacher effectiveness is not as promising as is the use of resultant data as a starting point for staff development plans and activities that make sense to teachers. In this case, the purpose of conducting such studies is not to draw conclusions but to encourage dialogue among members of the learning community.

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SAMPLE LETTER, SUPERINTENDENT

Dear Superintendent:

I am currently working on a study to determine the relationship between 11th and 12th grade English teachers' attitudes towards control of students, their instructional strategies and the likelihood that their students will be apprehensive towards writing.

The study would involve teachers completing a 26 question survey about student control and then having their students complete a different twenty-question survey concerning their attitude towards writing. Students would complete the same questionnaire in the first and last weeks of the semester.

The study would also involve observations of teacher's classes utilizing field notes, briefly interviewing three students chosen randomly, and examining portfolios or notebooks of those students. One purpose of the observations is to record common instructional activities in those classes. A second purpose is to see if there are any correlations between instructional strategies and changes in writing apprehension in students. Six students who showed the greatest change in writing apprehension would be interviewed at their convenience to explore factors that had an impact on their apprehension levels. Finally, I will conduct brief exit interviews with all cooperating teachers to aide in clarification of my observations and to give them a chance to address questions or concerns related to the study.

The results of the student surveys will be confidential, and only aggregate data will be used in the study, although the results could be released to the students or their parents upon request. Teacher data will also be used as aggregate data.

I look forward to meeting with you to present this proposal more fully and to answer any questions or concerns you may have.

Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Sincerely,
Peter Pappalardo
ESU Doctoral Cohort III
415 Williams Street
East Stroudsburg, PA   18301
570-856-2545
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SAMPLE LETTER FOR TEACHERS:

Dear Mr./Mrs. _____;

My name is Peter Pappalardo, and I am a graduate student at East Stroudsburg University working on my dissertation entitled "Teacher behavior and attitude and student writing apprehension."

I would appreciate the opportunity to observe your classes and to speak with three randomly selected students in each of your classes to see what they perceive to be the instructional activities that are most often utilized in your class. I would also appreciate having you fill out a form that asks questions about your thoughts concerning the appropriate levels of control for students in your school. Finally, I would distribute permission forms and give your students a survey in the first and last weeks of the semester that measures writing apprehension to see if there has been any change over the course of the semester.

The identity of those participating in the study and the individual data for that person will not be shared with anyone. Both teacher and student data will be coded, and student data will be used as aggregate data only, minimizing the risk of a violation of privacy for those taking part in the surveys. All data will be locked in a filing cabinet in my classroom and electronic data password-protected to prevent any access to same.

This study is subject to all applicable laws that apply to studies involving human subjects. Dr. Shala Davis, IRB Chairperson at East Stroudsburg University, can answer any questions you may have about your rights as they relate to this study. Her e-mail is SDavis@po-box.esu.edu and her phone is 570-422-3336.

As a small token of my appreciation, I would also like to offer you a gift

certificate for twenty-five dollars to a local establishment of your choice.

Thank you in advance for helping with this study. I welcome any questions you

may have and can be contacted at the phone numbers or addresses below.

Sincerely,

Peter Pappalardo
415 Williams Street
East Stroudsburg, PA 18301
e-mail felixpap@ptd.net
phone 570-421-0997
cell   570-856-2545

INFORMED CONSENT, TEACHERS

Title of Dissertation: Teacher behavior and attitude and student writing apprehension

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. You are eligible to participate because you teach English in the 11th or 12th grades of Bangor High School.

The purpose of this study is to determine if a teacher's approach to classroom management influences a student's willingness to write. The first parts of the study would be the administration of the Daly/Miller Writing Apprehension Survey to participating students in the first two weeks of the semester and the administration of the Willower teacher Pupil Control Ideology survey to participating teachers. Both instruments take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Three brief observations of lessons over the course of the semester would be conducted at a time and date mutually agreeable to the researcher and cooperating teachers, during which the researcher would note the kinds and uses of writing in the classroom, instructional activities observed, and the nature of teacher-student interactions.

Three students will also be randomly selected from each class and briefly interviewed, one during each 20-30 minute observation, to determine what they believe to be the most common instructional activities and what kinds and uses of writing occur in that class. Samples of those students' writing will also be examined to better triangulate the kinds and uses of writing in the classroom. The second application of the WAS will occur in the last two weeks of the semester, and brief exit interviews with each cooperating teacher will be conducted. WAS and PCI scores will be compared for each teacher and class using regressional analysis. Finally, six students who showed the greatest changes in WAS scores will be interviewed at greater length to determine what other factors might be associated with the change in writing apprehension.

Participation in this study will require approximately three hours of your time to aide in collection of permission slips from students, to maintain   folders of student work and to answer interview questions pertaining to writing instruction and instructional activities you utilize in class.

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You may decline to answer any specific question or questions at any phase of the study. All of your

individual information from this study will be shared with you at a later time if you wish. This may

occur via telephone, email, or postal mail if distance is a factor.

There are minimal risks or discomforts associated with this research.

You may find the experience of learning about your student's attitudes towards writing and

your approach to teaching to be enjoyable. The information may also help us to better address the

crucial issues involved in educational leadership pertaining to writing instruction, action research

and staff development.

Your participation in this study is <u>voluntary</u>.   You are free to decide not to participate in this

study or to withdraw at any time without any adverse affects. If you choose to participate, you may

withdraw at any time by notifying the researcher. Upon your request to withdraw, all information

pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict

confidence. Your response will be considered <u>only in combination</u> with those from other

participants. The information obtained in the study may be published in educational journals or

presented at educational meetings but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below. The extra copy is

for you to keep.

Research Director: Dr. Lucy Stanovick
Rank/Position: Professor
Department Affiliation: English Department.
Campus Address: Stroud Hall, East Stroudsburg University
East Stroudsburg, PA 18310, Phone: 570-422-3398

Researcher: Peter Pappalardo
Rank: Graduate student at East Stroudsburg University
Home Address: 415 Williams St.
East Stroudsburg, PA 18301, Phone: 570-421-0997
e-mail: felixpap@ptd.net

<u>This project has been approved by the East Stroudsburg University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review</u>

<u>Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 570- 422-3231).</u>

Informed Consent Form (continued)

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM, TEACHERS:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name (PLEASE PRINT)

Signature

Date

e-mail

Phone number or location where you can be reached

Best days and times to reach you

Signature: _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____   _____
Date   **Investigator's Signature**

Sample Script for Teacher's In-service

I decided to make a career change of sorts after 15 years of teaching high school science, since my first love has always been reading and writing. I thought at the time that it would not be a difficult switch to make, since I've always been an avid reader and writer, and so felt ready to deal with the literary and composition requirements of teaching high school English.

I was dead wrong. The first challenge I had to meet was in dealing with compliance issues, that is, getting my students to read and write. So for the last eight years I've been keenly interested in different approaches to reading and writing instruction.

Providing structure and control in writing instruction is problematic. If you fail to set deadlines, provide adequate structure, and build in accountability concerning writing, you will not achieve a very good compliance rate. On the other hand, since writing is so personal, and since a fairly significant number of students seem to be reluctant to write, exerting undue control of the writing process may be counterproductive.

There seems to be a delicate balancing act, then, between too much and too little control over writing process and product in the classroom, and that is the focus of my study. How can a classroom English teacher provide the needed structure and support, while still allowing the freedom needed for students to develop into willing and accomplished writers?

The question in this study is to try to determine what effect, if any, classroom instruction and interaction has on the writing apprehension and resistance of students. The methodology I have chosen to answer this question has three discrete elements. First, Daly and Miller developed an easily administered survey called the writing apprehension survey, a twenty question instrument that accurately identifies students who exhibit writing apprehension. Writing apprehension has been linked to resistance, the refusal to write or to submit writing for evaluation. So one part of the study would be to administer this survey in the first and last weeks of the semester to see if the average level of writing apprehension for your individual classes has changed.

I think we all know that the same teacher presenting the same material utilizing the same instructional methods will get different results from class to class, one of the enduring mysteries of the art of teaching. And yet there may be underlying patterns of which we are not aware that influence how our students feel and act in our classrooms.

That leads to the second element of the study, examining how teachers approach control in the classroom. For that portion of the study, I will be asking you to complete another survey, an old one developed by Willower and others back in 1967, which examines a teacher's attitude towards control in the classroom. Because of the age of this instrument, some of the questions may seem archaic—who uses the word "hoodlum" anymore, for example? Still, the questionnaire gives one quantitative measure of how teachers think about control issues.

As Einstein said, however, not everything that counts can be counted. So the third element of the study will be for me to visit your classrooms and talk with you and your students on a sort of "knowledge walk." I had the opportunity to do this as a peer

observation technique in my own high school, both as an observer and as the teacher being observed, and I found it to be an interesting and enlightening glimpse into my own teaching style and approach. Basically I would take notes on instructional activities and classroom interactions, then randomly interview three students in each class using form C.

From the observation and interview data, I hope to be able to develop a "snapshot" of your classes you may find useful or interesting. Figure F illustrates a frequency analysis of reported instructional techniques I compiled in my own school during a study on curriculum. Although these charts were developed from lesson plans and not observations, you can get an idea of how the data can be displayed for each individual teacher, and it is this format I hope to follow in this study.

When all the numeric data has been analyzed, I would like to do a longer interview with a small number of students who showed the greatest change in writing apprehension over the semester. I will be conducting the interviews in the library and having them transcribed, and the questions I will be asking are displayed on form G. My hope is that I can discover trends in what kinds of things make it more or less likely that students will be willing to write. Finally, I would take a few more minutes of your time to do an exit interview with you concerning what you or I may have noted during the study.

In all three strands of this study, use of the Daly/Miller and Willower surveys, the classroom observations and the interviews, all data will be coded so that confidentiality of both teachers and students will be respected and protected. My hope and aim is to see how the spectrum of possible approaches to teaching and learning impacts writing apprehension in your students.

I will spend some time explaining all the methodologies and surveys utilized in the study and the permission forms required of you and your students by the Institutional Revue Board, the federal agency responsible for studies involving human participants. I will also be happy to answer your questions to the best of my ability at that time, Finally, I would like to get your personal contact information and schedule the initial round of visits to your classrooms.

Thank you so much for your kind attention, and I trust you will find the process interesting and not too intrusive.

Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Survey (short version)

1. I avoid writing.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

3. I look forward to writing down my ideas.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

4. I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

5. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

6. Expressing ideas though writing seems to be a waste of time.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

7. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

8. I like to write my ideas down.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

9. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strong Disagree

10. I like to have my friends read what I have written.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

11. I'm nervous about my writing ability.

 Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

12. People seem to enjoy what I write.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

13. I enjoy writing.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

14. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

15. Writing is a lot of fun.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

16. I like seeing my thoughts on paper.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

17. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

18. I don't think I write as well as most people.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

19. I don't like my writing to be evaluated.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

20. I'm no good at writing.

Strongly agree   Agree   Uncertain   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

SAMPLE LETTER/CONSENT FORM FOR STUDENTS/PARENTS, PAGE ONE

Dear Parent or Guardian;

My name is Peter Pappalardo, and I am conducting a study of teacher's instructional techniques and the effects they have on students' attitudes towards writing.

The results of the study will be used by the district to improve writing instruction and to plan for staff training and in-services.

Your son's or daughter's teacher and the students he or she teaches have been chosen as part of the study. I am writing to request your permission for your son or daughter to complete a 26 question survey during regularly scheduled English classes concerning his or her attitude towards writing. The survey will be given in the first and last weeks of the semester. You may view the survey by contacting me at the e-mail provided below. Individual student data will not be shared with anyone or used for any other purpose outside of this study. Assigning code numbers rather than names to each student's results will protect the confidentiality of each student.

I will also be randomly selecting students with whom to speak, and your son or daughter may be selected. If so, I will be asking a few questions that will take five to ten minutes to answer. I will do this during class time in his or her regular teacher's classroom to see what they believe are the most common activities during the average lesson, how often they write in class and how instructional activities influence their likelihood of writing. I will also briefly review their portfolios or notebooks to see what class activities have been completed in the weeks before my visit.

Participation in this study is strictly **voluntary.** If for any reason you, or your son or daughter do not wish to take part in the study, you may decide against participation by indicating that on the advised consent form attached to this letter, signing and returning it.

On the day that the questionnaire is administered, your son or daughter can simply sign his or her name and leave the form unmarked, they may mark the form outside the margins if they do not wish for their classmates to know that they did not complete the form, or they may decline to complete any part of the form. Additionally, you and/or your son or daughter can decide to withdraw from participation in the study at a later date

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by contacting me at the postal or e-mail address or phone number listed below. If you or your son or daughter do so, all your child's data will be destroyed.

This survey is part of a doctoral study through East Stroudsburg University. The Institutional Review Board at that University and all applicable federal laws concerning studies with human participants therefore apply to this study. Dr. Shala Davis, IRB Chairperson at East Stroudsburg University, can answer any questions you may have about your rights as they relate to this study.

Thank you in advance for your help in conducting this study, and feel free to contact me with any questions or concerns you may have.

Sincerely,

Peter Pappalardo

felixpap@ptd.net

415 Williams Street

East Stroudsburg, PA   18301

570-856-2545

Advised Consent Form---student/parent

I certify that I have received e-mail, postal address and phone numbers in the cover letter to use if I have questions or concerns about this study. I understand that my son or daughter will be asked to take a 26 question survey in English class concerning his or her attitude towards writing twice during the semester, once each in the first and last two weeks of the semester.

Additionally, I understand that my son or daughter may be randomly selected for a brief interview during regularly scheduled class, at which time samples of their work may be examined to determine what kinds of work have been completed in the class. I understand that my son or daughter's data will be confidential and will not be used except in this study and as aggregate data. Individual student data will not be released to anyone except the student or his or her guardian upon request.

I also understand that either my student or I can opt out of this study at any time by not completing the survey forms at the time they are administered, or by requesting that the forms be destroyed at any point in this study.

Students will be offered light snacks with permission of the classroom teacher in keeping with the wellness policy of the school district on the last day of the study in appreciation for their time and cooperation.

Results of the study will be used to examine and improve writing instruction and to provide for staff development at the high school. Thank you in advance for your cooperation, and feel free to contact me if you have any concerns or questions.

Sincerely,

Peter Pappalardo, East Stroudsburg University

_____I grant permission for my son or daughter to complete the writing attitude survey at the beginning and end of this semester.

_____I DO NOT grant permission for my son or daughter to complete the writing attitude survey at the beginning and end of this semester.

Parents name(Please print)-_____

Parents signature _____

Student name (Please print)_____

Student signature_____

BRIEF STUDENT INTERVIEW/PORTFOLIO REVIEW FORM

Teacher_____

Class_____

Dates and times_____/_____/_____

1. Portfolio items/student artifacts include:

Student One	Student Two	Student three

What three activities do you most commonly do in this class?

Student One	Student Two	Student Three

a. How often does your teacher write along with you (Very often, often, occasionally,

seldom, never)?

Student One	Student Two	Student Three

b. If you were to guess, how many minutes a day or week would that be?

Student One	Student Two	Student Three

c. How much class time is spent in writing, and what kinds of writing do you most often

do?

Student One	Student Two	Student Three

4. Take a few minutes to write about what makes you more or less likely to complete

writing assignments in this class.

Willower PCI Survey

On the following pages a number of statements about teaching are presented. Our

purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning

these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no

correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential and no individual or school will be

named report in this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Instructions: following are twenty statements about schools, teachers, and pupils.

Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by circling the appropriate

response below the statement

1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during an assembly.

 Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by

their pupils.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

6. The best principals are given unquestioning support to teachers in discipline pupils.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

12. Student governments are a good "safety value" but should not have much influence on school policy.

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision**.**

Strongly agree   agree   undecided   disagree   strongly disagree.

14. If a pupil uses obscene or profound language in school, it must be considered a moral offence.

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Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused**.**

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly.

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

17 It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers.

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished.

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**
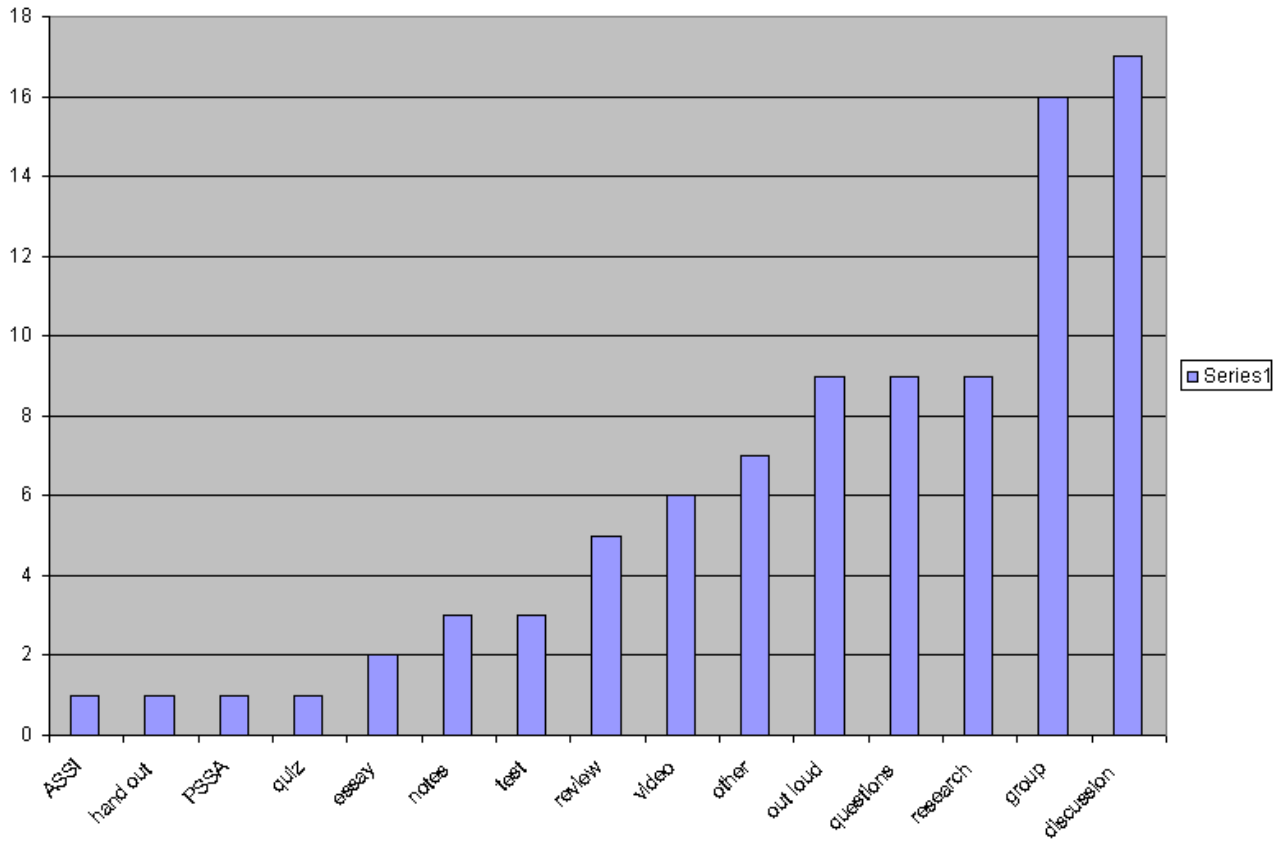
19. Pupils can not perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad**.**

Strongly agree   **agree**   **undecided**   **disagree**   **strongly disagree.**

Sample chart—individual teacher's instructional methods

Frequency Distribution of Reported Instructional Activities, Teacher #3, 2008

Sample Questions for in-depth interviews—

1. Has your high school experience changed your thoughts and feelings about writing? If so, what events or experiences caused the change? If there has been no change in your thoughts and feelings, how would you describe your attitude towards writing?
2. Are you more or less likely to write in school than out of school? What kinds of writing do you do in and out of school?
3. Are there particular kinds of writing you like or dislike?
4. If you could change one or two things about the way writing is taught in high school, what would those be?
5. Are there any particular things that make you more or less likely to write in English class? In school in general?

Frequency of Observed Teacher Behaviors

Teacher #				
PCI score				
Observed Activities				

Frequency of Reported Teacher Behaviors

Teacher #				
PCI score				
Reported Activities				

Sample Introductory Speech to Students.

Good morning (or afternoon). My name is Mr. Pappalardo and I am a teacher at Pleasant Valley High School. I am also working on a study to find out how high school students feel and think about writing. In order to do this, your teacher has been kind enough to allow me to speak to you today, to ask you to complete a questionnaire of twenty questions about writing. The questionnaire should take about five minutes to complete, and your individual results will be confidential. I may share class averages with your teacher, the principal or the Superintendents office, but all they will see are scores that are listed numerically.

I will also be visiting your classroom throughout the semester from time to time to see what kinds of writing happens in the class, to speak with a few of you about writing, and to briefly check your notebooks, portfolios and other work to get an idea of the kinds of assignments you complete in this class.

Before any of that can happen, though, I will need to get permission from both you and your parents or guardians. Participation in this study is strictly **voluntary.**   You have the right to opt out of being part of the study, by simple indicating that on the permission form. If you should later change your mind, you need use the contact information on this cover letter and your data form will be pulled and destroyed.

Again, all my notes about what I see and hear will be confidential, except if there is reason to suspect that someone is going to commit violence to themselves or others. Finally, I will be giving the questionnaire out again towards the end of the semester, to

measure any changes which may have occurred in your attitudes towards writing. On the last visit I will bring some light refreshments like juice and snacks by way of thanks.

I'll pass out the permission forms now, and you can return them to your teacher when they are completed. I'll return in about a week to pick them up, and soon after will pass out the questionnaire.

Thanks in advance for your help, and I hope you all have a great school year.