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TEACHER ATTITUDE TOWARD COMPOSITION INSTRUCTION
AT THE POSTSECONDARY LEVEL: IDENTIFICATION
AND FORMATION

By

Jane B. Braunger

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

COMMUNITY COLLEGE EDUCATION

Portland State University
Oregon State University
University of Oregon

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Dedicated to

Kathryn G. and Joseph A. Bailey

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Jane B. Braunger for the
Doctor of Education in Community College Education presented
November 21, 1983

Title: Teacher Attitude Toward Composition Instruction at
the Postsecondary Level: Identification and Formation

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Research on composition instruction has expanded from
examination of student process and written product to in-
clude assessment of teacher attitude toward composition in-
struction. This study had two objectives: 1) to test the
appropriateness of an existing instrument, Scales for
Measuring Teacher Attitude toward Instruction in Written

Composition (Schuessler et al., 1981), for attitude measurement among Oregon postsecondary writing teachers and 2) to discover formative influences on attitudes thus identified. A possible influence not previously studied but addressed here was institution of employment, specifically, university and community college.

Data were obtained by a questionnaire composed of the Scales for Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition and additional, original questions on training, demographics, and experience. The questionnaire was mailed to 122 composition teachers at 3 Oregon universities and 2 Oregon community colleges; response rate was 80%. Additional information on attitudes and their formative influences was provided by 6 respondents who participated in follow-up interviews.

Factor Analysis of scale item responses neither replicated Schuessler et al.'s scales nor yielded meaningful new ones for attitude identification. Subsequent analysis of items in the scales suggested the reasons for inappropriateness of the scales as 1) the preponderance of prescriptive, content-centered items and 2) the lack of items reflecting current research in the field: teachers as writers, student self-concept and self-confidence as part of the writing course goals, and alternate classroom methodologies.

ANOVA conducted with grouped items from the scales and independent variables of training, demographics, and experience did not show statistically significant interactions, despite associations observed in crosstabulation between student-centered or content-centered attitude statements and variables of years experience, influence of a teaching assistantship, academic degree, employment status, and institution of employment. ANOVA with single content-centered or student-centered items and these variables showed several statistically significant interactions. On these individual statements there was a clear pattern of prescriptive, content-centered response from teachers at both institutions who taught part-time, without a Ph.D., with 7 years or less experience, and with a strong influence of a teaching assistantship as part of their training. No other group of independent variables exhibited such a consistent association with dependent variable attitude statements. Since these findings of association were based on individual attitude statements on the scales, however, they could not be used to generalize about formative influences on specific attitudes. Rather they were used to inform the direction of further study through follow-up interviews.

The interviews reinforced the finding of the scales' inappropriateness for attitude measurement with this sample. Interview responses suggested a need for more

inclusive composition content and less pejorative wording in future quantitative study of attitudes. Furthermore, the interview findings suggested the importance of qualitative methods for studying attitude and its formation in composition instruction. Results indicated that differences in types of training and type of experience warrant investigation beyond level of degree or number of years experience. An experience variable identified for further study was institution of employment, community college or university, particularly as it affects the status of composition as a discipline. Additional areas identified for further research in attitude study were attitudes of teaching assistants toward composition instruction and the effect of their training program on those attitudes, the attitude of community college and university writing teachers toward composition instruction in grade and high school, and the effect of part-time employment status on a writing teacher's attitude toward the role of composition instruction within the institution.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to the members of my dissertation committee for their supervision of my research design, suggestions on additional resources, and quick, apt commentary as the work progressed.

I gratefully acknowledge the additional unpublished research shared by Anne Ruggles Gere of the University of Washington. I greatly appreciate her encouragement of this study.

I am particularly indebted to my friend and colleague Susan Danielson whose expertise as a writing teacher spurred my interest in the study. Her collaboration in the design and conduct of the research was invaluable.

To Ross Danielson I owe thanks for help in composing additional items on the questionnaire.

Special thanks go to Barbara Wiegele for her speedy, professional typing and expert formatting.

I am most indebted to the teachers in Oregon universities and community colleges who participated in the study. Their response to the questionnaire and participation in follow-up interviews attests to their interest in research on writing instruction. It is my hope that the findings of this study will be useful to them, whose opinions were essential to its completion.

Finally, I thank my husband, John Braunger, for support, encouragement, and patient good humor.

Jane B. Braunger

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

The major purpose of the following study was the identification of attitudes toward composition instruction among community college and university writing teachers in Oregon. To this end, it replicated a study using Scales Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition (Schuessler et al., 1981). The goal was to see if these scales, used previously with elementary and secondary teachers in Washington state, would be appropriate for measuring attitudes toward composition instruction in a population of Oregon post-secondary teachers.

The study had two additional, related purposes. It explored training, experience, and demographics as influences on the attitudes indicated by response to the instrument. In addition, it examined whether community college and university writing teachers could be seen as separate groups, according to the attitudes they expressed on the survey instrument.

The appropriateness of the scales for measuring teacher attitudes was a crucial issue in this investigation. The lack of meaningful attitude scales in this

study led to extensive conceptual analysis of the instrument itself in addition to changes in originally planned statistical analysis of teacher responses to it. Conclusions of the study, therefore, address the limitations of the scales as a measure of teacher attitude before suggesting patterns of and influences on attitudes toward the teaching of writing.

THE NEED FOR RESEARCH ON ATTITUDES

Research on writing instruction at the college level has focused on either student outcomes as the written product, the method of instruction, or, most recently, the process in which a student engages while composing. Less attention has been given to the teacher as a variable, and in particular, to teacher attitudes toward composition as a discipline.

ERIC Documents on the Teaching of Writing, 1966-1981 contains no mention of attitude in its list of descriptors. However, many of the documents referenced deal with teacher attitude implicitly as they discuss writing anxiety, content-centered versus student-centered instruction, goals of the composition course, and effective methodology. Attitude toward composition instruction, that is a teacher's orientation toward both the subject matter and the student, has thus been linked to effectiveness of instruction.

Daly and Miller (1975) researched student writing apprehension, the fear of evaluation and lack of confidence in written communication which may limit or totally block student writing. In devising measurements for student writing apprehension and suggesting strategies for helping reduce this anxiety, they asserted the relationship between a supportive teaching attitude and reduced student anxiety which leads to greater fluency and confidence in writing. Daly later conducted research which indicated student writing anxiety as a factor in teacher attitude formation toward the student: the greater the perceived student writing apprehension, the lower the teacher's expectation of writing ability, and thus less positive the attitude toward that student. Subsequent student writing behavior, given the lowered teacher expectations and frequently pejorative stance, was, not surprisingly, poor (Daly, 1978).

Mina Shaughnessy's (1977) work with basic writers at City University of New York showed the importance of the teacher's confidence in students' abilities. When teachers used students' errors as clues to identify learning needs, she found they helped students develop their writing ability. This attitude toward error as a sign of readiness for learning is far different from that of error as a sign of failure. And from this attitude flowed Shaughnessy's view of teacher as enabler, with clear

student-centered goals for writing instruction. Though she did not focus on the study of attitude, the conclusions of her research include a preference for good teachers over good programs. This points to the relationship between teacher attitude and teacher effectiveness.

Similarly, John Roueche's (1977) studies in developmental education noted collaborative, personal, patient attitudes in teachers whose students made gains in reading and writing. Like Shaughnessy, though he was drawing conclusions about effective instruction, he was arguing from a premise about teacher attitude -- specifically, that a teacher's belief in students' abilities is basic to student success. Such a belief predisposes teachers to find the right match between content and instruction for each student.

Most recently, Peter Elbow (1981) has addressed teachers' attitude toward their own writing as an influence on their response to student writing. To the extent that teachers are anxious about their own writing, they evaluate student writing. However, when teachers see themselves and their students as writers, they can reply to student writing. In this way, Elbow sees teachers being more patient, more involved in the process of writing, and ultimately more helpful to students' writing development. Further, in an extension of Daly's findings, Elbow

sees an interaction between reduced anxiety and increased writing production, for both teacher and student.

Lindemann (1980) points out the need to study teacher attitudes as they affect teachers' views of the importance of their work. She feels that college composition teachers lack both personal and professional prestige. Such a lack is fostered by institutional policies which make composition second to literature, and the teacher of composition, by association, a less valued faculty member than the teacher of literature. She calls for a shift in attitude, beginning with a conviction by all faculty that writing is central to learning, thus promoting regard for writing as a discipline and supporting scholarship in it.

Related to the institutional view of composition instruction is the teacher's attitude toward his or her own work. The following opinion may be representative of college composition teachers:

...the very designation of Freshman English courses as 'service' may affect the attitude of some faculty when they are occasionally asked to teach them; teachers 'have' to teach composition, just as students 'have' to take it, and although this chore might be seen as a change of pace or even as a challenge, it is rarely coveted (Gage, 1982, p. 469).

Such attitudes, the author continues, are "unfortunate" but leave little more to be said. In fact, though, much needs to be learned, and said, about teachers' atti-

tudes toward writing instruction. The writing teacher is central to the students' experience in class, as the one who plans curriculum, presents instruction, shapes, and finally evaluates students' writing. Thus, an attempt to understand teachers' attitudes, their own priorities about the material they teach and the needs of their students, should add useful information to the research on effective composition instruction.

Without research on the teacher-specific variables of knowledge and attitude, there is a gap in the growing body of knowledge about student writing growth in college. Ultimately, the connection between teacher attitudes and effective composition instruction will be studied in depth. To inform such research, specific information is needed on attitudes themselves, their formation and their function in differentiating sub-groups of college composition teachers.

ATTITUDE FORMATION

Research is needed to identify writing teachers' attitudes toward their subject matter and their students, and, further, to explore the origins of these attitudes. The study reported here assessed teacher attitudes toward composition instruction, but also explored training, demographics and experience as influences on these attitudes.

Given the literary emphasis of most graduate English education, it seems reasonable to ask to what extent such training shapes teachers' attitudes towards the goals of the composition course and the needs of the students. Demographics and experience warrant examination as formative influences on attitudes, also. The extent to which differences in training, age, degree, employment status, years of experience, and amount of composition teaching shaped attitudes among college writing teachers was thus a central concern of the study.

TEACHER SUB-GROUPS

The relationship between institution of employment and teacher attitudes toward writing instruction was of special interest in this study. Earlier studies on teacher attitudes had not addressed possible differences in attitude toward students and content by teachers at a university and at a community college. The investigator's experience teaching at both institutions prompted this examination.

Since in Oregon, as in most states, the community college offers the standard freshman composition courses, transferable to and also offered at the university, could shared attitudes by these two groups of teachers be assumed? Given the more liberal admissions policy at community colleges, could teachers there be expected to

value a student's progress in writing more than a student's attainment of a specific level of writing? Or, if community college and university teachers underwent similar training, would they have more attitudes in common, despite the differences in the institutions where they were employed? This study thus also asked whether teachers' attitudes varied according to institution of employment or were consistent according to training in the discipline.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Existing research on teacher attitudes in composition instruction has not examined post-secondary teachers alone. This study tested the appropriateness of the attitude scales developed by Schuessler et al. (1981) on a population of Oregon university and community college composition teachers. By expanding the questionnaire to include items on training, professional experience, and institutional preference, this study further examined relationships between demographic, training, and experience variables and teacher attitudes toward composition instruction. Further, it explored the specific impact of the institution on teacher attitudes.

The following research questions were posed:

1. How appropriate are the Scales for Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written

Composition for post-secondary writing teachers in Oregon? To what extent do Oregon teachers' responses correspond with those of teachers already surveyed in Washington state?

2. In what ways do factors of training, experience, and demographics relate to the attitudes as measured by the attitude scales?
3. To what extent do the attitude scales differentiate the community college and university writing teachers as separate groups?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Chapter I contained references to research which implied a connection between teacher attitudes toward writing instruction and teacher effectiveness. The literature linking effective writing instruction and teacher attitudes toward 1) student error, 2) student-centered instruction, and 3) teachers as writers is discussed further in this chapter. In addition existing studies of attitude among teachers of writing are summarized.

Before studying attitudes, the investigator established a working definition of attitude. Bem (1970) defined attitude as likes and dislikes, a predisposition for or against some object, person, idea, or action. Hovland et al. (1953) separated attitude from behavior, seeing attitude as an implicit response, either positive or negative, to objective stimuli. Adapting these criteria to the context of composition instruction, the investigator defined attitude in this study as the implicit response, either positive or negative, to various content in the composition course, student writing needs, and methodology.

ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT: PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS

Measurement implies precision, but attitudes, since they must be inferred, either by behavior or by statements about behavior, can not really be quantified (Henerson et al., 1978). A basic problem with attitude measurement, then, is its imprecision, its relativity. Thurstone's (1931) scales for measuring attitudes and later Guttman's (1944) and Osgood's (1957) attempted to pinpoint specific dimensions and degrees of attitudes. But attitude measurement has remained largely inferential and has offered only a tenuous link to understanding behavior (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

Available measurements of attitude ultimately rest on responses to single statements of belief or intention (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Yet the neat causal movement from belief to attitude to intention to behavior seems more a framework for distinguishing among those concepts than for tracing the origins of behavior.

As an influence on behavior, attitude is strong, but not solitary. Time constraints, authority, and social acceptability, among other factors also influence behavior. Furthermore, attitude does not operate always as cause; attitude itself can be affected by behavior. There is no sure link between attitude and behavior.

All other things being equal, attitudes might predict behavior, but since other things are rarely equal, the relationship between attitude and behavior is often weak (Henerson et al., 1978, p. 144).

Among the "other things" which mitigate attitudes' effect on behavior are the complexities of attitudes themselves. To Allport's concept of attitude as composed of affect, cognition, and conation (1954), Bem added behavioral and social components (1970). He showed how social reference groups may serve to shape attitudes as much as to bring people of similar, already formed attitudes together. For example, a writing teacher's tendency to see grades as important in evaluating student writing may be strengthened by his/her association with teachers who already attach great importance to grades.

The difficulty of forging a link between stated attitudes and observed behavior of writing teachers has been seen in studies by Hake and Williams (1981) and by Lamberg (1977). While a majority of the high school and college writing teachers surveyed by Hake and Williams stated a preference for direct, unencumbered (verbal) prose style, 85 to 90% actually chose student papers which were indirect, inflated, and passive (nominal) in style over papers structurally the same but written in a verbal style. The researchers noted the least preference for nominal style among community college teachers, attributing it to their greater experience teaching writing, over either high school or four-year college teachers.

Further, they speculated that most of the high school teachers' being "school of education products" may have accounted for their persistent tendency to be impressed by the nominal style (p. 440).

Similarly, Lamberg, studying practices and attitudes toward evaluating student writing, found elementary and secondary language arts teachers actually providing extensive, negative feedback to student writers after stating a preference for moderate, positive response. The stated attitude reflected a desire to teach writing by encouragement, but the behavior suggested a need to justify a grade for the writing.

In these examples, various factors of social reference group influence, knowledge about writing and about student writers' development, and intentions to evaluate writing interact to affect attitude even as attitude and behavior act upon each other.

Bem (1970) has pointed out that while research has shown a tendency of attitude to predispose one to certain intentions and behavior (Adorno et al., 1950; Rokeach, 1960), the reverse influence, of behavior on attitude, has also been documented. Festinger's experiments on cognitive dissonance (1957) showed college students' attitudes toward police becoming more favorable after they had written a pro-police essay. Behavior can be a causal factor of attitude and belief. That a change in behavior can

produce a change in attitude is, of course, the premise of legislation regarding racial and sexual equality (Bem, 1970). It is also the premise of the National Writing Project programs which involve teachers in extensive writing: teachers who practice writing, receiving feedback from peers, and revising, later identify better with their students as writers in process.

The complex relationship between attitude and behavior suggests a need for careful study of attitude formation. Investigation of influences on attitudes warrants going beyond a stated response to a Likert-scale item, since a single attitude statement may reflect a variety of sources or influences (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1980). In addition, knowing the function an attitude serves, from reference group approval to cognitive consistency, demands more information than a single response to a survey question (Kiesler et al., 1969). Interviews, either as the primary method of attitude measurement (Zemelman, 1977), or as follow-up to written surveys, are appropriate means of discovering factors underlying attitude formation and change (Henerson, 1978; Denzin, 1970).

TEACHER ATTITUDES AND EFFECTIVE WRITING INSTRUCTION

Two researchers, Bossone and Larson (1980), recently asked over two hundred writing teachers, most of them at colleges and universities, what research was most needed

in writing instruction. The unanimous choice was research in the development of writing abilities. The teachers wanted to know how best to aid students' growth into competent writers, and saw current research on student learning styles, writing process, and writing anxiety as a beginning, but not a full answer to the question of how best to teach writing. Similarly, they saw the importance to student learning of teaching practices such as conference-centered writing, peer-group editing, process-centered instruction and error analysis. Method alone, though, did not offer the key to development of writing ability.

Implicit in these teachers' interest in how students develop writing ability is a concern for their role as teachers--how to know what to teach and how to teach it. The how is crucial, for it goes beyond knowledge of the discipline and skill in teaching. How the teacher feels about the subject matter and the students, what is important to teach, and who needs to learn it are critical questions.

Attitudes toward Student Error

Mina Shaughnessy reported her research on skill development among basic writers in Errors and Expectations (1977). The title may serve to identify two "schools" of attitude toward student error and its treatment in the composition course. Research findings on the

effect of each attitude on student writing development follow.

Error-eradication. In this view, production of clear prose conforming to conventions of standard educated English is the goal of the writing course. E.D. Hirsch's (1977) standard of "relative readability" is the measure of success of a piece of writing: the ease with which a reader understands the text is the measure of good writing (p. 9). Teaching the students to produce clear, logical writing, the teacher relies heavily on instruction in surface features of text -- mechanics and usage. Revision is generally aimed at correcting deficiencies in the writing, i.e., eradicating error. Instruction emphasizes correct expression according to set standards. Error is thus a failure to follow norms and represents a deficiency in writing.

However, such an error-avoidance approach in teaching has been found to actually impede student writing development. College students in basic writing classes studied by Perl (1979) at CUNY short-circuited the process of developing an idea in writing by premature and almost exclusive concern with error correction. Their previous instruction had convinced them that good writing equaled correct use of standard forms such as spelling, punctuation, and usage. In another study, when asked to "revise"

a first draft, basic writing students at University of British Columbia simply corrected mechanical features. Deprived of their first draft, but asked to revise it, other students actually wrote whole new papers-- on similar topics, and many with more clearly developed ideas than the first-- but new papers nonetheless. The belief of these students that a text, once written, needed only correction of forms reflected an attitude that writing is a product, finished in thought development, once on paper (Garrett-Petts, 1981). These students' preoccupation with correctness may reflect teacher attitudes about the importance of standard forms in writing.

Memering (1978) commented on the wealth of research since 1900 refuting the study of grammar, i.e., correct forms, as the means to achieve writing proficiency. He wrote, "If we know anything at all about composition, we know that students can't be grammared into better writers" (Memering, p. 559). But teachers' belief in the primacy of correct forms continues.

Miller (1982) studied the sources of the critical error-eradication approach to student writing. She attributed this stance to the predominance of literature study in the training of writing teachers. Writing teachers may read student writing more to evaluate, i.e. to spot error, than to react to ideas. In so doing, they read as critics, not as writers themselves, without

differentiating between "error and risk. . . achievement and apprenticeship" (Miller, p. 14). Ironically, though they apply critical standards to students' written products, they seldom see student writing as finished; they read to deconstruct, not to react as to a "real" text.

Literature-based training may not be the only influence on a teacher's emphasis of rules and correctness in writing. Circumstances of employment may be another. A large proportion of composition classes, especially at the university, are taught by teaching assistants and part-time composition instructors. Their continued employment usually depends on the evaluation they receive from composition directors or department heads. To the extent that these tenured faculty set standards for composition instruction and evaluate teachers on evidence of those standards in their teaching and in their students' writing, the nontenured teacher or teaching assistant has a model not only for instruction but also for employment. Thus, many composition teachers may be emphasizing grammar not out of personal preference, but in an attempt to adjust to departmental standards, to do well in order to retain their jobs (Tingle, 1981).

Expectations from Error: Writing Practice. A quite different view of error in student writing assumes that writing develops in a process, essential to which is prac-

tice and -- yes -- error. As a basic writing teacher at CUNY, Shaughnessy (1977) advocated using student errors as indicators of students' readiness to learn a written form to match the sophistication of their ideas. But she warned against teaching correct forms too early in the process and thus cutting short students' use of writing as a way of discovering and shaping ideas. In her positive approach to error in writing, Shaughnessy built on James Britton's research with British school children.

Britton's (1975) research with development of writing abilities in grade school and high school students pointed to the need for teachers to convey confidence in students' ability to write. Writing, in this sense, meant communicating, making meaning, not demonstrating mastery of technical skills such as punctuation and spelling. He saw correctness as the last step in the writing process, not its goal. The goal of instruction in correct forms is improved writing.

Ironically, too early or exclusive a concern with error-correction can produce bland, uninteresting writing; students become concerned only with correctness, not with communicating ideas (Zoellner, 1969; Elbow, 1973; Perl, 1979). Further, error-eradication may actually be a hindrance to writing development. If language develops along with conceptual understanding, then errors in writing may

merely signal the writer's struggle to articulate, with inadequate forms, inchoate understanding. "To some extent, confusing prose is a sign of active engagement with new ideas . . . " (Lloyd-Jones, 1977, p. 220).

If students are to see writing as a process, with equally important stages of generating ideas, focusing on a main idea, drafting, revising, and editing; they need to work with teachers who respond at various stages of the process (Britton, 1975). This means that any evaluation of student writing must often be held off, while a teacher responds to students' ideas and encourages their development. Britton found a persistent concern for avoiding error when students wrote for a teacher as evaluator. Conversely, he saw increased fluency, development of ideas, and clarity of voice when students wrote frequently to a non-evaluative audience -- for example, to a friend or to a teacher purely as a respondent.

Varying the audience for students' writing is one way of emphasizing development of ideas over mastery of forms. Zemelman's (1977) study of humanities teachers at Livingston College, Rutgers University showed eight out of eighteen faculty members consciously varying the audience for student writing assignments. He noted, though, that a stated shift in audience may be of little help to a student writer who still sees the teacher, behind the as-

signed audience, as critical evaluator rather than as respondent.

Attitudes toward Student-Centered Instruction

Recent research in development of writing abilities has placed student needs at the center of the composition course, emphasizing the necessity of matching instruction to individual needs (Britton, 1975; Roueche, 1977; Shaughnessy, 1977; Bossone and Larson, 1980). Because of this focus on the affective as well as cognitive teaching skills, several researchers have documented the importance of personal traits such as empathy and adaptability in composition teachers.

Jackson's (1978) survey of post-secondary composition directors and English department heads showed agreement on the task of the composition course: individual student writing improvement. To that end, respondents called for patience, enthusiasm, and flexibility in teachers, with a majority choosing the individual writing conference as the primary instructional activity. A subsequent study in Los Angeles Community Colleges showed large gains in student writing, both in regular and developmental freshman composition classes, using the conference format (Simmons, 1979). A crucial component here was teachers' personal attention to each student, and suggestions for topics and revision strategies based on the stu-

dents' writing to date. The teachers' attitude was that instruction was based on the students' experience and needs. The end result of a term of such instruction was significantly better holistic scores on final essays than scores of students in traditionally taught classes.

Given the importance of personal contact in such a setting, Spear (1978), like Jackson, reiterated Shaughnessy's insistence that the person -- the teacher -- not the method predominates, and thus called for graduate training programs to help prospective composition teachers develop skills of empathy, self-congruence, and acceptance of students. Development of these "helping characteristics" improves a writing teacher's effectiveness. Kemp's (1979) dissertation showed student consensus on personalized, supportive instruction and willingness to explain the source of errors as teacher qualities which most helped students to learn how to write.

Attitudes Toward Teachers as Writers

I sometimes think that teachers who like to write and who actually do write, somehow, by that fact alone, do more than anything else to help their students write better. (Elbow, 1981, p. 35)

Elbow here refers to the involvement of teachers in the process of writing, with all of its stops and starts, its frustrations and insights. Teachers who write develop empathy for students who write.

Coles (1977) asked composition teachers to write themselves, developing a style and an understanding of their role as mentors in the same process for their students. He found that issues, theories, and methods of composition instruction all are dependent on the personal style and actual students of a given teacher. Gebhardt (1977) emphasized the importance of prospective composition teachers writing while they study rhetoric, the structure of language, and other content. Involvement in the process of writing, including peer-group feedback, and revising, are as necessary to the writing teacher's effectiveness as is mastery of content, he felt.

Further support for writing by the teacher of writing comes from Hagaman (1978) who showed the importance of writing to the teacher's understanding, not only of students' writing stages, but also of appropriate points of intervention. He agreed with Britton (1975) that the teacher's sense of him/herself as a learner with developing writing strategies is a crucial attitude to bring to the composition class. Such teachers see student writing, like their own, as a series of steps toward clear articulation of freshly understood ideas.

Practice in and study of the writing process is thus recommended as part of composition teachers' training. Lloyd-Jones noted the public misconception that "anyone with a Ph.D. in literature is qualified to teach writing"

(1977, p. 219). Shaw (1974) had earlier advocated a minimum six hours of training in composition as a prerequisite for work as a graduate teaching assistant. He countered arguments that such a requirement would weaken the literature emphasis, and thus the quality of the graduate English program, saying:

I do not think such a program would appreciably decrease the number of incoming graduate students; but even if it should, the commensurate decrease in the number of English doctorates would be no great tragedy (p. 159).

Covino's (1980) survey of English faculty and graduate students showed agreement that composition theory and rhetoric were essential elements of a graduate program. However, faculty were generally unaware of or uninfluenced by research in composition, ascribing their composition classroom approach to their own experience with writing. And while graduate students showed more knowledge and influence of current composition research, fewer than half of the sample, of which three-fourths were composition teaching assistants, expressed interest in composition teaching after completion of their degree. The results indicate acceptance of on-the-job training for composition teachers, on the one hand, and a general wish to pass the job along to apprentice graduate students on the other. Except for a few candidates for a Ph.D. in rhetoric, most respondents did not view composition as a separate discipline with unique skill and attitude requirements.

Largely because of the lack of training among current writing teachers in the writing process and stages of writing development, in-service programs such as the National Writing Project have developed within just the last ten years.

The importance of continual development as writers is the theme of the Bay Area Writing Project, one such program. Teachers from various levels and disciplines spend time writing, sharing their writing with peers, and revising, at the same time as they learn classroom techniques for aiding students in their development as writers. Participants in Bay Area Writing Project sessions credit changes in their attitudes toward teaching composition to the intense involvement in their own writing process which the workshop offers (Stahlecker, 1979; Mueller, 1979). In an evaluation report of four Bay Area programs, (Stahlecker, 1979) teachers reported increased confidence in their ability to put theory into practice in the classroom. They also noted changes in their teaching, including more use of in-class writing, an emphasis on the writing process, and variation in types and audiences for student writing.

Such changes reflect the teachers' attitude toward what is important in composition instruction: development of writing fluency, a sense of voice, and self-confidence as a writer. And Mueller (1979) noted, for a teacher with

years of academic, dissertation-style writing, rediscovery of an honest voice through immersion in writing was a special benefit of the program.

An emphasis on the continual development of writing cautions college writing teachers not to see their composition class as the capstone to students' writing experience, but like their own involvement in programs such as the Bay Area Writing Project, as part of a continuous process of development as writers (Mueller, 1979). But college teachers have had the lowest participation rate in such programs: 8% of Bay Area Writing Project enrollment, contrasted with 43% for high school teachers (Stahleker, 1979). For college teachers, sharing their writing with peers and even seeing high school teachers as their peers in such projects, may be an important step to building the awareness of writing's relationship to learning that other researchers note (Zemelman, 1977; Maimon, 1978; Blake, 1976).

Where college writing teachers do learn and practice techniques of writing development, sharing those across departmental lines has shown changes in faculty attitudes towards writing instruction. After a cross-disciplinary writing workshop at West Chester State College, Weiss and Peich (1980) reported general faculty movement away from a use of writing only to evaluate learning, with concomitant penalization of errors. Instead, faculty

participants felt a general responsibility to teach writing, and to share with students their own struggles in and uses of writing. Teachers saw writing as an integral part of the learning process, one demanding involvement and practice from teacher as well as from student.

ATTITUDE STUDIES WITH WRITING TEACHERS

Aware of the integral part teacher attitude plays in effective writing instruction, several researchers since the 1970's have attempted to measure teacher attitudes toward writing. Following Brownell's (1948) advice, these studies addressed "presage" variables, such as attitude and knowledge of instructor, to add to the research on process variables, such as teaching methods, and product variables, e.g. evaluation of student learning. The studies faced the difficulty of defining attitude and its relationship to equally slippery concepts of belief, intention, and behavior (Fishbein, and Ajzen, 1975). Beyond that, though, this research fell short in that it did not directly address the teachers' attitudes toward instruction of composition, but instead elicited views on writing preferences in general or on errors in writing (Schuessler et al., 1981).

For example, Jacob and Evans' 1969 measure, "Knowledge and Attitude in Written Composition, Test B,"

distinguished only between teacher attitudes on form versus content. Lin (1974) looked at three dimensions of teacher attitude toward language function alone. Blake (1976) used "Attitude Scale: Writers and Writing" to survey opinions only on skills and varieties of writing and on kinds of writers. And Klinger (1977) asked teachers only their attitudes toward errors in writing. These studies looked primarily at high school writing instruction.

Two recent studies addressed faculty attitudes toward writing instruction across the college curriculum. Zemelman (1977) and Maimon (1978) both found faculty commitment to writing instruction in all disciplines. Zemelman's interviews, however, showed that even faculty who used writing as a learning strategy in their classes, lacked an analytical perspective for improving their students' writing. Without an awareness of the explicit relationship between writing and learning, these teachers were more well-intentioned than effective in developing students' writing skills. Maimon's study showed the same stated faculty commitment to using student writing for learning in all classes, but a similar lack of actual classroom instruction in the process of writing. While English teachers in her study were more involved in writing instruction than other teachers, they also more often exhibited the "twitch in the wrist syndrome", circling

errors on students' papers more often than did faculty in other disciplines who used writing in their teaching (p. 12).

Schuessler et al. (1981) developed Scales for Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition. Their goal was to devise an attitude measure which would go beyond existing instruments to include the breadth of instructional practices, both student- and content-centered, of contemporary writing teachers. To that end, they compiled a questionnaire using forty-six items from the Composition Opinionnaire (NCTE, 1971). Maimon (1978) had earlier adapted some items from this instrument for use in her cross-disciplinary study of attitudes toward writing instruction.

The questionnaire contained statements on such topics as the importance of grammar, experiential learning, talking about writing, literature, and letter grades. In the pilot study, described in Chapter III, the researchers developed a questionnaire comprising four scales measuring distinct areas of attitude. The derived scales were labeled: 1) attitudes toward instruction in the conventions of standard written English (Standard English); 2) attitudes toward the development of the students' linguistic maturity (Linguistic Maturity); 3) attitudes toward defining and evaluating writing tasks (De-

fine and Evaluate)); and 4) attitudes toward the importance of student self-expression (Student Self-expression).

Though the first use of the instrument thus indicated that the scales measured four separate areas of teacher attitude, a later study with the scales and a larger sample showed a high positive correlation between the Standard English and Define & Evaluate scales, and between the Linguistic Maturity and Student Self-expression scales (Gere et al., 1982).

These correlations led the researchers to see the four scales as falling into two subgroups identifying distinct teacher attitudes. In this second study, Gere et al. noted that the pairs of scales corresponded to two paradigms in composition instruction described by Kroll (1980) as the "nurture" model and the "nature" model. Earlier in this chapter this difference in approach was discussed in terms of attitudes toward students' errors in writing: error-eradication versus expectation from error.

Teachers who rated items in the Standard English and the Define and Evaluate scales as very important could be seen in the "nurture" or interventionist role, concerned with teaching a body of knowledge to students. Their emphasis was on the written product and its evaluation according to the characteristics of classical rhetorical models. They might be expected to concentrate on eradication of incorrect forms as a goal in writing instruction.

Conversely, teachers who rated highly items in the Linguistic Maturity and the Student Self-expression scales fit Kroll's description of the "nature" or maturationist model. Their concern was more with the writer's development; thus, they might emphasize the writing process more than the final product, seeing non-standard forms as a measure of lack of practice in writing.

The two paradigms draw from different sources, the first (the "nurture" model) from training in literature, and the second (the "nature" model) from recent research in the composing process (Britton, 1975; Moffett, 1968; Elbow, 1973; and Emig 1971 & 1977). Such research informs the earlier discussed National Writing Project programs which emphasize continued development as writers for both teachers and students.

Rationale for the Present Study

The majority of research on teacher attitude toward writing instruction has studied English teachers in grade and high school. Where post-secondary teachers have been included, they were a small, undifferentiated part of the sample (Schuessler et al., 1981; Gere et al., 1982). The two studies with college writing teachers had assessed attitudes toward writing among teachers in various disciplines rather than concentrating on writing teachers (Zemelman, 1977; Maimon, 1978).

The present study added to the research by conducting attitude measurement with only post-secondary teachers who were teachers of writing. It built on Schuessler et al's work by replicating the study with Scales Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition. This instrument was chosen for the study for two reasons. It included both content- and student-centered items, and it had shown high validity and reliability as a measure of teacher attitude. The established validity and reliability are described in Chapter III.

Further adding to the research, this study went beyond attitude measurement to address attitude formation. In particular, the teacher's institution of employment was studied as an influence on attitude, with the sample representing both university and community college writing teachers.

In addition to institution, factors such as age, rank, degree, training, years and types of teaching experience, and composition course load were examined as possible influences on attitudes. Through additional questionnaire items and follow-up interviews the connection between these teacher variables and the responses to the scale items was explored.

Thus the study added to research on teacher attitudes towards writing instruction by examining only

post-secondary teachers with a view toward the impact of their institution on their attitudes, and the effect of other training, experience, and demographic variables as well. Its goals were to test the appropriateness of the scales, and, further, to identify and explore possible causal relationships between previously unstudied teacher variables and attitudes.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

The present study built on earlier attitude research, especially in its use of the Scales for Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition. It went beyond current attitude studies, however, to 1) test the appropriateness of the scales for attitude measurement; 2) survey formative relationships between demographic, training, and experience variables on attitudes measured; and 3) analyze teachers' responses to the questionnaire for relationships among these variables as they affected attitudes.

Since attitude measurement was the first task in the study, the procedure used allowed for the possible non-replication of Schuessler et al.'s scales, and instead, for the identification of new scales of attitudes appropriate to the population sampled. Therefore, the first research question given at the end of Chapter I was reformulated as the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: The Scales for Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition are appropriate for the sample of Oregon post-secondary composition teachers.

Operational technique used: factor analysis

The second purpose of the study was the identification of influential factors on the attitudes as defined by factor analysis of responses to the scales. Therefore, the second and third research questions given at the end of Chapter I were reformulated as the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Sex, age, rank, training, experience, and institution of employment affect the relevant attitudes.

Operational technique used: analysis of variance

The following diagram illustrates the concept underlying analysis of variance as a means of testing the second hypothesis. The independent variables shown in the first two groups were studied separately and in combination with each other to see their effect on the attitudes as defined by factor analysis.

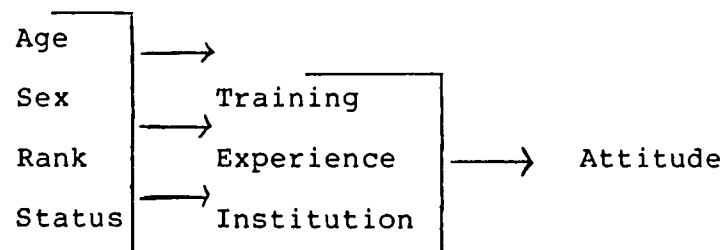


Figure 1. Analysis of variance model.

The procedures used in testing the hypotheses, to be explained in detail in this chapter, included:

1. Selection of institutions and teachers to include in the study.
2. Preparation of the questionnaire.
3. Pilot testing of the resulting questionnaire.
4. Administration of the questionnaire.
5. Preparation of the data for analysis.
6. Factor analysis of attitude statement responses.
7. ANOVA with key independent variables (training, etc.), and dependent variable attitudes.
8. Design of follow-up interview questions, selection of respondents to interview, and conduct of the interviews.

1. Selection of Institutions and Teachers

Paired community colleges and universities, were selected by area: Portland State University and Portland Community College in Portland, and the University of Oregon and Lane Community College in Eugene. The geographic pairs were selected since the transfer of students from the community college to the local university was frequent, and the transferability of required writing courses reflected similar course requirements at both institutions. Therefore, similarities in course content could be assumed as well as some similarities in students served.

Portland was selected as a site since it is the major metropolitan area of the state, with Portland Community College being the largest community college in the state. Eugene, though a smaller city than Portland, is the home of the largest of the three universities, the University of Oregon. Thus, both the largest community college and the largest university were represented in the sample.

An extra university, Oregon State University in Corvallis, was added to insure a representative response from university teachers. There were two reasons for this decision. First, while the University of Oregon was the largest of the three universities, two-thirds of its required composition classes were taught by graduate teaching fellows, a group not included in this study. Second, the investigator and a colleague conducting the study were employed at Portland State University as instructors in the English Department.¹ They did not feel they could count on colleagues' participation in the study since, despite a guarantee of confidentiality, some might worry about their opinions on the survey becoming known in the department. The latter concern, over low participation from Portland State University teachers, was unnecessary

¹Susan Danielson collaborated in the design and conduct of the research study.

as Table I shows, for Portland State teachers had the highest return rate.

TABLE I
PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS
AND RESPONSE RATES

Institution	Questionnaires Sent	Returned	Rate
<u>Universities</u>			
Portland State University	39	35	89.7%
University of Oregon	18	15	83.3%
Oregon State University	20	16	80.0%
<u>Community Colleges</u>			
Lane Community College	20	16	80.0%
Portland Community College	<u>25</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>64.0%</u>
<u>Total</u>	122	98	80.0%

Since this was a study of attitude formation among teachers, teaching assistants, who were technically teachers in training, were not included. Rather, the teaching assistantship was addressed in the survey instrument as a factor of training which could have an influence on attitude toward composition instruction. Also not surveyed were teachers of writing electives such as creative writing or journalism, since the study dealt

with attitudes toward instruction specifically of college composition in English Departments.

In September of 1982, with the help of composition directors at the universities and English department heads at the community colleges, names of current composition faculty were obtained. One composition director, however, preferred to ask faculty at that institution if they wished to participate in the study, rather than having them contacted directly by the investigator. Since such a selection procedure would surely bias the sample, if not virtually insure non-participation, the investigator contacted composition faculty at that institution, using a departmental course schedule to identify current teaching faculty. The response rate for this university (see Table I) was comparable to that of the other university where the investigator and her colleague were not known.

2. Preparation of the Questionnaire

Original Derivation and Testing of the Scales.

The attitude scales were used as the first part of the instrument. They were derived from Schuessler et al.'s (1981) analysis of responses of 28 English teachers in the Puget Sound Writing Program, another National Writing Project Program, to 46 items from the Composition Opinionnaire (NCTE, 1971). As noted in Chapter II, the scales contained statements on such topics as course

content, goals, student needs and methodology. The statements were rated by respondents on a five point Likert scale anchored by "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree." The researchers used Pearson's coefficient of correlation to identify four scales within which item responses correlated highly. They used Cronbach's alpha as a reliability test, finding alpha scores of from .70 to .74 for the scales with this sample.

Nine of the original items which had low correlation with others in the resultant scales were dropped, leaving 37 items in a questionnaire comprising four scales measuring distinct areas of attitude. The derived scales were labeled: 1) attitudes toward the instruction in the conventions of standard written English (Standard English); 2) attitudes toward the development of the students' linguistic maturity (Linguistic Maturity); 3) attitudes toward defining and evaluating writing tasks (Define and Evaluate); and 4) attitudes toward the importance of student self-expression (Student Self-expression).

Intercorrelation of the scores on each of the four scales showed scale scores to be relatively independent, thus not measuring a unidimensional attitude. Within each scale, high correlation between a single item response and responses to other items on the scale established convergent validity. Researchers interpreted response to a single item as a separate measure of the attitude; thus,

the correlation between responses to the item and responses to the remainder of the scale was interpreted as showing convergent validity of item and scale. Similarly, discriminant validity was established through intercorrelation of scores on the four scales, showing a negative or low correlation between responses to one scale's items and responses to items on other scales.

A later study by the same researchers broadened the data base, this time analyzing questionnaire data from over 300 members of the Washington Council of Teachers of English (Gere, et al., 1982). This questionnaire included 3 new items on the Student Self-expression scale, bringing the total number of items to 40, with 10 in each of the 4 scales.

The same measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, was used on the scores, and scores on the four scales were again intercorrelated. Once again, interpretation showed scale scores to be relatively independent, reaffirming discriminant validity. Convergent validity was established as in the previous study, by the high correlation among items within a scale.

A new development in the intercorrelational study with this larger population was the high positive correlation seen between the Standard English and Define and Evaluate scales and between the Linguistic Maturity and Student Self-expression scales. Conversely, a negative

correlation was found between, for example, Define and Evaluate and either Linguistic Maturity or Student Self-expression.

This correlation led the researchers to see the four scales as falling into two distinct subgroups, described in Chapter II as "nurture vs. nature" or "product vs. process." Thus, the researchers described teachers scoring high on the Standard English and Define and Evaluate scales as content- or product-centered; and those scoring high on Linguistic Maturity and Student Self-expression scales as student- or process-centered.

The resulting forty five-point Likert items used by Schuessler et al. were used as the attitude measure, the first objective of this study. Where necessary, slight modifications were made to make the statements appropriate to college teachers. For example, the word "pupil" was replaced by "student," and references to high school were either deleted or replaced by references to college.

The investigator designed additional questions for the study's second purpose: identifying formative influences on attitude. These were grouped under preparation for teaching, teaching assignment and preferences, and demographics. These preliminary additions to the attitude statements are contained in Appendix A. Alterations in these additional questions resulted from the

pilot testing of the questionnaire, as described in the next section.

3. Pilot Testing the Questionnaire

Research on questionnaire design recommended a pilot study before preparation of the final survey instrument to check for ease of completion, questions' appropriateness to investigator's intent, and respondents' general reaction to the instrument (Dillman, 1978). In October 1982, five faculty members in English from universities and community colleges were asked to pilot the questionnaire. None were members of the final sample; represented were full-time and part-time faculty at both types of institution.

Based on their critique of the additional items, some alterations were made in the final version. Deleted were questions on the teacher's rating of self as a writer and on preferred class size, material selection procedure, and institutional support for composition. While such information would have broadened the knowledge of teacher preferences, the investigator felt it would not deal directly with attitude formation. Instead, questions were added which seemed more pertinent for attitude study. Among these were questions on years of experience in college teaching and in the present institution, extent of involvement in writing outside of teaching, professional

memberships, amount of part-time contract (if part-time), and preference for part-time or full-time work.

Several in the pilot study noted that the questions on formative influences in training and in experience lacked a full range of choices. Missing were such options as the influence of colleagues and of reading in the field. The original rank-order format with forced choice among eight influences spanning training and experiences was judged inappropriate to full exploration of important influences. Therefore, the final version of the questionnaire included two open-ended questions, one on influential undergraduate or graduate school experiences and the other on influential post-graduate experiences. Coding frames were designed to allow computer analysis of these items with the rest of the numerically coded, forced-choice responses.

The final instrument contained two parts: Part I, the forty five-point Likert statements from Schuessler et al., modified as noted; Part II, twenty-four additional questions on training, experience, and demographics. The complete questionnaire is contained in Appendix B.

Faculty who participated in piloting the instrument took fifteen to twenty minutes to complete it, not counting the time they spent commenting on it for revision purposes. By using a categorical response format for all but the open-ended questions, the investigator judged comple-

tion time for the actual sample to be about twenty minutes also.

4. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was mailed to participants at their institutions in January, 1983. Teachers were assigned numbers, printed on their questionnaires, so that while institution of a returned survey was known, the respondent's name was not.

Careful follow-up contacts, as prescribed by Dillman (1978) contributed to a response rate of 80%, with the majority of completed questionnaires arriving by the end of the fifth week. One week after the questionnaire was mailed, a postcard was sent to all participants, thanking them for their returned survey, or reminding them to complete and return it, as appropriate. Three weeks from the original mailing, a replacement questionnaire with a cover letter was mailed, stressing the importance of the teacher's participation. Finally, seven weeks after the initial mailing, selected nonrespondents were called, asked if they needed yet another questionnaire, and urged to complete the survey. The majority of contacts at this point were with community college teachers, who were less represented in responses than were university teachers (see Table I). When reached by telephone, most of the community college teachers attributed their non-completion of the survey to the burden of class preparation and paper

grading which took precedence for them. They were not uncooperative; rather, they seemed harried. Several later did participate in brief telephone interviews designed to find any major differences between respondents and non-respondents on either part of the instrument. Their responses to eight attitude statements and ten questions from Part II of the questionnaire showed no major differences from the respondents in attitudes expressed, training, experience, or demographics.

The cover letter, as well as all follow-up correspondence, is included in Appendix C. Table II shows the dates of contact with survey participants and the resulting numbers of responses.

TABLE II
SCHEDULE OF CONTACT WITH SAMPLE
AND SUBSEQUENT RESPONSES

Contact	Responses	
January 17, 1983: original cover letter and questionnaire mailed.	January 17-21:	28
January 25, 1983: Postcard mailed	January 24-28:	35
February 7, 1983: second letter and replacement question- naire mailed	January 31-Feb. 4:	18
March 7-March 11, 1983 Phone calls to non- respondents at community colleges	February 7-11:	7
	February 14-18:	8
	February 21-25:	1
	February 28-Mar. 4:	1
Total		98

A number of the returned questionnaires contained comments critical of the questions themselves. Notable among these were comments on the wording and presumed intent of items in Part I, the attitude statements themselves. It seemed appropriate to add to the data analysis, information on strength and direction of comments on both the attitude measures and the formation factors. In addition, several comments alerted the investigator to a proofreading error which had left the word "proffessor" (sic) in the response choices to a question on instructional rank. A separate code was devised for noting or commenting on that feature also. The error may have been serendipitous, for later frequency counts showed the spelling error to be commented on only by university teachers (18% of that group did so). It can not be assumed, of course, that the community college teachers did not notice it; perhaps they were reading for content alone.

5. Preparation of the Data

Responses to the attitude statements and to the questions on demographics, training and experience were coded according to a codebook prepared by the investigator and included in Appendix D. The responses were key-punched and transferred to a tape for entry into the Honeywell 66/40 at PSU. Statistical analyses of the data thus prepared were conducted using the following sub-

programs of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences: FREQUENCIES, CROSSTABS, FACTOR, and ANOVA.

6. Factor Analysis of Attitude Item Responses

Factor analysis was to be used on the responses to the forty Likert items, the attitude statements, which were the dependent variables in the study. This procedure was to test the first hypothesis on the appropriateness of the scales for the sample. Before conducting factor analysis, however, the investigator explored possible relationships among these dependent variables by studying frequency data to see responses to items by the total sample and by institution. Items which showed a fairly equal distribution of "agree" and "disagree" responses were then crosstabulated with each other and with independent variables, the training, demographic, and experience items. This was done to single out items in the attitude statements which reflected similarities and differences in attitude, and which could thus lead to a conceptual understanding of subsequent factor analysis with the dependent variables. Further, crosstabulation of dependent and independent variables allowed the investigator to focus on certain independent variables for future ANOVA study. Chi squares, $p = .05$, or approaching that level of confidence, were used to identify independent variables for ANOVA to test hypothesis 2 on the individual and interactive effect of independent variables on attitudes.

Factor analysis of the dependent variable attitude statements resulted in four models, to be discussed in detail in Chapter IV. In the first two models, items 7, 10, 12, 27, and 37 were reverse scored, with "5" for strongly disagree and "1" for strongly agree. This was done to replicate Schuessler et al.'s procedures which had resulted in the composition of the four scales. In an effort to find any attitude scales with the sample in this study, the investigator obtained two more factor analytic models without reverse scoring of the five items earlier mentioned. It should be noted at this point that subsequent ANOVA designs to test the second hypothesis resulted from the failure of factor analysis to either replicate the four scales or to yield meaningful new ones.

As a statistical tool, factor analysis requires as much art as it does science; the loading of items on a factor, as reported by the technique, may have none other than a mathematical explanation. This possibility, of factors emerging from the analysis which had no grounding in the investigator's experience of the field or in the related literature, was anticipated in the design of the study, with various ANOVA procedures and follow-up interviews.

7. Analysis of Variance

Combined Dependent Variables from Factor Analysis with Reversals. Independent variables observed to be

related to variation in attitude statements from earlier crosstabulation study were used in ANOVA with combined items from the first 3-factor model as dependent variables. Initially, items from the attitude scales were selected by strength of loading on the first 3-factor model (see Table V), and were combined into new dependent variables. Items grouped this way were selected not only for strength of loading on the factors, but also because they had elicited a full distribution of responses. The new groupings were:

From factor 1: items 10, 12, and 31;

From factor 2: items 6, 7, and 40;

items 2, 16, and 30;

items 7, 21, and 28.

Independent variables used in ANOVA with these four variables were: sex, age, institution, composition course load, preferred composition course load, influence of teaching assistantship, years of experience, and status of employment.

Combined Dependent Variables from Factor Analysis without Reversals. A similar effort to strengthen the variance accounted for by independent variables was undertaken with ANOVA using combinations of dependent variables from the 2-factor model without score reversals.

Combined from factor 1 and generally seen as content-centered were two sets:

items 6, 7, and 12

items 30, 35, and 40

Combined from factor 2, and seen as labeled below were the following sets:

items 21, 28, and 37 (student-centered)

items 5, 9 and 10 (student- and content-centered)

The independent variables used in the previous ANOVAs were retained. In contrast to the previous ANOVAs, this series used status of employment and influence of teaching assistantship in every ANOVA, rather than varying the combinations of independent variables. Earlier crosstabulations and ANOVA had indicated an effect of these independent variables on attitude statement response.

ANOVA with Separate Items from Part I as Dependent Variables. Given the weakness of the models produced by factor analysis, and the weak effect of independent variables on combined dependent variables observed in ANOVAs to this point, the investigator decided to conduct further ANOVAs with the relevant independent variables, using single items from the first part of the questionnaire as dependent variables. This was done to test the second hypothesis on the effects of training, demographics, and experience on attitudes measured by the forty items. Having determined through study of the factor analytic models that representative, meaningful attitude scales were not emerging for this population with this instrument, the in-

investigator opted to study single and interactive effects of independent variables already seen as important on individual attitude item responses.

The dependent variables now studied individually through ANOVA were content-centered items: numbers 6, 12, 30, and 35; and student-centered items: numbers 10, 21, 28, and 37. These items were broad statements of purposes for and approaches to composition instruction and evaluation of student writing. Each had already been studied through ANOVA in combination with two others, and all, with the exception of items 35 and 37, had shown a fairly equal distribution of responses.

The above attitude statements used as dependent variables were also used in a final follow-up by telephone with five non-respondents, as were selected questions from Part II. This was done to identify any major differences in training, experience, demographics and expressed attitudes of the non-respondents from the respondents.

Independent variables found to have a significant interaction ($p < .05$) with the dependent attitude variables in this set of ANOVAs were then used as descriptors in establishing categories of respondents to be included in follow-up interviews.

8. Follow-up Interviews

To further specify attitudes toward composition instruction, given the lack of scales from this study, and

to explore formative influences on such attitudes, follow-up interviews were conducted. Practitioners in attitude study had stressed the value of interviews to probe single responses and explore patterns among responses on measurement instruments (Henerson 1978; Denzin, 1970). Henerson specifically recommended interviews for checking the use of "socially desirable" responses and attempting to discover reasons behind attitude statements (p. 145).

Zemelman (1977) had followed a non-schedule standardized format (Denzin, 1970) in his interviews with college teachers about the place of writing in learning. The same approach, varying phrasing and ordering of questions, but getting at the same concepts in each interview, was used in this study. An instructive feature, for attitude study, of the free-flowing interview used was the variation in length and specificity of comment on particular topics by various respondents. So, while the investigator covered the same topics with each person interviewed, specific questions on formative influences in training or experiences were asked only when answers were vague.

Categories used to identify persons for interviewing came from ANOVA study with training, demographic and experience variables already seen to be influential on separate attitude statements. From each category, shown in Table 3, one subject was chosen for an interview, thus providing six follow-up interviews.

TABLE III
CATEGORIES OF RESPONDENTS FOR INTERVIEWS
AND N IN EACH GROUP

Descriptors	N in sample
1. community college, part-time non Ph.D., under 15 years experience, more than 3 composition courses per year, influenced by a teaching assistantship.	6
2. university, part-time, non Ph.D., under 15 years experience, more than 3 composition courses/year, influenced by a teaching assistanship.	9
3. community college, full-time non Ph.D., more than 15 years experience, more than 3 composition courses per year.	7
4. university, full-time Ph.D., over 15 years experience, under 3 composition courses per year, none or little TA influence.	4
5. university, full-time, Ph.D., under 15 years experience, more than 3 composition courses per year.	3
6. community college, Ph.D.*	4

*Additional descriptors were not used, since only four community college teachers in the sample had Ph.Ds.

Interview participants were asked at the outset of the interview to choose one of two "composition models" as the better statement of their approach to composition

instruction. The investigator had prepared the two models, paraphrasing items from the attitude scales. While referred to here as "Model P" and "Model D," they were presented side by side without identifying title or explanatory comment. Model P was composed of items which had loaded on factor 1 in the two-factor model without reverse scoring. It was prescriptive and content centered. Model D contained items which had loaded on factor 2 of that same model. In contrast, it was student-centered and developmental. These written models thus asked respondents to make a choice between composition paradigms previously described as process- or product- centered, nature or nurture. Such a choice had also been forced by the survey instrument, but it had not yielded useful attitude scales. The two models and interview questions following them are printed below.

(Model P)

The college composition course teaches students the conventions of standard edited English with the production of error-free expository pieces as the goal. Grades function both as motivators and evaluators in this process. While narration and description are included in the course, the primary writing mode is exposition. Grammar instruction is included since correct English is based on logical relationships within the language.

A broad literature program and a wide range of student experiences enhance student writing improvement. The final measure of such improvement is the extent to which students discipline their own writing to conform to conventions of standard English.

(Model D)

The college composition course is designed to meet individual student needs for development of self-expression in writing. The course offers strategies for discovery, clarification, and expression of ideas so that students can discover various forms of writing appropriate to their ideas rather than writing papers in assigned modes.

Increased writing fluency and frequency are goals for the course. To these ends, the instructor uses the students' own writing as the course content, matching instruction to the interests and needs expressed. The instructor avoids over-emphasis on grammatical correctness and conformity to standard English conventions as potentially inhibiting to students' writing growth.

After the respondents had chosen a composition model, follow-up questions were asked in order to better understand sources of the attitude expressed in the chosen model. It should be noted that some respondents explained the reasons behind their model choice, or ambivalence about the models, without prompting. Thus the following questions were not used either completely or in sequence. Rather, they led the respondent to focus on training or experience as related to the attitude expressed.

Follow-up questions:

1. Would you say that your formal training contributed to that attitude? If so, in what way?
(Respondents who had stated a strong influence of teaching assistantship were asked: In what way(s) was the teaching assistantship influential on this attitude?

2. What experiences since beginning teaching have contributed to that attitude? How has the school in which you teach contributed? What about your employment status-- full- or part-time-- has that affected the attitude? How does the amount of composition you teach affect it?
3. Does the attitude statement you chose at the beginning of the interview represent a change for you from an earlier attitude? If so, what was that change and how did it occur?

The interviews were conducted in May, 1983. Each lasted thirty to sixty minutes. Participants were extremely cooperative, even loquacious. All expressed their pleasure at being able to provide more in-depth responses than had been allowed on the survey itself.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The goals of the study were 1) to test the appropriateness as an attitude measure of Schuessler et al.'s scales with a sample of Oregon community college and university teachers, and 2) to gauge the effect of training, experience, and demographic variables on the attitudes thus measured. The findings in this study are presented in sections below which follow the progress of the analyses designed to test the two hypotheses. The sections are 1) general description of the sample from survey responses, 2) identification of important variables, 3) appropriateness of the scales, 4) relationship among select variables, and 5) interview findings.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Demographics, Training and Experience

Examination of frequency data showed similarities between the community college and university teachers in age, with 1/3 to 1/2 under 40 and 75% of the sample under 50; in sex, with nearly equal numbers of men and women; in experience at present institution, with 77% under 15 years; in proportion of full-time to part-time teachers of

writing, 58% to 42%; and in preference for full-time employment by 65% to 75% of the sample. Factors in training were comparable for both groups with an emphasis on literature, very little training in composition instruction, and a graduate teaching assistantship which was influential for 70% of the sample.

Among the differences noted were highest degree earned, years of experience in college teaching, actual and preferred amount of composition teaching, and preferred institution of employment. Table IV shows these differences. Complete frequency data on training, experience, and demographics are contained in Appendix F.

The proportion of full-time to part-time teachers was equivalent at both institutions. There was a difference between the percentage of full-time community college teachers with more than three writing courses per year (81%) and the percentage of university teachers with the same load (54%). One obvious reason for this discrepancy is the difference in full-time equivalent definition at the two institutions. At the community college, the minimum full-time teaching load is four courses or twelve quarter hours; while at the university, a full-time load is three courses, or nine quarter hours. Even accounting for the difference in work-load for full-time faculty at the two institutions, it is apparent that the universities

TABLE IV
COMPARISON OF DEMOGRAPHICS, TRAINING, AND
EXPERIENCE OF FACULTY AT UNIVERSITIES AND
COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Variable	Community College		University	
	N	Adj. Freq.(%)*	N	Adj. Freq.(%)*
degree:				
no Ph.D.	27	87.1	27	44.3
Ph.D.	4	12.9	34	55.7
college teaching experience:				
under 7 years	4	12.9	21	33.9
7-14 years	16	51.6	20	32.3
15 years or more	11	35.5	21	33.9
actual composition courses taught per year:				
3 or less	6	19.4	28	45.9
more than 3	25	80.6	33	54.1
preferred compo- sition courses to teach per year:				
3 or less	10	32.3	48	78.7
more than 3	21	67.7	13	21.3
preferred insti- tution of employment:				
community				
college	18	66.7	2	3.3
university	9	33.3	59	96.7

*adjusted for missing values

rely more heavily than do the community colleges on part-time teachers for staffing writing courses.

At two of the participating universities, the use of graduate teaching assistants for a major part of composition staffing further distances full-time faculty from composition teaching. This study did not survey present teaching assistants, but did look at the effect of such experience on present teachers' attitudes toward composition instruction.

Attitude Statement Responses

A complete list of the attitude statements, their mean response, and standard deviations, is provided in Appendix E. For all but seven of the statements, community college and university teachers showed the same pattern of agree or disagree responses with only slight differences by institution in strength of agreement or disagreement. On two of these seven items, however, this difference in strength of responses amounted to ten percent or more.

On the remaining five items the responses by institution actually contrasted, with the community college teachers tending to agree and the university teachers tending to disagree with the statements. T-tests were used to identify statistically significant differences in these institutional responses. Table V contains these seven attitude statements, the mean responses by

TABLE V
A COMPARISON OF SELECT ATTITUDE
STATEMENTS BY INSTITUTION TYPE

Statement	N	Mean*	t	p-value
6. Correct English = logical relationships in language	cc:30 univ:57	3.53 3.02	2.07	0.043
7. Creative dramatization, role-playing, etc. have little effect on composition.	cc:30 univ:61	3.13 2.80	1.40	0.164
10. Little research evidence for efficacy of grammar instruction on writing improvement.	cc:31 univ:60	3.10 2.73	1.44	0.154
12. Composition's purpose: discipline writing, learn standards.	cc:30 univ:61	3.43 2.93	1.93	0.056
28. Students given freedom in composing will discover forms.	cc:30 univ:57	3.27 2.93	1.45	0.149
30. Composition's obligation: conventions of standard English.	cc:30 univ:61	2.93 2.67	1.11	0.270
37. Composition evaluation to guide individual student development.	cc:31 univ:62	4.06 3.82	1.23	0.221

* 1 = strongly disagree
5 = strongly agree

institution, and mean differences. A mean difference at $p = .05$ was judged to be statistically significant. Such a difference was seen for item 6, while that for item 12 approached statistical significance.

Item 12 addressed the purpose of composition instruction and evaluation and showed a contrast in response by institution. Two other items which also addressed these purposes showed differences in degree of the same response by institutions. The first, item 30, stated that the obligation of composition instruction was to teach conventions of standard educated English. At both institutions, more teachers disagreed with this than agreed with it. The stronger disagreement came from the university, though, where 57% of the sample disagreed in contrast to 43% of the community college group who disagreed. The second purpose statement, item 37, identified the purpose of composition evaluation as the guidance of individual student development. Here, both groups agreed, but at the community college that opinion came from 90% of the teachers while at the university it was from 75%. So, while the majority of community college teachers agreed that the purpose of composition instruction was to teach standards in writing, they were less ready to support these conventions as the central obligation of instruction, and instead strongly advocated individual student

development as the goal of composition evaluation. In contrast, university teachers were evenly divided on knowledge of standards in writing as the main purpose of composition instruction, and the majority did not agree that these conventions were the major obligation of instruction. However, their support for individual student development as the goal of composition evaluation was not so strong as that of the community college teachers. The impression created by the frequency data on these statements of purpose was of a generally conservative but student-supportive community college faculty and of a university faculty more divided on issues of standards and evaluation in the composition classroom.

The community college teachers' tendency to agree with items 6 and 7 bolstered the initial conservative impression. Their agreement with items 10 and 28, however, suggested more liberal attitudes, perhaps reflecting classroom experience.

University teachers' division on items 6, 10, and 28 seemed to reinforce the impression of attitude differences in the group toward goals and practices of composition instruction. In short, university teachers did not appear to respond as a group so often as community college teachers did.

IDENTIFICATION OF IMPORTANT VARIABLES

The independent training, experience, and demographic variables (Table I) and dependent attitude variables (Table II) already seen to be different by institution, were crosstabulated, reinforcing observations drawn from original frequency data. Part-time teachers did carry the majority of composition courses at the university; more community college teachers taught more composition than did university teachers; and more community college teachers than university teachers preferred a heavy composition course load. Finally, more part-time teachers preferred heavy composition course loads than did full-time teachers. This preference must be viewed, though, in light of the prevailing practice at the universities sampled of hiring part-time instructors to teach only composition. A preference for more composition courses, then, may translate into a preference for fuller employment.

To examine association of independent variables, additional crosstabulation was done with variables of institution, degree, employment status, actual composition course load, preferred composition course load, and years of experience. Chi square tests were used to identify statistically significant association. The results are listed and explained in Table VI.

TABLE VI
CHI SQUARES AND SIGNIFICANCE FOR
COMBINED INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
($\alpha = .05$, $df = 1$)

Variables	Chi Square	Significance
degree & institution with years experience	15.89	$p = .0001$
None of the community college teachers with over 15 years experience had a Ph.D., while over 80% of the university teachers with this experience did.		
degree & institution with employment status	12.69	$p = .0004$
11% of full-time community college teachers had a Ph.D.; 66% of full-time university teachers did.		
employment status & actual composition load with preferred composition load	9.45	$p = .0021$
75% of part-time composition teachers with more than 3 courses per year preferred fewer than 4 per year.		
institution & actual composition load with employment status	5.82	$p = .0159$
72% of the full-time and 92% of the part-time faculty teach more than 3 composition courses per year. At the university, only 33% of the full-time, contrasted with 84% of the part-time, teach more than 3 a year.		

Analysis of frequency and crosstabulation data thus far had indicated some institutional differences in attitude statements. Further, specific independent variables in combination suggested possible formative influences on attitudes. Therefore, a final crosstabulation was run and analyzed in preparation for factor analysis. The goal of these preliminary analyses was to anticipate conceptual categories of attitude which factor analysis might reveal. In addition, the investigator wished to explore interaction among independent variables as well as effect of independent variables on the dependent attitude statement variables. Thus, these initial data treatments were in preparation for both factor analysis and ANOVA testing of the two hypotheses.

In this final pre-factor analysis stage, contrastive attitude statements from Table V were crosstabulated with independent variables used in earlier crosstabulation study. The first two attitude statements, items 6 and 31, affirm the importance of grammar as logic and the need for studying forms of discourse in the composition course. In almost direct opposition, the second pair of statements, items 10 and 28, assert that grammar study does not benefit writing development and that students allowed to write freely will discover forms for themselves. So, in a micro-version, these pairs of statements represented the prescriptive, error-eradication, or content-based approach

to teaching writing and the developmental, expectation, or student-based model, both previously described in Chapter II.

Table VII shows the responses by categories of respondents.

A pattern of agreement with the first pair and disagreement with the second was evident at both institutions from teachers who were employed part-time, without a Ph.D., with under seven years of teaching experience, and a moderate to strong influence of a teaching assistantship. This group seemed to embody the attitudes characteristic of Kroll's "nurture" model of composition described in Chapter II. Their responses to the items noted suggested a sense of the composition course as a body of knowledge, central to which are correct forms and standard conventions. No other distinct groups, by degree, institution, or years experience, emerged on the basis of responses to these attitude items. The items had first shown different responses by institution.

Study of initial frequency and crosstabulation data thus suggested independent variables for further analysis through ANOVA to see their effect on attitude statements. Independent variables thus examined were institution, employment status, degree, influence of a teaching assistantship, composition course load, and years experience.

TABLE VII
RESPONSES TO CONTRASTIVE ATTITUDE STATEMENTS
BY CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS

<u>Prescriptive, error-eradication items</u>	
grammar important as logic	distinguishing among forms of discourse important
agree PT, nonPh.D., univ (70%)* FT, nonPh.D., cc (70%) Under 15 yrs. exp. w/strong TA influence (60%)	PT, nonPh.D., Univ (64%)*
dis- agree FT, nonPh.D. univ. (75%) 15 Yrs. or more w/strong TA infl. (70%)	PT, nonPh.D., cc (64%) PT, Ph.D., Univ (70%)
<u>Developmental, positive expectation items</u>	
grammar knowledge not helpful in writing development	given freedom, students discover form
agree under 7 yrs. exp. no TA infl. (67%) over 7 yrs. exp., nonPh.D. (55%) over 15 yrs. exp. cc (64%)	FT, nonPh.D., cc (69%) FT, nonPh.D., Univ (42%)
dis- agree under 7 yrs. exp., w/strong TA infl. (50%)* Ph.D., all exp. levels (60%) under 7 yrs., nonPh.D. (38%)* over 15 yrs., univ (45%)	PT, nonPh.D., univ (43%)* PT, nonPh.D., cc (36%)

Key: PT = part-time; FT = full-time; univ = university; cc= community college; yrs. exp. = years of experience; TA infl. = teaching assistantship influence; * = nonPh.D., part-time, under 7 years experience, with strong TA influence.

APPROPRIATENESS OF THE SCALES

In this section, results of Cronbach's alpha, as a reliability measure for the scales with this population are given. Also, results of the various factor analytic models used to test the hypothesis on the scales' appropriateness are provided and discussed. Finally, an item analysis undertaken by the investigator as a follow-up to factor analysis is explained. The analysis was done to investigate reasons for the nonreplication of the scales in this study. Limitations of the scales for accurate attitude measurement were suggested.

Cronbach's Alpha Test of Reliability

The alpha reliability scores of the scales for this population equaled or exceeded those found in the previous studies with the scales. The alpha scores are shown in Table VIII.

Reliability of the scales was thus judged acceptable. Validity, as will be discussed, was another matter.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was used in an effort to identify conceptual categories, or scales, for the attitude statements as responded to by this sample of community college and university teachers. This was done to test the first hypothesis that the scales would be appropriate for

TABLE VIII
CRONBACH'S ALPHA RELIABILITY SCORES FOR
THE ATTITUDE SCALES

Scales	Schuessler <u>et al.</u> (1981, N = 28)	Gere <u>et al.</u> (1982, N = 311)	present study (1983, N = 98)
Standard English	.72	.66	.72
Define and Evaluate	.74	.70	.75
Linguistic Maturity	.73	.49 ¹	.80
Student Self- expression	.70	.60	.73

¹Gere et al. attributed the rather low reliability here to the larger, more heterogeneous sample, which was less informed about linguistic concerns in writing, than was the 1981 sample.

attitude measurement with this population. As described in Chapter III, the scoring methods used by Schuessler et al. were thus replicated to maximize the possibility of the same four scales emerging from factor analysis of the data with this sample.

Two models were obtained with Schuessler et al.'s scoring pattern: "5" for strongly agree and "1" for strongly disagree on all items except 7, 10, 12, 27, and 37. The first, a 4-factor model, showed an almost total redistribution of scale items from the responses to the instrument when used by Schuessler et al. The result of that research had been the identification of four scales measuring distinct categories of attitudes toward the teaching of writing. As described in Chapters II and III, these scales were labeled: Standard English, Define and Evaluate, Linguistic Maturity, and Student Self-Expression. The previous researchers had identified separate dimensions of attitude with the scales. In addition, they had seen a correlation between pairs of the scales: specifically, between Standard English/Define and Evaluate and between Linguistic Maturity/Student Self-expression. Neither the location of attitude statements on these scales nor the correlation between pairs of scales was seen in this analysis. Rather, the location of attitude variables on these four factors seemed almost random.

Gould's (1981) caveat on the use of factor analysis provided rueful comfort:

A factor analysis for a 5 by 5 correlation matrix of my age, the population of Mexico, the price of swiss cheese, my pet turtle's weight, and the average distance between galaxies during the past ten years will yield a strong principal component. This component -- since all correlations are so strongly positive -- will probably resolve a high percentage of information. . . . It will also have no enlightening meaning whatever (p. 250).

Table IX shows the results of this 4-factor model along with the Schuessler et al. scale identifiers for each item.

In an attempt to select a model in which the factors would explain the most variance, a second model, a 3-factor one, was obtained.

Factor location of each item on this study's 4-factor model is referenced. As with the previous 4-factor model, items did not fall into Schuessler et al.'s scale grouping here, but rather were distributed among the three factors. While factors 1 and 2 contained more Standard English and Define and Evaluate items than did factor 3, factors 1 and 2 contained almost equal proportions of Standard English, Define and Evaluate, and Student Self-expression items. And while items from the Linguistic Maturity Scale loaded most highly on factor 3, this factor also included items from the other three scales as well. Table X contains the results of the 3-factor model of factor analysis.

TABLE IX

FACTOR ANALYSIS: 4-FACTOR MODEL REPLICATING SCHUESSLER ET AL.'S SCORING PROCEDURE^a

Factor 1			Factor 2			Factor 3			Factor 4		
Item No.	Schuessler Scale ^b	Loading	Item No.	Schuessler Scale ^b	Loading	Item No.	Schuessler Scale ^b	Loading	Item No.	Schuessler Scale ^b	Loading
1	SE	.25	04	DE	.31	5	ST.SE	-.30	8	DE	.28
2	LM	.30	23	LM	-.47	9	ST.SE	-.26	10	SE	.26
3	LM	.41	24	SE	.28	11	DE	.26	14	LM	.33
6	SE	.38	25	LM	.59	12	ST.SE	-.37	15	ST.SE	-.36
7	ST.SE	.50	28	ST.SE	-.39	19	DE	.45	17	SE	.59
13	LM	.34	32	LM	.57	20	LM	.52	18	SE	.58
16	SE	.33	33	DE	.29	22	SE	.47	31	DE	.51
21	ST.SE	.21	36	SE	.24	27	ST.SE	.27	34	ST.SE	.35
26	DE	.58				37	DE	.40	39	SE	.24
29	DE	.53									
30	DE	.34									
35	LM	.42									
38	LM	.41									
40	ST.SE	.37									
CVC	35.1%			27.4%			21.3%			16.2%	

^aItems were assigned to factors on the basis of highest loading.

^bSchuessler Scales: SE = standard English
DE = define & evaluate
LM = linguistic maturity
ST.SE = student self-expression

^ccommon variance

TABLE X

FACTOR ANALYSIS: 3-FACTOR MODEL REPLICATING SCHUESSLER ET AL.'S SCORING PROCEDURE

Factor 1			Factor 2			Factor 3		
Item No	Location ^a	Loading	Item No	Location ^a	Loading	Item No	Location ^a	Loading
5	3	-.29	1	1	.24	3	1	-.41
8	4	.36	2	1	.35	4	2	.27
9	3	-.15	6	1	.36	14	4	-.30
10	4	.11	7	1	.51	23	2	-.48
11	3	.26	13	1	.33	24	2	.28
12	3	.49	15	4	.24	25	2	.59
17	4	.40	16	1	.30	32	2	.57
18	4	.61	21	1	.24	33	2	.29
19	3	.38	26	1	.43	28	2	-.40
20	3	.36	29	1	.55			
22	3	.58	30	1	.30			
27	3	.29	35	1	.42			
31	4	.37	37	3	-.18			
34	4	.18	38	1	.40			
36	2	.27	40	1	.38			
39	4	.34						
cv ^b	41.7%			32.8%			25.4%	

^a=location on 4-factor model, this study^b=common variance

Retaining Schuessler et al.'s scoring method, with reversals of items 7, 10, 12, 27, and 37, had not yielded results through factor analysis at all approximating the scales found by the previous researchers. Indeed, the investigator of this study questioned whether reversing the scoring of an item for placement on a scale retained the intent of the response. Therefore, to investigate what scales, if any, could emerge for the attitude statements used with this population, the investigator conducted further factor analysis with all items scored "5" for strongly agree and "1" for strongly disagree. In this way, the responses of the sample would be subjected to factor analysis exactly as they were given, without score reversals based on the previous study's finding of correlations among responses when selected items were reverse-scored.

Using straight scoring, with "5" for strongly agree and "1" for strongly disagree on all forty items, the investigator obtained two additional factor analysis models. Table XI shows the first, a 3-factor model. New scales representative of distinct attitudes towards either students or content in the composition course did not emerge. Factor 1 contained equal numbers of Standard English/Define and Evaluate and Linguistic Maturity/Student Self-expression items. Factor 2 contained six from the first pair and nine from the second pair, and factor 3

TABLE XI
FACTOR ANALYSIS: 3-FACTOR MODEL USING STRAIGHT SCORING PROCEDURE

Factor 1			Factor 2			Factor 3		
Item No	Location ^a	Loading	Item No	Location ^a	Loading	Item No	Location ^a	Loading
1	2	.26	3	3	.39	5	1	-.29
2	2	.30	4	3	-.22	9	1	-.19
6	2	.40	11	1	-.46	10	1	.35
7	2	.60	13	2	.27	18	1	.62
8	1	.30	15	2	.11	19	1	.39
12	1	.54	20	1	-.42	22	1	.78
14	3	.24	21	2	.15	33	3	.23
16	2	.27	23	3	.55			
17	1	.35	24	3	-.28			
26	2	.53	25	3	-.54			
27	1	.24	28	3	.36			
29	2	.43	31	1	.33			
30	2	.53	32	3	-.39			
34	1	.20	36	1	-.23			
35	2	.50	37	2	.49			
38	2	.40						
39	1	.22						
40	2	.25						
cv ^b	44.8%			32.9%			22.2%	

^a=location on 3-factor model with reversals, this study
^b=common variance

contained 4 from the first pair and three from the second pair.

A second model with straight scoring was run, this one a 2-factor model. Again, each factor contained nearly equal proportions of items from the original researchers' four scales. Table XII shows this final, 2-factor model.

The items with the highest loading on factor 1, numbers 7, 12, 17, 26, 30, and 35, though from various scales, did have in common a prescriptive approach and a goal of standardized forms in writing instruction. In contrast, items with the highest negative loading on factor 2, numbers 23, 28, and 37, shared a developmental approach and a goal of individual student growth in writing. Still, no common underlying factor for items in either of the groups was seen to realistically differentiate the two sets of items as separate attitude classes.

Factor analysis of the attitude statement responses thus included four models, two in which the scoring procedures of Schuessler et al. were retained, and two in which all items were scored as marked. None of these models revealed meaningful attitudinal categories.

Re-assessment of the Attitude Scales: the Tabula Rasa/ "Noble Savage" Paradigm

The investigator attempted to discover the reasons for the lack of clear relationships among attitude state-

TABLE XII

FACTOR ANALYSIS: 2-FACTOR MODEL USING STRAIGHT SCORING PROCEDURE

Factor 1			Factor 2		
Item No	Location ^a	Loading	Item No	Location ^a	Loading
1	1	.28	3	2	-.35
2	1	.23	4	2	.27
6	1	.37	5	3	-.15
7	1	.57	9	3	-.18
8	1	.37	10	3	.15
12	1	.45	11	2	.35
13	2	.29	15	2	-.14
14	1	.27	20	2	.51
16	1	.34	21	2	-.10
17	1	.42	22	3	.48
18	3	.39	23	2	-.57
19	3	.26	24	2	.26
26	1	.57	25	2	.49
27	1	.24	28	2	-.32
29	1	.38	32	2	.32
30	1	.53	36	3	.28
31	2	.29	33	2	.32
34	1	.22	37	2	-.34
35	1	.52			
38	1	.31			
39	1	.23			
40	1	.23			
cv ^b	58%			42%	

a=location on 3-factor model without reversals, this study

b=common variance

ments as they had been grouped by factor analysis. For this purpose, items were analyzed according to the view they reflected of the student, the course content, and the interaction of the two in the composition class. Kroll (1981) had used the nurture/nature paradigm as a description of product-centered versus process-centered composition instruction, as described in Chapter II.

The majority of items in the scales were phrased to focus on student needs or performance in composition. In keeping with this focus, an item analysis categorized the attitude statements on the basis of the teacher's view of the student. Within this framework, the investigator saw twenty of the forty statements as expressing a Tabula Rasa view of the student in the composition class. Such a view could be summarized as a belief that composition is a standard body of knowledge to be passed on to students. The goal of instruction is correct use of forms, and the teaching is complete when the forms are mastered. In sharp contrast to the Tabula Rasa items, were five statements, labeled the "Noble Savage" group, which suggested a view of students as nascent writers, for whom the greater the freedom, the less structure, and even direct instruction they had, the more their writing would improve.

The Tabula Rasa items placed the course content first, with students' role being internalization of conventions and forms. The "Noble Savage" items placed the

student at the center of the composition class, with their own growth in written expression as the goal.

In this item analysis, the investigator was concerned not only with the high percentage (50%) of prescriptive, body of knowledge attitude statements, but also with the general lack of statements which would balance the Tabula Rasa against the "Noble Savage" -- a representative group of "interactive" attitude statements. Such statements could speak to accommodation between course content and student needs, the "contraries" in the composition teaching process which Peter Elbow (1983) addressed. Addition of such a model, an interactive one, would provide a fuller picture of approaches to and attitudes about composition teaching, since it would be a dynamic model. It would be founded neither on primacy of content (Tabula Rasa), nor on primacy of student ("Noble Savage"), but on shifting the emphasis to suit the writing task at hand and the student's level of development as a writer.

Of the remaining fourteen items, only six were identified as interactive, approaching a view of adaptation of instruction to meet student needs or balancing student-and content-centered instruction. They reflect the posture described by Elbow (1983) of bridging the gap between teacher as adversary, with first loyalty to subject matter, and teacher as ally, with first loyalty to student. The dearth of interactive items on this instru-

ment speaks to the difficulty of blending these opposing attitudes in the teaching process.

The remaining nine items were seen to fall outside the parameters of student-centered or content-centered instruction. Table XIII lists the attitude statements in categories assigned in this process.

TABLE XIII

STUDENT VIEW IDENTIFIERS AND RELEVANT ATTITUDE STATEMENTS

View of Student Needs in Composition	Attitude Statements
<u>Tabula Rasa</u> : Course content is a standard body of knowledge; goals of the course are correctness and use of standard forms; grades serve to motivate and evaluate.	1,3,4,6,7,8,10,11,17, 18,19,22,24,26,27,29, 30,35,36,39
<u>"Noble Savage"</u> : Students' growth in native self-expression and written fluency are course goals; evaluation is secondary to enjoyment of writing.	15,21,23,28,40
<u>Interactive</u> : Course content will vary depending on student needs; a balance between subject matter and student calls for teacher flexibility.	5,9,25,32,34,37
Outside the paradigm	2,12,13,14,16,20,31,33, 38

Limitations of the Scales

The forty items of the attitude scales then, did not seem capable of measuring the full range of teacher attitudes toward writing instruction, since the majority of items forced a choice between student and material. The investigator saw this as a false dichotomy. Further, whereas the literature had repeatedly shown a relationship among a writing process approach, student self-confidence and self-concept, the teacher as a writer, and the teacher's role as evaluator; the instrument did not address these as attitude variables. The absence of attitude statements on these topics created a serious problem for attitude measurement.

The observed clustering of responses to all but the seven items used in crosstabulation reflected the instrument's limitations, its failure to include the widest range of attitudes about composition instruction.

Factor analysis had not produced meaningful scales with which to assess attitudes toward the teaching of composition. Instead, the results pointed up the weakness of the forty items in the questionnaire: they tended to limit attitude response to student-centered or content-centered priorities. Thus, in Table XII a majority of items on factor 1 were prescriptive, dealing with composition as a discipline to be mastered through practice in

and grading of expository writing. Correct use of standard forms was the goal of such discipline. Items in factor 2 stressed student development of expression as a goal for the composition class with great freedom in topic and form choice as a means to that end. The role of the writing course in a student's social as well as academic development was also suggested. Though such student-centered items constituted nearly half of this factor's group, (8 out of 18), they loaded on the factor negatively. The other ten items which dealt with the usefulness of writing conferences, pre-writing, and revision loaded positively. These ten items were worded, however, in such a way as to seem prescriptive, that is, concerned with error-eradication, rather than developmental, that is, concerned with student growth. For example, the items on revision read "Successful writing is achieved only if all themes are carefully corrected by the teacher," and "Students should rewrite each paper regardless of the number or kind of errors."

Thus the investigator's conclusion was that factor analysis did not offer a means of accepting the first hypothesis of the study. The Scales for Measuring Teachers' Attitudes toward Writing Instruction appeared inappropriate for this sample. Furthermore, the models that emerged from factor analysis did not provide meaningful new scales for attitude measurement. Thus the first

hypothesis, that the scales would be appropriate for attitude measurement with this sample, was not accepted.

To the extent that the items on the questionnaire polarized responses, the emergence of two factors, one prescriptive, one predominantly developmental, was understandable. To say that items in factor 1 reasonably describe a composition teacher's attitude which is distinct from that described by items in factor 2 is certainly possible. Whether such a division is useful, whether it represents actual attitude dimensions in the population sampled is very doubtful. "Prescriptivist" versus "naturalist" is neither a useful nor valid way to separate writing teachers by attitude. While such a division does emerge from factor analysis of the responses to this instrument, it is primarily due to the weakness of the instrument, one which is not a useful tool for understanding attitude variation.

Follow-up interviews, discussed later in this chapter, bore out the investigator's sense of gaps in attitude content on the scales.

RELATIONSHIP AMONG SELECT VARIABLES

ANOVA with Grouped Dependent Variables

Factor analysis of the dependent variable attitude statements had produced theoretically weak models. This

weakness was again found in ANOVA using grouped items from two of the factor analysis models as dependent variables and factors of employment status, institution, years of experience, influence of teaching assistantship, and composition course load as independent variables. The dependent attitude statement variables were chosen because of both their high loading on the factor being used and their wide range of responses from the sample. The independent variables were chosen because of interaction between them and attitude statements identified in crosstabulation (See Tables V, VI, and VII).

The first of these ANOVA's was run with attitude statements grouped according to the first 3-factor model (see Table X). From factor 1, items 10, 12, and 31 were combined as a dependent variable; and from factor 2, three combinations were made: items 6, 7, and 40; items 2, 16, and 30, and items 7, 21, and 28. ANOVA with these grouped dependent variables and institution and years of experience as independent variables showed no statistically significant main effects or interaction of the independent variables on the grouped dependent variables. While these independent variables had been associated with different responses to the attitude statements in earlier crosstabulations, ANOVA showed no statistically significant association between the grouped dependent variables for this sample. Results of this ANOVA are given in Appendix G.

A second ANOVA with combined dependent variables from factor analytic models was run using the 2-factor model without reverse scoring (see Table XII). Despite the strength of the individual attitude statement's loading on either factor, statistical significance for main effects or interactions of independent variables on the grouped dependent variables was found in only four cases. These are shown in Tables XIV A&B and XV.

Tables XIVA and B contain results of ANOVA showing statistically significant interaction between institution and employment status and between age and preferred composition course load on items grouped from factor 1.

Items 6, 7, and 12, were generally prescriptive, stressing the importance of grammar and discipline in writing and discounting the benefits of non-traditional teaching techniques. The interaction between institution and employment status and between age and preferred composition load supported the early frequency data which had shown community college teachers more unified in support of a standard composition course than university teachers were. This ANOVA suggested part-time status to be a conservative influence, as well. In contrast, it indicated older teachers who preferred a light composition load as less conservative.

TABLE XIVA
ANOVA¹ WITH GROUPED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS, 6, 7, 12
FROM FACTOR 1 OF 2-FACTOR MODEL (TABLE XII)

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Main effects	16.815	4	4.204	1.685	0.162
Institution	6.632	1	6.632	2.658	0.107
Degree	4.376	1	4.376	1.754	0.189
Employment Status	8.858	1	8.858	3.551	0.063
Sex	1.309	1	1.309	0.525	0.471
2-Way Interactions	21.316	6	3.553	1.424	0.216
Institution & Degree	2.681	1	2.681	1.075	0.303
Institution & Employment Status	15.161	1	15.161	6.077	0.016*
Institution & Sex	3.347	1	3.347	1.342	0.250
Degree & Employment Status	2.879	1	2.879	1.154	0.286
Degree & Sex	0.094	1	0.094	0.038	0.847
Employment Status and Sex	0.259	1	0.259	0.104	0.748
3-Way Interactions	3.944	4	0.986	0.395	0.811
Explained	42.075	14	3.055	1.205	0.290
Residual	189.595	76	2.495		
Total	231.670	90	2.574		

n = 98, 7 cases missing

* $p \leq .05$

TABLE XIVB
ANOVA² WITH GROUPED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS, 6, 7, 12
FROM FACTOR 1 OF 2-FACTOR MODEL (TABLE XII)

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Main effects	4.433	5	0.887	0.356	0.877
Sex	0.073	1	0.073	0.029	0.865
Age	0.532	1	0.532	0.214	0.645
Actual course load	2.574	1	2.574	1.034	0.313
Preferred course load	1.413	1	1.413	0.567	0.454
TA Influence	1.468	1	1.468	0.589	0.446
2-Way Interactions	29.700	10	2.970	1.192	0.313
Sex & Age	0.504	1	0.504	0.202	0.655
Sex & Actual course load	0.076	1	0.076	0.030	0.862
Sex & Preferred course load	0.444	1	0.444	0.178	0.674
Sex & TA Influence	3.583	1	3.583	1.438	0.235
Age & Actual Course load	5.050	1	5.050	2.027	0.159
Age & Preferred Course Load	16.624	1	16.624	6.674	0.012*
Actual Course load & Preferred course load	0.431	1	0.431	0.173	0.679
Actual Course load & TA Influence	0.639	1	0.639	0.256	0.614
Preferred Course Load & TA Influence	1.085	1	1.085	0.435	0.512
Explained	34.133	15	2.276	0.914	0.554
Residual	159.417	64	2.491		
Total	193.550	79	2.450		

n = 98, 18 cases missing

* $p \leq .05$

Table XV contains results of ANOVA showing statistically significant interaction between the influence of a teaching assistantship and actual composition course load and between the influence of a teaching assistantship and preferred composition course load on items grouped from factor 2.

Items 5,9, and 10 approached the interactive model described earlier in this chapter. They stressed teachers' responsibility to make clear assignments and to write themselves, and downplayed grammar's role in writing development. Here, a strong influence of a teaching assistantship combined with both high actual and high preferred composition load tended toward a conservative response on these three items.

However, the isolated occurrence of these statistically significant interactions in models with several other independent variables precluded consideration of these sets of dependent variables as valid attitude units. As a whole, the independent variables had not shown a strong interactive effect on the dependent variable sets. Identifying such an interactive effect was the aim of ANOVA used in this study. Therefore, further ANOVA was run with single attitude items as dependent variables.

TABLE XV
ANOVA WITH GROUPED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS, 5, 9, 10
FROM FACTOR 2 OF 2-FACTOR MODEL (TABLE XII)

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Main effects	0.436	5	0.087	0.059	0.998
Sex	0.086	1	0.086	0.059	0.809
Age	0.007	1	0.007	0.005	0.945
Actual course load	0.057	1	0.057	0.039	0.845
Preferred course load	0.008	1	0.008	0.006	0.940
TA Influence	0.263	1	0.263	0.179	0.674
2-Way Interactions	34.636	10	3.464	2.360	0.019*
Sex & Age	0.965	1	0.965	0.658	0.420
Sex & Actual course load	1.030	1	1.030	0.702	0.405
Sex & Preferred course load	0.811	1	0.811	0.553	0.460
Sex & TA Influence	0.069	1	0.069	0.047	0.828
Age & Actual Course load	2.559	1	2.559	1.744	0.191
Age & Preferred Course Load	0.466	1	0.466	0.318	0.575
Age & TA Influence	0.853	1	0.853	0.581	0.449
Actual Course load & Preferred course load	0.582	1	0.582	0.397	0.531
Actual Course load & TA Influence	15.481	1	15.481	10.550	0.002**
Preferred Course Load & TA Influence	6.135	1	6.135	4.181	0.045*
Explained	35.072	15	2.338	1.593	0.101
Residual	93.915	64	1.467		
Total	128.988	79	1.633		

n = 98, 18 cases missing

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

ANOVA with Single Dependent Variables

Because of the theoretical weakness of the models produced by factor analysis, and the weak effect of independent variables on combined dependent variables observed in ANOVA to this point, the investigator decided to conduct further ANOVA with the relevant independent variables, using select single items from the first part of the questionnaire, the attitude statements, as dependent variables. This procedure was followed to test the second hypothesis on the effects of training, demographics, and experience on attitudes measured by the forty items. Having determined through study of the factor analytic models that representative, meaningful attitude scales were not emerging for this population with this instrument, the investigator opted to study single and interactive effects of independent variables already identified as important on individual item responses to the attitude statements (See Tables IV, V, VI, VIII and XIV).

Among the dependent variables individually studied in ANOVA were the following content-centered items:

- (6) Correct English is established by logical grammatical relationships within the language.
- (12) Composition programs should be designed primarily to help students discipline their writing and develop awareness of accepted standards of good prose.

- (30) The major obligation of instruction in composition is to help students learn and practice the conventions of standard educated English.
- (35) Able pupils tend to explore different forms and styles of expression and show more variation in quality from one written product to another than do less able students.

In addition, the following student-centered items were used:

- (10) There is little research evidence that knowledge of grammar and usage will produce improvement in student writing.
- (21) Strict conformity to rules of standard English inhibits students' growth in writing.
- (28) Students given freedom in composing will discover various types of writing for themselves.
- (37) The major purpose of evaluating compositions is to guide individual student growth and development.

Each of the statements had already been studied through ANOVA in combination with two others, as described in the previous section, and all, with the exception of items 35 and 37 had shown a fairly equal distribution of responses from the sample.

Table XVIA and B show selected results of ANOVA with these single dependent variables and independent variables of institution, employment status, influence of a teaching assistantship, composition course load, and years of teaching experience. Appendix H contains the full ANOVA results. Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) and

reference to earlier crosstabulations produced the interpretations that follow. MCA went beyond earlier crosstabulation findings to show how a specific category of a variable affected the response pattern to an attitude statement. Thus the particular categories of age, for example, and of influence of a teaching assistantship, which tended to direct a response to an attitude statement, were identifiable. Appendix I contains the MCA's conducted on ANOVA with single attitude statements as dependent variables.

A Word on Statistical Significance. While a discussion of relevant independent variables for the dependent variable attitude statements follows, a caveat on the interpretation of statistically significant findings is in order. The ANOVA results shown in Tables XVIA and B in fact do not go much beyond conclusions drawn from earlier crosstabulation. That is, they simply add statistical significance to observed single effect or interactions among institution, years of experience, composition course load, employment status, and influence of teaching assistantship on single attitude statements. The effect of any of these independent variables, alone or in combination, even though statistically significant, is still an effect on only one attitude statement. Of what use, then, are such findings?

Carver (1978) cautions against translating statistical significance into conceptual importance. He notes that by careful, objective measurement and analysis of data, a researcher may achieve statistical significance in a finding which is, in fact, trivial. In other words, statistical significance does not a meaningful discovery make.

In Table XVIA for example, of what value is the knowledge that as experience increased for teachers with under three composition courses a year, they saw able students showing more variety to their writing? The interaction on the attitude statement between years experience and composition course load was statistically very significant ($p = .003$). To say such a finding is trivial, may be harsh; but by itself, it is at most, only interesting. Missing from such a finding are crucial details of type of teaching experience, variety of teaching in a specific composition course load, student abilities, and teacher attitudes towards students now and earlier in their careers, to name a few.

In this study, therefore, statistically significant findings were used not to accept a hypothesis, but to shape followup interviews, to strengthen the direction of more questioning. Thus a finding of statistical significance here is far from providing an answer to the question

TABLE XVI A
MULTIPLE ANOVA WITH SINGLE CONTENT-CENTERED
ATTITUDE STATEMENTS AND SELECTED INTERACTIONS

Independent Variables		Dependent Variables - F		
	Correct English is established by logical grammatical relationships within language.	Composition programs are for discipline and standards.	Focus in composition is on conventions of standard English.	Able pupils use more forms and show more written variety than less able ones.
Institution	3.082	4.505*	1.733	2.648
employment status	0.252/institution: 4.000* actual course load: 1.686	0.889/actual course: load: 2.467	0.424	0.416
TA influence	0.028 actual course load: 1.933	0.071	0.125/years experience: 5.644**	0.296
actual course load	0.892	1.389	2.252	4.524*
years experience	1.343	2.831	0.472	1.003 /institution 4.364* /actual course load: 6.341**
explained	1.055	1.361	1.218	1.598

n = 98, 19 cases missing

* p = $\leq .05$ ** p $\leq .01$

note: F values for all variables are included. Only F values for interactions at or approaching statistical significance are included.

of teacher attitude formation. Rather, such evidence simply points the way to more study.

As a result, the following discussion of ANOVA findings with content-centered and student-centered items dwells less on statistical significance than on the pattern of relationship seen among select independent variables and responses to attitude statements. The pattern uncovered helped determine the scope and direction of the interviews.

Content-Centered Items. Though community college more than university teachers tended to agree with the importance both of grammar as logic and of discipline in writing, the strongest agreement came from part-time teachers at both institutions. This agreement increased even more where the influence of a teaching assistantship was strong and experience was under seven years. On the question of disciplined writing as a goal for the composition program, while 48% of those with over fifteen years experience disagreed, 54% of teachers with under seven years experience agreed.

The influence of a teaching assistantship seemed most forceful in combination with under seven years teaching experience. For example, newer teachers with a strong influence of a teaching assistantship disagreed with instruction in conventions of standard English as the major obligation of the composition course. Other teachers with

a strong influence of a teaching assistantship were varied in their response here. 86% of teachers without the influence of a teaching assistantship disagreed at all experience levels. Still, one would expect the teaching assistantship to have the strongest effect early in a teacher's career.

Interaction among years experience, composition course load, and institution affected responses to the statement that able students show more variety in quality from one written product to the next. Early agreement (under 7 years experience) of 60% dropped to 44% (7 to 14 years experience) when more than 3 courses per year was the teaching load. University teachers' agreement increased with experience. However, earlier crosstabulation had shown that the majority of university teachers with over 7 years of experience taught fewer than 3 composition courses per year. So, the actual effect of experience here may not be based on courses taught and students observed, but on ideas about able students maintained over the years without empirical basis. In fact, the group least in agreement with this view of ability and variety was the community college teachers with 7 to 14 years experience, the group which carried the heaviest composition teaching load in the sample. Only 38% of this group supported the notion of variety of effort and product from able students.

TABLE XVI B
MULTIPLE ANOVA WITH SINGLE STUDENT-CENTERED
ATTITUDE STATEMENTS AND SELECTED INTERACTIONS

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables - F			
	Little research evidence supports the teaching of grammar.	Rules can inhibit writing development.	Freedom in composing leads to discovery of forms.	Evaluation should guide individual student development.
Institution	2.122	0.036	0.889 /employment status: 2.826	0.120 /employment status: 1.903
employment status	3.070	1.474 /years experience: 3.481*	1.307	2.265 /actual course load: 2.945
TA influence	4.606* /institution: 3.350 /years experience: 3.205*	2.191 /employment status: 4.430*	1.854	0.110
actual course load	0.733	1.053	0.389	5.544*
years experience explained	0.170 1.778*	0.847 1.445	0.150 0.903	0.920 1.096

n = 98,19 cases missing

* p = \leq .05 ** p \leq .01

note: F values for all variables are included. Only F-values for interactions at or approaching statistical significance are included.

Student-Centered Items. Teachers with a strong influence of a teaching assistantship and under seven years of experience had rejected adherence to standard conventions as the goals of the composition program. However, they disagreed with the statement that research has not provided a basis for grammar instruction's effectiveness in writing improvement. With them in this opinion were the majority of university teachers. Those with 15 or more years experience disagreed with this same statement 2 to 1. In contrast, community college teachers agreed with the lack of basis for teaching grammar in the writing course; teachers with over 15 years experience agreed 3 to 1. Again, teachers' differences in types of experience, familiarity with research, and contact with students seem more important than the fact of statistical significance of variables on this item.

Strict conformity to rules as an inhibiting factor in student writing growth received general disagreement. Earlier crosstabulation had shown the strongest disagreement to come from part-time, non Ph.D.'s at both institutions. This ANOVA showed a statistically significant effect of experience combined with employment status. Full-time teachers, regardless of experience, were evenly split, as were part-time teachers with over seven years experience. However, 74% of part-time teachers with under

seven years experience disagreed that rules were inhibiting.

On the statement that freedom in composing leads to discovery of various forms by students themselves, full-time non-Ph.D. teachers at both institutions agreed; 3 to 1 at community colleges, and 2 to 1 at universities. Part-time nonPh.D.'s at the university reversed, and disagreed 2 to 1. The group with the most experience at the community college agreed the most strongly, 72%, while at the same institution, the group with under 7 years experience disagreed to the same extent.

Finally, the statement on the purpose of evaluation in composition showed the variables of composition course load and employment status to be important. The respondents with the heaviest composition teaching loads, full-time and part-time teachers with more than 3 courses per year, agreed the most strongly, 78% and over, that evaluation is to guide individual student growth in writing. The least agreement, though still agreement, was from full-time teachers with less than 3 courses a year (69%). The latter group represented more university teachers than community college teachers since at two of the universities involved, composition courses are staffed by teaching assistants or part-time instructors, unless a full-time faculty member requests composition as part of his/her teaching load. Thus the responsibility for composition

instruction is much more distributed across full- and part-time lines at the community college.

Interpretations of Results. The pattern of conservative, prescriptive, content- rather than student-centered responses to these attitude statements from part-time, nonPh.D. instructors with less than seven years experience at both institutions has been well documented with frequency, crosstabulation, and multi-way ANOVA. But the weakness of the instrument, i.e., the attitude scales, the lack of correlation among attitude item responses in this sample prohibited ascribing these variables as causal factors in attitude formation. The failure of factor analysis to yield meaningful attitude scales, and of ANOVA with grouped dependent variables to show interactions, led to the analysis of individual dependent attitude variables. It was difficult to draw conclusions about attitude formation on the basis of single and interactive effects of variables on single attitude statements. Therefore, the second hypothesis that demographic, training, and experience variables would show an effect on attitude formation was not fully accepted.

What could reasonably be concluded was that teachers with under 7 years experience, a strong influence of a teaching assistantship in their graduate training, who taught part-time with more than 3 courses per year in composition tended to be prescriptive in response to

items dealing with standards and goals in the composition course. These responses may not reflect a causal effect of training and status on attitude toward the teaching of writing so much as they reflect the tenuous condition of apprenticeship at the institution. As Tingle (1981) noted the concern with correctness, standards, and forms among non-tenured writing teachers may be less a philosophical commitment than a strategy for continued employment in the English Department. The group least secure in their relationship to the institution, part-time with under 7 years experience, may express attitudes arising out of that professional insecurity. In contrast, the group with the most seniority and generally the least responsibility for composition instruction could and did express much more liberal, student-centered opinions about composition teaching. Full-time teachers at the university with 15 years experience and fewer than 3 composition courses per year responded to attitude statements with less preference for structure and prescriptive teaching.

Part-time teachers are evaluated and re-hired on the basis of their work in composition; hence a proclivity for measurable effects is understandable: standards, correct forms, evidence of having taught a body of knowledge. Full-time teachers, especially at the university, teach less composition than do the part-time teachers, and seem

not to equate successful student mastery of forms and standards with their own teaching effectiveness. More to the point, full-time university teachers' effectiveness is generally based on literature, not composition, teaching.

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS

Purpose

Follow-up interviews were an integral part of the design of this study. Since the study focused on possible differences in attitudes between community college and university writing teachers, teachers from both institutions were interviewed on possible formative influences on their attitudes.

The specific focus of the interviews took shape as a result of examination of data through factor analysis and ANOVA. The failure of factor analysis to replicate Schuessler et al.'s scales or to yield meaningful new attitude scales for this population necessitated using an attitude measure in the interviews themselves. Thus, the models described in Chapter III were devised and used at the outset of each interview to provide a basis for discussion of how teachers viewed the goals and practices of the composition course. The models did force a choice between a prescriptive, content-centered view of composition and a developmental, student-centered one. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this choice had first been

provided by the scales themselves. Participants' generally negative reactions to the 2 model choice echoed comments teachers had written in the margins and less overt criticism through omitted answers on the instrument.

ANOVA, supporting crosstabulations, and MCA led to selection of types of teachers to interview, i.e. to identification of categories of teachers based on variables of employment status, degree level, years of teaching experience, and training experience. Six categories were chosen and one teacher was interviewed from each (See Table III).

The interviews then attempted 1) to assess teachers' attitudes towards composition instruction, both in relation to course content and to the students in the course, and 2) to explore formative influences on those expressed attitudes. Where teachers had indicated on the questionnaire the influence, of, for example, a teaching assistantship, the investigator asked about ways in which that experience contributed to the teacher's stated attitude. As described in Chapter III, the interviews proceeded from the participant's choice between two models of composition instruction, through questions on ways in which formal training and experience had contributed to that choice. Finally the participant was asked if that choice represented a change from an earlier view of composition instruction, and if so how and why it had occurred.

Thus, the interviews clarified attitude statements and delved into the types of influences teachers felt to have been-- or to continue to be-- important to their view of composition instruction. Largely because of the unsatisfactory results of the attitude scales, the lack of adequate measurement they provided, the interviews took on more importance than they had in the original design.

Findings

Results of the interviews reinforced the investigator's sense of the attitude scales' inadequacy for full measurement of attitudes toward composition instruction. Teachers' comments, to be discussed, showed their own awareness of interaction between student-centered and content-centered instruction. Thus, the interviews pointed up the lack of a full range of attitude statements on the instrument. In addition, they provided in-depth information on influential factors contributing to the attitudes held by the teachers toward composition instruction.

None of the subjects interviewed whole-heartedly embraced one of the typed models presented: two chose the tabula rasa, prescriptive model; three chose the developmental, student-centered model; and one refused to choose. Of those who did choose, all said one model had more elements of their own philosophy in it, but the other had some too.

Influence of Writing

All subjects described themselves as self-taught teachers of writing, even if they had had teaching assistantships which were influential. They emphasized that their attitudes regarding the teaching of writing were the result of experience. A major influence on their composition teaching for four of the six was their own writing, either in academic settings, such as the preparation of a thesis or dissertation, or in creative or technical writing. They credited their involvement in writing not only for their knowledge of techniques to teach students, but also for their understanding the writing process, before teaching students how to write. One respondent spoke of seeing, in his own writing, the need for motivation to write, and of using student writing conferences with his students now to help build that motivation. Another said he teaches students what works for him as a writer. Decrying an over-reliance on theory or text in the composition class, he asserted that when one is actively engaged in writing, various approaches can be seen as tools, not goals, and evaluation of students' writing is easier because one is "closer to a living standard of good writing." A third subject felt that her writing gave her an understanding of what it is to be disciplined about writ-

ing, and thus a better ability to teach this discipline to students.

The number of comments from the subjects on their own writing and its importance to their work as writing teachers pointed up the lack of items in the attitude part of the questionnaire on the writing process-- either the teacher's or the students'. The only items that touched on writing process were questions 9, 18, 25, and 33. All were limited by prescriptive wording, however, stating that teachers "should" write all compositions they assign, and that students "should" prepare written outlines, re-write papers, and talk out papers before writing them.

The questionnaire's limitation of attitude concerns to the written product and its evaluation could not have elicited the responses the interviews did, allowing subjects to talk about the importance of a writing teacher being a writer and sharing the insights of a practitioner, rather than an expert, with students.

For some of the interview subjects, the importance of their own writing was not just as an experiential bond with students, though. One teacher talked of how his work with technical writing, as a consultant outside of teaching as well as in his classes, reinforced his commitment to standards and discipline. Despite an overload schedule, five classes per quarter-- four of them composition -- standards were "sacred" to him. His choice of the

developmental model had been, perhaps, based on its superior use of prose form.

Institutional Influence

One university teacher, who used writing conferences to meet the needs of students and to motivate them, ended the interview by saying he resented "having" to teach composition, and felt "betrayed" by having to do work which someone with a B.A. could do, and probably do better. He viewed the writing of his dissertation in English as a measure of how much more he could do than teach writing. One teacher interviewed offered an insight into the formation of such an attitude. She was trained as a teaching assistant and later employed as a writing instructor at a university. She described the university stance toward teaching assistants and composition as follows. The composition class was a training ground for them, but it was even more a proving ground: if they could do graduate research in literature while not devoting too much time to their composition teaching, then they could handle the rigors of college, i.e. literature teaching, and could move out of the composition classroom. This teacher now teaches primarily composition, but at a community college, and attributes her enjoyment of it to the central emphasis placed on writing instruction in the community college.

All three community college interview subjects noted the institutional importance placed on writing instruction as a factor in their commitment to it. Surprisingly, none reported feeling overburdened by the average composition course load of nine per year; instead they talked about the importance of meeting students' needs and finding time to work with students individually. This brings up the rather elusive factor of institutional climate for composition instruction. On the survey itself, more community college teachers (80.6%) taught more than three courses per year than did university teachers (54.1%). Further, more community college teachers (67.6%) expressed a preference for this load than did university teachers (21.3%). Only one respondent, a university instructor, listed the institutional attitude toward composition as an influence on his own attitude toward writing instruction. He wrote of "institutional indifference to composition courses and composition instructors" as having "an unfortunate effect on classroom instruction," and of how a high course load, three courses a quarter, "necessarily forces compromise." Yet, for a full time community college teacher, those three composition classes were not even a full teaching load.

All three of the university subjects interviewed volunteered that more than two composition courses a term

were too many, causing the teacher to lose energy and responsiveness to students' needs. Yet even when asked about possible problems associated with their heavy composition load, the community college subjects spoke of strategies for varying the teaching approach and organizing class and conference time as solutions rather than of reducing the course load.

Perhaps an important factor here is the status of the work, its perceived centrality to the English Department and to the institution. At the university, as both the staffing pattern and the respondents' comments indicate, composition instruction has less status than literature instruction. In contrast, at the community college, composition instruction is the main work of the English Department, with the majority of full-time contracts specifying that job. The community college teachers interviewed spoke of being accessible to students as part of their responsibility in that job, and those reached by phone in a follow-up for non-respondents said they had not had time to fill out the survey because their teaching duties took precedence. There were some non-respondents who did not participate because of objections to the types of statements in the questionnaire. However, the irony of a practitioner being too busy with work to discuss his/her attitude toward that work suggested a need

for alternate forms of attitude measurement, if not a need for introspection.

Employment Status

In two interviews the relationship of part-time status to attitudes toward the discipline emerged. A community college teacher said her part-time status tended to make her a bit stricter and more formal in her teaching, with careful use of course evaluation forms even though these were not required by the department. As one who was hoping to be hired full-time, she wanted to look professional, with evidence available of teaching success. A full-time community college teacher mentioned, as a self-imposed responsibility, the "overseeing" of part-time teachers and relaying of information on their performance to the department head. This individual credited the part-timers as being "pretty close to the sincerity and professionalism" of the full-time faculty. While stated as a compliment, the remark implies the superiority of full-time faculty not just in employment status, but in professional ability. And it suggests another type of teacher attitude in composition instruction worth examining: the definition of and attitude towards one's peers in teaching.

Conclusions from Interviews

The interviews, while providing in-depth information on selected respondents' attitudes and factors they felt to have been influential on those attitudes, also pointed up weak or missing attitude areas in the survey instrument. Already discussed is the importance of teacher involvement in writing, directly addressed by the interviewees. Related to this is the subject of the writing process, a teacher's growth in its use and understanding of how to help students grow in it too. The survey was lacking in this area.

Three of the teachers interviewed also talked about student self-confidence and -concept as crucial factors in the student's writing development. One stressed a process approach in which the students are seen as "beginning" not "bad" writers and are encouraged to improve as writers with practice. Practice in writing, she maintained, coupled with a "common sense" approach to rules, builds students' confidence in their writing ability. Another teacher agreed, stating the need to recognize students' poor self-concept as writers, then build that concept by relevant achievable structuring of their writing.

The interviews went beyond the analysis of responses to the survey instrument by uncovering and exploring influential factors on the subjects' attitudes towards writ-

ing instruction. Those interviewed agreed on the importance of teachers' writing to their effectiveness as teachers. Subjects also emphasized missing or inadequately addressed areas of the questionnaire: the writing process, student self-concept and confidence in writing, and the role of writing conferences in instruction.

Community college interviewees expressed greater responsibility for and interest in composition instruction. All of them had either moved or hoped to move into full-time teaching from part-time writing instruction at the community college. None of the university teachers interviewed had experienced, or hoped to experience, such a career plan. Thus part-time teaching at the university seems to offer less, both in immediate status and in future opportunity, than does part-time composition teaching at the community college where the qualifications for full-time teachers parallel those of part-time teachers.

The interviews thus corroborated the major findings of the analysis of variance with selected items from the questionnaire. There was a tendency for the part-time, less experienced teachers to choose the more prescriptive model of composition presented to them, and experience at the community college tended to make subjects less prescriptive than did experience at the university. However, varying combinations of training, experience and employment status did not place subjects in hard and fast response categories.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATONS

SUMMARY

This study was an exploration of post-secondary writing teachers' attitudes towards composition instruction. Its goals were 1) to identify teacher attitudes and 2) to discover formative influences on these attitudes. The instrument used for attitude identification, Scales Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition (Schuessler et al., 1981), was tested for its appropriateness with a sample of Oregon post-secondary writing teachers. Additional questions on training, experience, and demographics were added to the scales to identify formative influences on the attitudes expressed. Of particular interest as a possible influence on attitude toward writing instruction was institution of employment, specifically community college and university. As public post-secondary institutions, they offer the same required writing courses transferable from one institution to the other. Thus the content of a freshman composition course at a state university may be presumed equivalent to that

of the same course at a community college. This study asked, in part, whether institution of employment affects the teacher's attitude toward the course content and the students in that course.

The research instrument consisted of a written questionnaire composed of the forty item Scales Measuring Teacher Attitudes toward Instruction in Written Composition plus twenty-four original questions on experience, training, and demographics. The sample consisted of 122 composition teachers at three Oregon universities and two Oregon community colleges. Based on questionnaire data from 80% of the sample, additional qualitative research was conducted. Six respondents were interviewed for more information on their attitudes toward writing instruction and the possible origins of such attitudes. Those interviewed had specific combinations of variables found to interact with attitude statements. These variables were: years of experience, teaching assistantship as part of training, academic degree, employment status, and institution of employment.

Statistical procedures included factor analysis to identify scales of attitudes, and ANOVA to identify any effect of independent variables (training, experience, and demographics) on the attitudes identified.

Factor analysis did not replicate the results of Schuessler et al.'s research with the scales. No grouping

of attitude statements resembling the earlier researchers' results was found. That is, intercorrelations of responses for this sample did not yield the four factors of Standard English, Define and Evaluate, Linguistic Maturity, and Student Self-expression, which had resulted from previous uses of the instrument. Instead, factors obtained in this study seemed to reflect the makeup of the attitude items themselves, with prescriptive or content-centered versus developmental or student-centered categories of attitudes emerging.

Because of the non-replication of Schuessler et al.'s scales and the failure of factor analysis to produce alternative scales for attitude identification, the content of the scale items themselves was studied. As a result, a paradigm implicit in the scales was identified: the "Noble Savage" versus the Tabula Rasa model. The analysis pointed out the lack of items which could be described as interactive, that is reflecting a give and take between content- and student-centered instruction. The scales thus forced a choice between the composition course as a body of knowledge with standard goals and practices (the Tabula Rasa model), and the course as a means of competent, but inexperienced writers' development (the "Noble Savage" model).

ANOVA was run using groups of attitude statements which had loaded on the same factor as dependent variables

and using significant features of training, experience, and demographics as the independent variables. Crosstabulation had indicated association between attitude responses and these features: academic degree level, status of employment, type of training, years of experience, and institution of employment. Despite the apparent connection, ANOVA failed to show statistically significant interaction when the above-named features were studied with grouped attitude statements. Additional ANOVAs were run using the same training, experience, and demographic features as independent variables and using single attitude statements as dependent variables. The individual attitude statements used had shown differing responses by institution. Here, statistically significant interaction was found between independent variables and single effects of independent variables. However, findings on relationships between training, experience, and relevant attitudes were limited by the fact that the interaction was only between these features and single attitude statements. Thus, the results of ANOVA with single attitude statements served more to inform selection of interview participants and design of interview questions than to substantiate a hypothesis about causal factors in attitude formation.

There was no consistent effect of training, experience, or demographic variables on either content-centered or student-centered attitude statements. However, cate-

gories of independent variables did appear to operate in combination to affect single attitude statements. The categories which operated most consistently as a unit were the following: part-time, non Ph.D., strong influence of a teaching assistantship in graduate school, and under seven years experience. At both community college and university, the majority of respondents with these characteristics chose prescriptive, content-centered responses. They agreed with statements on the importance of direct instruction in grammar and of disciplined writing as a goal in the composition course. The majority of teachers with these characteristics felt there was research rationale for grammar instruction, though they did not feel that instruction in standard conventions should be the goal of the composition course. Among respondents, this group was strongest in the belief that adherence to rules does not inhibit student writing growth; in fact, they did not feel that students can discover various written forms, given freedom in composing.

To clarify attitudes and further explore formative or related attitudes, interviews with six teachers who had participated in the study concluded the procedures. Equal numbers of community college and university teachers were interviewed.

Teachers interviewed resisted classification as student-centered or content-centered in their approach to

composition instruction. Their choice of a composition model, drawn from statements on the scales, was a qualified one. Four out of the six specifically identified their own experience with and uses of writing as the major influence on their teaching of writing. Another influence on attitude, either directly stated or alluded to, was institution of employment. While it had not shown up in statistical analysis as a single factor affecting responses to attitude statements, the teachers interviewed referred to their own institutions' influence on their attitudes toward writing instruction. Community college teachers with heavy composition course loads spoke of their work as important, though demanding. They felt a shared responsibility for composition instruction with all department faculty. The centrality of the work was reflected in one part-time teacher's expectation of obtaining full-time work in the community college on the basis of successful performance as a part-time writing instructor.

In contrast, university teachers interviewed felt that whether by design or default, the responsibility for writing instruction in the university lay with part-time instructors, whose work would not qualify them for consideration as full-time faculty members. They pointed out the division between literature and writing that such a practice fostered in the department. In the schools with

graduate English programs, the split was especially clear. Here, teaching assistants taught composition but studied literature. None of the university teachers interviewed wanted a full-time position as writing teacher. While two of them enjoyed the writing teaching they did, they felt that more than two writing courses a quarter was too much. The job of writing instruction in the university was clearly for teaching assistants, part-time instructors, and any full-time faculty member who wanted to teach a section of composition occasionally.

A major finding in the interviews was the range of issues in composition instruction, seen as important to those teachers, but missing from the attitude scales. Notable here were topics such as the teacher as writer, student self-concept and self-confidence as means to an end or as goals in the course, using the composing process, and conference-centered writing instruction.

CONCLUSIONS

The failure of factor analysis to replicate the scales found in Schuessler et al.'s study of teacher attitudes or to yield meaningful new scales for identifying teacher attitudes toward composition instruction resulted in the non-acceptance of the first hypothesis: that the

scales would be appropriate for attitude measurement among post-secondary writing teachers in Oregon. The conclusion drawn in this study was that the scales do not represent the full breadth of composition classroom practices. Instead, they contain more prescriptive, content-centered items than either developmental, student-centered ones or interactive ones. An instrument which lacks questions on teachers as writers, instruction in the composing process, writing as a means of learning, and development of self-concept and self-confidence in writing does not offer a full range of options for contemporary writing teachers.

Although the research findings of validity and reliability with this instrument come from 1981 and 1982 studies, the scales themselves are composed, with three exceptions, of items from a 1971 instrument, the NCTE Composition Opinionnaire. Research on the composing process, the relationship of grammar study to writing improvement, teachers as writers, and writing for learning does not inform these items. Much of such research has occurred since 1971.

Furthermore, earlier studies with this instrument involved mainly junior high and high school writing teachers. Perhaps, as a group, post-secondary teachers are more familiar with research in the composing process and with projects in writing across the curriculum. Perhaps the different structure of a college writing class

from a high school writing class-- fewer contact hours; fewer grading periods; more student responsibility for assignments; lower student-teacher ratio; fewer teaching responsibilities, especially in a university-- also accounts for the inappropriateness of the scales with this post-secondary group.

In short, the attitude identifiers in the scales did not seem to speak to the concerns and practices of a postsecondary writing teacher in Oregon in 1983. In fact, by limiting the assessment of attitude statements on content versus student, the instrument presented a false dichotomy. The view of the composition class was too narrow. The decade since 1971 has produced research in writing instruction which deepened the understanding of writing as a recursive process, of affective factors' impact on student writing development, and of the relationship between writing and learning. In light of the complex relationship now known between the writer-- whether student or teacher-- and the written product, a statement such as the following from the scales seems irrelevant: "Students should rewrite their papers regardless of the number or kind of errors." How is one to respond to this if revision is not seen as identical to editing, either in purpose, or in stage of the process?

Judging from the number of written comments in the questionnaire margins as well as comments made in the

interviews, the investigator concludes that the scales were forcing an outdated view of composition on a population more informed by research and experience. Further, it is concluded that the Likert scale format-- a series of strong statements for agreement or disagreement-- may not be most appropriate for assessing attitude toward composition instruction. If the teaching of writing, as Peter Elbow (1983) suggests, involves a movement between loyalty to the discipline and loyalty to the students, with integration of the two as an aim, then allegiance to only student or only content seems an anachronism. Measuring the degree of commitment one way or another seems less valuable than determining choice-points for teachers in establishing this balance.

The third conclusion of the study focuses on training, experience, and demographic variables which are significant for further study of attitude formation. No conclusions on specific effects can be based on ANOVA findings of statistical significance. Interview findings, however, lead to the conclusion that employment status, institution of employment, personal use of and experience with writing, familiarity with research, type and length of teaching experience, and, finally, degree level are important factors in attitude formation. They do not operate in isolation; thus, no single factor was found to have a statistically significant effect on attitude.

Furthermore, these factors may not operate as influences on attitude in a direct, linear fashion. Rather, in the same way as attitude and behavior can affect each other, it may be that teachers' choices of program and institution for training, degree level, writing experiences, institution of employment, and amount of composition teaching are shaped in part by existing attitudes toward writing as a discipline and toward writing instruction. The design of this study presumed that external factors shape attitude, rather than that attitude predisposes one to certain experiences which in turn may affect attitude. This latter, dynamic view of the relationship between attitude and variables of experience and training may be more appropriate to further research on attitudes toward writing instruction.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Generalizations from results of the study are limited since the sample included only teachers of writing in selected Oregon community colleges and universities. This specific population, though, did show different attitude responses in combination with certain training, experience, and demographic variables. The prescriptive, content-centered orientation of the newest, least professionally secure teachers was evident. Given the fact that part-time composition teaching is commonplace in univer-

sities and community colleges nationwide, the likelihood of similar attitudes among less-experienced, part-time teachers elsewhere is high. This study did not examine specific sources for this content-centered orientation in degree level, experience length, or teaching assistantship. It simply found an interaction between these variables and prescriptive attitude statement responses.

Research Methodology

The use of the written survey to assess attitude and identify influences on attitude limited the conclusions in several ways. Already noted was the scales' forced choice between two models of composition: product- or content-centered, and process- or student centered. Another limitation occurred because the training, experience, and demographic variables were studied primarily as continuous or categorical variables. There are two difficulties for generalizing results because of this approach. One, previously mentioned, was the assumption of training, experience, and demographics as causal factors. Attitude was not studied as a potential cause of choice in institution, amount of composition teaching, etc. Another difficulty is that differences in types of training and experience were not explored for the sample.

Identifying categories of experience, for example 1 to 7 years, or 8 to 15 years, is a start in examining the

relationship between experience and attitude toward composition instruction. However, it would be erroneous to assume that all teachers with under seven years of experience have had the same, or even similar, experience. The type of course(s) taught; the degree of autonomy in teaching them; the influence of a tenured faculty member; the teacher's job security; the attitude toward composition by the students, faculty and administration all affect one's experience. Studying how that experience affects attitude will require more than quantitative data on experience.

In the same way, identifying teachers as Ph.D. or nonPh.D. provides categories useful for analyzing the teachers' responses to the instrument. However, without knowing the type of graduate training, the teacher's satisfaction with it at the time and now, the reasons for having chosen it, or its relevance to the teacher's work in composition, a researcher can not generalize about the effect of academic degree level in composition teachers' attitude toward their work.

The interviews brought out these differences within categories and led to an awareness of the complex relationship between specific experiences and attitudes for the teachers interviewed. Only six of the ninety-eight respondents to the survey participated in interviews. Yet the interviews provided a wealth of information about these teachers' attitudes toward composition instruction

and factors related to it. Of special importance was the observation, from the teachers interviewed, that attitude is not fixed; it is continually reinforced or reshaped by experience and learning. In the interviews, teachers explored aspects of their training and experience which affected their view of composition instruction. They attempted to articulate that view, and seemed to find the process itself rewarding. In fact, they found the interview distinctly more worthwhile and pleasurable than filling out the questionnaire.

Respondents spoke of the content gaps in the questionnaire, the complex process of teaching writing, their identity within a department as affected by degree level and/or employment status, and the place of writing instruction in the curriculum. None of these issues had been adequately addressed by the written questionnaire.

The success of the interviews in discovering the range of attitude toward composition instruction and in uncovering categories of training and experience for further study strongly suggests the use of qualitative research for further study of teacher attitude toward composition instruction. While written instruments may be useful for baseline data on attitudes and influences on them, the instrument should represent realistic attitude choices for teachers and elicit more information on factors seen

to be influential, such as teaching assistantship and status of employment.

Careful case study research should precede any further development of quantitative instruments. It should identify types of training, experience, and employment. To study the relationship between attitude and, for example, training, a researcher needs to know more than degree level and influence of a teaching assistantship. Teachers' informal learning about writing as well as their formal training in it is relevant. The status of composition in a department as well as the number of sections taught is important information. This type of information is lost in a questionnaire format. In this study, it emerged only in the interviews. To the extent that differences in kind of training and experience are as important as differences in amount, the case study or interview seems best suited to further research on teacher attitude toward writing instruction.

Future Research

Based on findings in this study, implications for future research include not only the research mode used, qualitative over quantitative, but also the areas of study.

Graduate Teaching Assistantship. The interaction between strong influence of a teaching assistantship and prescriptive attitude statement response bears further study. One obvious extension of the research would be to study present teaching assistants in graduate English programs in Oregon. A first step in such research would be identifying criteria for hiring teaching assistants as composition instructors. What assumptions about the teaching of writing do the faculty, the department head, or composition director have? To what extent do teaching assistants enter the program with these same assumptions? In what way does the teaching assistantship affect graduate students' interest in teaching writing, their own development as writers, and their goals relative to degree and career? A broader look at the teaching assistantship in composition nationally could suggest the function it serves, by type of institution or by area, perhaps. Does the teaching assistantship primarily serve the department, by fulfilling staffing needs and attracting graduate students? Does it primarily serve the graduate student through training in research on and methods of writing instruction? Does it do both? Such data on types of graduate English program where teaching assistants work will inform research on training as a factor in attitude formation. And in this effort, the assessment of attitude as a

factor which may predispose a student to choose a certain type of teaching assistantship is worth examining also.

Teachers as Writers. Research on teachers as writers corroborates responses in the interviews. The more teachers write themselves and are reflexive about it, the more open they are to experimenting with approaches to the teaching of writing. They see themselves, and their students, on a continuum as developing writers. Future research on teacher attitude in writing should examine the uses of writing among post-secondary composition teachers. It should trace changes in attitude toward writing instruction, its goals and practices, as more college teachers learn of research in the composing process, perhaps through National Writing Project Institutes. Research should also examine the relationship between post-secondary writing teachers and their high school counterparts. While the study did not ask for teacher assessment of student writing skills, several teachers volunteered it, both in the questionnaire and in the interviews. Teachers in this study, as a whole, did not see themselves as part of a process of instruction for their students. That is, where they referred to earlier writing instruction of their students, it was generally to remark on its deficiency. Many seemed to feel that the development of writing abilities should have taken place before the students reached college.

Research which would follow-up on college teachers who participate in National Writing Projects, working as writers and teachers with high school and grade school teachers, could help build rapport between these groups of teachers. That is, research could examine the difference in attitude toward composition instruction as a continuing process for a college teacher engaged in writing and eliciting responses to that writing from teachers outside the college or university. If teachers see the teaching of writing, like the practice of writing, as recursive, will they work as colleagues, without regard for school level?

Employment Status. The influence of part-time employment on a teacher's attitude toward composition instruction also warrants in-depth study. The association of part-time status with relative inexperience, influence of a teaching assistantship, and lack of a Ph.D. raises questions about how new teachers form their concept of the goals of composition teaching. Are part-time teachers with relatively little experience more affected by prescriptive norms, perhaps in the teaching they had, than are their more experienced, tenured colleagues? Or, as Tingle (1981) has suggested, are part-time teachers more prescriptive out of a desire to impress department heads and composition directors with their high standards and knowledge of composition as a discipline, and thus ensure continued, or even increased, employment?

To what extent do part-time composition teachers operate as members of a department, influencing curriculum in composition? To what extent are they operating as independent agents with personal norms for the course(s) they teach?

Several participants in this study taught composition part-time at both a community college and a university. Such a workload is not uncommon in this state, or in others where part-time teachers regularly account for a certain percentage of the English department's composition faculty. There are implications to this "circuit rider" role of composition teacher, though. Research is needed to study how such a teacher establishes goals, in terms of content and students, for the course. How does such employment affect the teacher's attitude toward composition instruction, and toward him or herself as a composition teacher?

Perhaps, more importantly, there are implications for the institutions parceling out single courses to part-timers who then fill a schedule with other courses at other schools. Research on these implications could study the status of composition as a discipline, working relationships among faculty at such institutions, development of curriculum, and the value of research in composition at the institutions.

Part-time English instructors in Oregon community colleges and universities teach primarily composition. As state underfunding of higher education forces cutbacks, especially in the liberal arts, will part-time teachers carry even more responsibility for composition instruction? And, if so, what consequences for writing in the curriculum will there be, given the content-centered, prescriptive bent of such teachers indicated in this study?

Research on part-time composition teaching in post-secondary institutions should have two foci. In one, the institutional philosophy as well as policies underlying the use of part-time composition instructors could be studied. This would involve examining the place of writing within the department, as well as within the institution. It would also involve studying the impact of financial constraints on hiring practices, promotion, and curriculum in the English department.

A second focus of the study of employment status in composition teaching could be the part-time teachers themselves. The topic of part-time composition teachers, their role in higher education and their needs as faculty members, is currently under discussion by the National Council of Teachers of English and by its special sub-council, the Conference on College Composition and Communication. However, in-depth study of part-time college

writing teachers, their attitudes and their goals in teaching, has not been conducted.

Institution of Employment. The discrepancy in preference of institution between community college and university teachers in this study was marked. Of the university teachers surveyed 96.7% preferred to teach in the university. Of the community college teachers, only 66.7% preferred the community college.

The community college teachers interviewed, both full- and part-time, were committed to community college work and confident of the importance of their work to department as well as college. The university teachers interviewed, while two out of three were committed to writing instruction, felt themselves to be operating in a vacuum. They did not feel that composition instruction had the status of literature instruction in the department or in the university. The part-time teachers accepted part-time writing instruction as a temporary job in their careers, ultimately as literature teachers. The full-time teacher resented having to teach writing at all.

Since the majority of full-time university teachers seldom teach more than three writing courses a year, if that, their preference for university teaching may relate to composition instruction only insofar as it is not much required of them. Research is needed to study the faculty and administration view of the place of writing in the

university. Would some university people relegate the teaching of writing to the community college? If so, what view of writing, student-centered or content-centered, does this suggest?

Community college teachers know that the bulk of their teaching, as much as three out of four courses per quarter, will be composition courses. Does the community college attract people more committed to writing instruction than the university does? How much do the institution and the department by either active advancement of writing as a discipline or passive service course attitude, shape the attitudes of teachers?

Research on these questions will provide information on goals, practices, and attitudes of writing teachers at the two types of institutions. Perhaps more importantly, such research will open a dialogue between writing faculty at community colleges and universities. In the same way that this study indicated a need for cooperation and mutual acknowledgement between post-secondary and secondary writing teachers, it pointed to a rift between community college and university teachers. The role of the university as the gate-keeper, allowed to judge the adequacy of student preparation in the high school and community college, seems unchallenged among university faculty but resented by the community college teachers. Research in the composing process and the development of

writing abilities has challenged the notion of "college level" (read university level) as an external standard. The persistence of content-centered criteria for good writing raises the question of who sets the standards and who teaches to them. Research should examine the pervasiveness of the attitude among university writing teachers that the job of high school and community college writing teachers is to prepare students for writing instruction in the university. Perhaps the question to be asked is: is there writing before, or outside of, the university?

Research with community college and university teachers, students, and administrators is needed to clarify the goals of the writing program within the respective institutions, the manner in which these goals are determined, and the impact they have on students as well as on faculty in the composition program.

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APPENDIX A

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONS ON TRAINING, DEMOGRAPHICS,
AND EXPERIENCE USED IN PILOT STUDY

In this first section, we would like some information about your preparation for teaching writing, your present teaching assignment, and factors affecting your teaching.

Preparation

Q-1 Would you say your own preparation in English focused on (Circle number):

- 1 MOSTLY COMPOSITION
- 2 MOSTLY LITERATURE
- 3 BOTH COMPOSITION AND LITERATURE

Q-2 The following are experiences which may have contributed, or still contribute, to your skill as a writing teacher. Please rank order any that apply, using 1 for the most helpful, 2 for the next most helpful, etc.

- _____ TEACHING ASSISTANTSHIP IN GRADUATE SCHOOL
- _____ UNDERGRADUATE COMPOSITION COURSE
- _____ GRADUATE COMPOSITION COURSE (METHODOLOGY)
- _____ GRADUATE COMPOSITION COURSE (RHETORIC)
- _____ PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION MEETINGS
- _____ SUMMER WORKSHOPS
- _____ INSERVICE TRAINING
- _____ OTHER (Please specify) _____

Q-3 Please rank order any of the following writing situations that apply to you, using 1 for your most frequent use of writing, 2 for your next most frequent, etc.

- _____ CLASSROOM LECTURES AND MATERIALS
- _____ PUBLICATION
- _____ INTRA-DEPARTMENTAL COMMUNICATION
- _____ PERSONAL CORRESPONDENCE
- _____ PRIVATE JOURNAL
- _____ OTHER (Please specify) _____

Q-4 Among members of your department, how would you rate yourself as a writer? (Circle number).

- 1 EXCELLENT
- 2 ABOVE AVERAGE
- 3 AVERAGE
- 4 FAIR TO POOR

Teaching Assignment

Q-5 What do you now teach? (Circle number).

- 1 COMPOSITION ONLY
- 2 LITERATURE ONLY
- 3 LITERATURE AND COMPOSITION

Q-6 How many composition classes are you teaching this term?

_____ CLASS(ES)

Q-7 How many composition classes did you teach the previous term?

_____ CLASS(ES)

Q-8 How satisfied are you with your present assignment? (Circle number).

- 1 VERY SATISFIED
- 2 SATISFIED
- 3 NOT SATISFIED

Q-9 If you answered "NOT SATISFIED" to question 8, what would your preferred teaching assignment include? (Circle number).

- 1 COMPOSITION ONLY
- 2 LITERATURE ONLY
- 3 LITERATURE AND COMPOSITION

Preferences

Q-10 Several factors affecting the teaching of writing are commonly discussed by college English teachers. Among these are: class size, selection of materials, student preparation, and institutional support. For each of these factors, listed below, circle the response that most closely corresponds to your preference. (Circle number).

A. What class size do you prefer?

- 1 UNDER 20
- 2 20 TO 30
- 3 OVER 30
- 4 OTHER (please specify) _____

B. How should classroom materials be selected?

- 1 ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION
- 2 DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEE DECISION
- 3 INDIVIDUAL FACULTY DECISION
- 4 OTHER (please specify)_____

C. What is the most important prerequisite for students in your writing class? (circle only one number).

- 1 HIGH SCHOOL WRITING CLASS
- 2 COLLEGE WRITING CLASS
- 3 MINIMUM SCORE ON STANDARDIZED WRITING TEST
- 4 OTHER (please specify)_____

D. What institutional support is most important for your writing class? (Circle only one number).

- 1 TEACHING ASSISTANTS
- 2 TUTORS
- 3 WRITING LAB
- 4 REMEDIAL WRITING COURSE
- 5 OTHER (please specify)_____

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

$$\frac{1}{1/2}$$

$$3$$

This first section contains forty statements that have been used in previous research about composition teaching. Please complete this section by circling one response for each of the statements. The responses are: STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), UNDECIDED (U), DISAGREE (D), and STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD). (Circle response.)

- Q-1 In order to avoid errors in sentence structure, weak students should be encouraged to write only short, simple sentences. SA A U D SD 4
- Q-2 Differing teaching approaches must be used for teaching factual writing or objectively oriented writing and for teaching subjectively-oriented imaginative materials SA A U D SD 5
- Q-3 Students who speak freely, fluently, and effectively are generally good writers. SA A U D SD 6
- Q-4 Successful writing is achieved only if all themes are carefully corrected by the teacher. SA A U D SD 7
- Q-5 Writing assignments should be more extensive than the specification of a topic or a list of topics. SA A U D SD 8
- Q-6 Correct English is established by logical grammatical relationships within the language. SA A U D SD 9
- Q-7 Creative dramatization, role-playing, and pantomime have little effect on written composition SA A U D SD 10
- Q-8 Assignments should require primarily expository writing. SA A U D SD 11
- Q-9 Teachers should write all compositions they assign to students. SA A U D SD 12

- Q-10. There is little research evidence that knowledge of grammar and usage will produce improvement in student writing SA A U D SD 13
- Q-11. Rhetoric as it is pertinent to the composition course concerns only the manner of writing or speaking, not the matter. SA A U D SD 14
- Q-12. Composition programs should be designed primarily to help students learn to discipline their writing and develop awareness of accepted standards of good prose. SA A U D SD 15
- Q-13. Students should have freedom in selecting the topics for their compositions. SA A U D SD 16
- Q-14. Growth in writing is enhanced by a broad and rich program of literature. SA A U D SD 17
- Q-15. Compositions written in class should never be graded. SA A U D SD 18
- Q-16. The English course should include a research paper so that students can learn how to use the library and source materials for papers in their own courses. SA A U D SD 19
- Q-17. Students' oral language should be corrected so that the forms will appear in their writing. SA A U D SD 20
- Q-18. Students should be required to prepare written outlines before they begin writing expository papers. SA A U D SD 21
- Q-19. Every error on a student's composition should be indicated. SA A U D SD 22

- Q-20. The teacher-pupil conference can and should aid learners in finding their strengths and encourage them in correcting some of their weaknesses. SA A U D SD 23
- Q-21. Strict conformity to rules of Standard English inhibits students' growth in writing. SA A U D SD 24
- Q-22. Students should not be allowed to begin sentences with and, or, for, or but. SA A U D SD 25
- Q-23. The experience of composing can and should nurture the pupils' quest for self-expression and their need to relate constructively to their peers. SA A U D SD 26
- Q-24. Students should be discouraged from using figurative language because their efforts at metaphor so often produce only cliches. SA A U D SD 27
- Q-25. Students should often "talk out" their compositions prior to the writing. SA A U D SD 28
- Q-26. Grades are the most effective way of evaluating composition. SA A U D SD 29
- Q-27. Teachers should correct errors on students' papers. SA A U D SD 30
- Q-28. Students given freedom in composing will discover various types of writing for themselves. SA A U D SD 31
- Q-29. Grades are the most effective way of motivating students to improve their writing. SA A U D SD 32
- Q-30. The major obligation of instruction in composition is to help students learn and practice the conventions of standard educated English. SA A U D SD 33

- Q-31. By the time they complete the course, all students should be able to distinguish clearly among the four forms of discourse: narration, description, exposition, and argumentation. SA A U D SD 34
- Q-32. Grading a paper or a course with a single letter grade informs no one as to the values sought, whether those of style, content, mechanical accuracy or a combination of these elements. SA A U D SD 35
- Q-33. Students should rewrite each paper regardless of the number or kind of errors. SA A U D SD 36
- Q-34. Growth in written self-expression depends in part upon a wide range of first-hand experiences. SA A U D SD 37
- Q-35. Able pupils tend to explore different forms and styles of expression and show more variation in quality from one written product to another than do less able pupils. SA A U D SD 38
- Q-36. Students who are able to consistently write correct English should not be required to do further work in composition. SA A U D SD 39
- Q-37. The major purpose of evaluating compositions is to guide individual student growth and development. SA A U D SD 40
- Q-38. The techniques of writing and documenting a formal research paper should be taught in high school to all college-bound students. SA A U D SD 41
- Q-39. Students should be discouraged from using the first person pronoun in their compositions. SA A U D SD 42

Q-40. Composition programs should be directed primarily at encouraging students to self-expression.

SA A U D SD 43

In this second section, we would like some information about your present teaching assignment, your preparation for teaching writing, and factors affecting your teaching. For each question, please mark an "X" in the appropriate box.

Q-41. Sex: MALE [] 1
FEMALE [] 2 44

Q-42. Age: UNDER 30 [] 1
30-39 [] 2 45
40-49 [] 3
50-59 [] 4
Over 60 [] 5

Q-43. What is your highest degree? B.A., B.S. [] 1
M.A., M.A.T. [] 2 46
A.B.D. [] 3
Ed.D. [] 4
Ph.D. [] 5

Q-44. Approximately how many years have you been employed in college teaching?
UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
7-14 [] 2 47
15-22 [] 3
23-30 [] 4
OVER 30 [] 5

Q-45. For how many of these years have you taught at least one course in required composition?
UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
7-14 [] 2 48
15-22 [] 3
23-30 [] 4
OVER 30 [] 5

Q-46. How many years have you been employed at your present institution?
UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
7-14 [] 2 49
15-22 [] 3
23-30 [] 4
OVER 30 [] 5

Q.47. What is your current rank?

LECTURER	[]	1	
INSTRUCTOR	[]	2	50
ASSISTANT PROFESSOR	[]	3	
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR	[]	4	
PROFESSOR	[]	5	

Q-48. In your present institution, how many required composition courses do you teach per year?

NONE	[]	1	
1-3	[]	2	51
4-9	[]	3	
7-9	[]	4	
MORE THAN 9	[]	5	

Q-49. If you had your preference, how many required courses would you teach per year?

NONE	[]	1	
1-3	[]	2	52
4-9	[]	3	
7-9	[]	4	
MORE THAN 9	[]	5	

Q-50. Please indicate the extent of your present or past involvement in the following activities by marking an "X" in the appropriate box.

	<u>VERY</u> <u>INVOLVED</u>	<u>SOMEWHAT</u> <u>INVOLVED</u>	<u>LITTLE</u>	<u>NONE</u>	
a. PROFESSIONAL WRITING.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	53
b. CREATIVE WRITING..	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	54
c. JOURNALISM.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	55
d. PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	56

Q-51. Please specify below what professional memberships you hold.

57

Q-52. Please indicate the amount and kind of teaching experience you have had in a setting other than college.

HIGH SCHOOL	__ YEARS	1	$\frac{58}{59}$
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (GRADES 1-8)	__ YEARS	2	$\frac{60}{61}$
OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)	_____	3	$\frac{62}{63/64}$
	__ YEARS		

Q-53. Are you employed at a community college or at a four-year college or university?

COMMUNITY COLLEGE	[]	1	
FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY	[]	2	$\frac{65}{66}$

Q-54. If you had your preference, where would you rather teach?

COMMUNITY COLLEGE	[]	1	
FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY	[]	2	$\frac{66}{67}$

Q-55. At your present employment, do you work full- or part-time?

FULL-TIME	[]	1	
PART-TIME	[]	2	$\frac{67}{68/69}$

Q-56. If part-time, at what ____% FTE

or, how many paid hours per week: ____ hours $\frac{70}{71}$

Q-57. If you had your preference, would you work full- or part-time now?

FULL-TIME	[]	1	
PART-TIME	[]	2	$\frac{72}{73/74}$

Q-58. If part-time, at what % FTE ____%

or, how many paid hours per week: ____ hours $\frac{75}{76}$

Q-59. How much attention did your graduate training give to the methodology and/or theory of teaching composition?

A GREAT AMOUNT	[]	1	
A SUBSTANTIAL AMOUNT	[]	2	77
SOME	[]	3	
NONE OR HARDLY ANY	[]	4	

Q-60. How much attention did your graduate training give to the study of literature?

A GREAT AMOUNT	[]	1	
A SUBSTANTIAL AMOUNT	[]	2	78
SOME	[]	3	
NONE OR HARDLY ANY	[]	4	

$\frac{1}{2}$

Q-61. To what extent did the following experiences from your formal training influence you as a writing teacher? Please place an "X" in the appropriate box.

	VERY INFLU.	SOMEWHAT INFLU.	HARDLY INFLU.	NOT INFLU.	
a. TEACHING ASSISTANT-SHIP IN GRADUATE SCHOOL.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	4
b. UNDERGRADUATE COMPOSITION.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	5
c. GRADUATE COURSE IN COMPOSITION: METHODS.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	6
d. GRADUATE COURSE IN COMPOSITION: RHETORIC.....	[] 4	[] 3	[] 2	[] 1	7

Q-62. What other undergraduate or graduate school experience influenced you as a writing Teacher?

$\frac{8}{9}$

Q-63. To what extent do the following experiences in your present position as an instructor influence you as a writing teacher? Please place an "X" in the appropriate box.

	<u>VERY</u> <u>INFLU.</u>	<u>SOMEWHAT</u> <u>INFLU.</u>	<u>HARDLY</u> <u>INFLU.</u>	<u>NOT</u> <u>INFLU.</u>	
a. PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION MEETINGS.....	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>10</u>
b. WORKSHOPS	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>11</u>
c. INSERVICE TRAINING	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>12</u>
d. RESEARCH JOURNALS	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>13</u>
e. GRADUATE CLASSES.	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>14</u>
f. CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE, STUDENT RESPONSE.	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<u>15</u>
Q-64. What other <u>post-graduate</u> experiences have influenced you as a writing teacher?					<u>16/17</u>

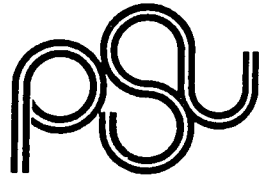
APPENDIX C

LETTER SENT TO COMPOSITON DIRECTORS OR
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT HEADS

LETTER SENT TO PARTICIPANTS IN PILOT STUDY

COVER LETTER SENT WITH QUESTIONNAIRE

FOLLOW-UP LETTER SENT WITH REPLACEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE



PORTLAND
STATE
UNIVERSITY
p. o. box 751
portland, oregon
97207
503/229-3521

September 16, 1982

Dear ,

department of
english

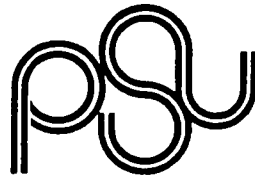
In an effort to measure teacher attitudes toward writing instruction, a colleague and I would like to administer a survey to members of your department who teach composition the survey instrument, a modified form of the NCTE Composition Opinionnaire, has been widely used with Washington English teachers by faculty at the University of Washington. Our project would extend research on teacher attitudes toward composition instruction by focusing on community college and university writing teachers in Oregon.

I am requesting that you send me a list of composition teachers in your department, so that we may contact them to participate in the study. We plan to conduct the survey during the fall term, so I would appreciate receiving the names and office addresses, if off the main campus, at your earliest convenience.

Thank you for your assistance. Should you have any questions, I can be reached at PSU, 229-4946, or at home, 281-2961.

Sincerely,

Jane B. Braunger
Instructor, English



Dear Colleague,

PORTLAND
STATE
UNIVERSITY
p o box 751
portland, oregon
97207
503 229-3521

department of
english

Within the last decade, research on the effectiveness of composition instruction has focused on such variables as classroom methodology and measures of student writing ability. Less attention has been given to teacher variables, such as attitude and preparation, especially at the post-secondary level. A study of these factors will add to our knowledge about composition instruction and should also be useful to the training of potential English teachers.

As fellow composition teachers, we are asking you to participate in a research study by sharing some of your views about the teaching of writing. We are surveying composition teachers at several universities and community colleges in the state. So that the results of the survey will be truly representative, we would appreciate your completing and returning the enclosed questionnaire as soon as possible. Please complete it without consulting your colleagues, who may also be surveyed.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for use in checking your name off of the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will not be used in reporting the results.

Although we hope to submit a summary of our findings for publication, should you wish a copy of the results, write "copy of results requested" on the back of the return envelope and print your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

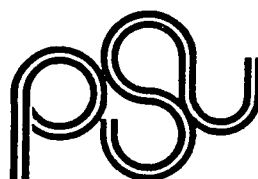
We will be happy to answer any questions you might have. Please write or call.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jane Braunger
Instructor, PSU
English Department

Susan Danielson
Instructor, PSU
English Department



162

PORTLAND
STATE
UNIVERSITY
p. o. box 751
portland, oregon
97207
503 229-3521

January 17, 1983

Dear

As part of our profession's concern with effective composition instruction, we are surveying writing techrs at several universities and community colleges in Oregon. We ask that you complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to us by January 27, 1983. A pilot study has shown that the survey will take only fifteen to twenty minutes of your time.

If you choose to participate, please complete the questionnaire without consulting your colleagues, who may also be surveyed. You may be assured of confidentiality. The identification number on the questionnaire will be used only to verify your returned copy. Responses will not be identified by name.

Should you wish a summary of the study's results, check the space indicated and fill in your name and address on the back of the enclosed return envelope.

Later this term we may request a follow-up interview with you. Meanwhile, we will be happy to answer any questions you might have. Please write or call.

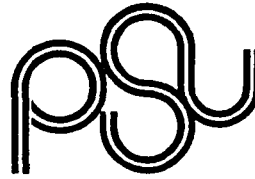
Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jane Braunger
Instructor,
PSU English Department

Susan Danielson
Instructor,
PSU English Department

department of
english



163

PORTLAND
STATE
UNIVERSITY
p o box 751
portland, oregon
97207
503 229-3521

February 7, 1983

department of
english

Dear Professor _____,

A few weeks ago we sent you a questionnaire asking for some information on your preparation, experience, and opinions about composition instruction. So far we have not received yours.

Since you are part of a relatively small sample -- composition teachers at five colleges and universities in Oregon --, your response is particularly important. Therefore, we are enclosing another copy of the questionnaire in hopes that you will find time to complete it. If you have already completed and returned your original copy, please disregard this request and accept our thanks for your participation.

We will be happy to add your name to the list of survey participants requesting results of the study. Just fill in the back of the enclosed return envelope for a copy, which should be available by fall quarter.

We appreciate your assistance with our study.

Sincerely,

Jane Braunger
Instructor
PSU English Department

Susan Danielson
Instructor
PSU English Department

APPENDIX D
CODEBOOK USED IN PREPARATION OF DATA

CODE BOOK		
1st Card		
Column(s)	SPSS Variable name	Variable descriptions and codes
1-3	RESPID	Respondent's identification no. within the study
note: The following opinionaire questions (columns 4-43)* have the same coding categories, which are as follows:		
5	Strongly Agree	(SA)
4	Agree	(AA)
3	Undecided	(U)
2	Disagree	(D)
1	Strongly Disagree	(SD)
*The following item responses are reversed in scoring since they correlated negatively with the other items in the scale: Q-7, 10, 12, 27, 37		
4	WEAKSTU	Weak students write simple sentences
5	OBJSUBJ	Different teaching for objective writing and subjective writing
6	EFFEWRI	Students who speak well are good writers
7	CORTEACH	Careful correction for successful writing
8	MORELIST	Writing assignments should be more than just a topic(s)
9	CORENG	Correct English = logical grammatical relationships
10	CREAWRI	Creative drama has little effect on composition
11	EXPOSWRI	Require primarily expository writing
12	TEACHWRI	Teachers write compositions they assign
13	GRAMWRI	Little research that grammar helps writing
14	RHETMAN	Rhetoric concerns manner not matter of writing
15	DISCIWRI	Comp. programs help learn discipline and awareness of prose
16	STUFREE	Students free in selecting topics
17	WRILIT	Writing enhanced by literature
18	INCLASS	Never grade in class writing
19	RESEARCH	English course should include research paper
20	ORALCOR	Correct students' oral language; transfers to writing
21	REQOUTL	Require outlines before writing
22	EVERYER	Indicate every error
23	CONFEAID	Teacher-pupil conference aids and encourages students

24	RUELEINH	Conformity to rules inhibits growth in writing
25	NOBEGIN	Don't begin sentences with <u>and</u> , <u>or</u> , <u>for</u> , or <u>but</u>
26	NURTSTU	Composing nurtures self-expression
27	DISCFIG	Discourage students from figurative language
28	TALKOUT	"Talk Out" compositions before writing
29	GRADES	Grades are most effective way of evaluating compositions
30	TEACHCOR	Teachers should correct errors on students' papers
31	FREESTU	Students will discover various types of writing for selves
32	MOTGRADE	Grades motivate students to improve their writing
33	CONVENTI	Goal of comp. to learn and practice conventions of SE
34	NADEEXAR	Distinguish among narration, description, exposition, argu.
35	NOGRADE	Grading paper or course not useful
36	STUREWRI	Student should always rewrite
37	GROWWRI	Self-expression grows from first-hand experience
38	DIFFORMS	Able students explore and vary
39	STUCOR	No further work if consistently use correct English
40	EVALCOMP	Purpose of evaluating to guide individual growth
41	DOCUWRI	Research paper should be taught in high-school
42	FIRSTPER	Discourage using the first person pronoun in comp.
43	ENCOUSTU	Comp. programs encourage student self-expression

END OF FIRST SECTION: The following columns (nos 44-78 on card 1 and nos 3-17 on card 2) are for PART II, Missing Value Always = 0

44	SEX	MALE [] 1
		FEMALE [] 2
45	AGE	UNDER 30 [] 1
		30-39 [] 2
		40-49 [] 3
		50-59 [] 4
		OVER 60 [] 5

- 46 HIDEGREE What is your highest degree?
 B.A., B.S. [] 1
 M.A., M.A.T. [] 2
 A.B.D. [] 3
 Ed.D. [] 4
 Ph.D. [] 5
- 47 YRTEACH Years employed in college teaching
 UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
 7-14 [] 2
 15-22 [] 3
 23-30 [] 4
 OVER 30 [] 5
- 48 YRCOMP Years teaching one course in required
 composition
 UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
 7-14 [] 2
 15-22 [] 3
 23-30 [] 4
 OVER 30 [] 5
- 49 EMPLOYIN Years employed at present institution
 UNDER 7 YEARS [] 1
 7-14 [] 2
 15-22 [] 3
 23-30 [] 4
 OVER 30 [] 5
- 50 CURRANK What is your current rank?
 LECTURER [] 1
 INSTRUCTOR [] 2
 ASSISTANT PROFESSOR [] 3
 ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR [] 4
 PROFESSOR [] 5
- 51 REQCOMP How many required comp courses now
 teach per year
 NONE [] 1
 1-3 [] 2
 4-6 [] 3
 7-9 [] 4
 MORE THAN 9 [] 5
- 52 PREFREQ How many required comp would you
 prefer to teach?
 NONE [] 1
 1-3 [] 2
 4-6 [] 3
 7-9 [] 4
 MORE THAN 9 [] 5

note: The following activities have the same coding categories (cols. 53-56)

- 1 NONE
- 2 LITTLE
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 VERY INVOLVED

		Present or past involvement in following activities:
53	PROFWRI	Professional writing
54	CREAWRI	Creative writing
55	JOURNAL	Journalism
56	PROFORG	Professional Organizations
57	PROFMEM	Total number of memberships (exact value, with highest being 9)

note: columns 58-64 concern amount and kind of teaching experience other than college

58/59	HISCHOOL	total no. of years (exact value, w/highest 99)
60/61	ELSCHOOL	total no. of years (exact value, w/highest 99)
62	OTHER	0, MV (missing value) (inapplicable)
63/64	NOSCHOOL	total no. of years (exact value, w/highest 99)
65	COMCOL	Where employed COMMUNITY COLLEGE [] 1 FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY [] 2
66	PREFEMP	Preferred employment COMMUNITY COLLEGE [] 1 FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY [] 2
67	FULPART	Work full-time or part-time FULL-TIME [] 1 PART-TIME [] 2
68/69	PARTFTE	% of Part-time FTE (exact value, with the highest being 99 or 00 for missing value MV)
70/71	PARTHRS	No. of paid hours per week (exact value, w/highest being 99 or 00 MV)
72	PREFWK	Preferred amount of work FULL-TIME [] 1 PART-TIME [] 2

73/74 FTEPART Preferred % of work (exact value,
with highest 99 or 00 MV)

75/76 HRSPART No. of paid hours per week (exact
value, w/highest 99 or 00 MV)

77 GRADTRAI Training to methodology and/or theory
of comp.

A GREAT AMOUNT [] 1
A SUBSTANTIAL AMOUNT [] 2
SOME [] 3
NONE OR HARDLY ANY [] 4

78 GRADLIT Training in literature

A GREAT AMOUNT [] 1
A SUBSTANTIAL AMOUNT [] 2
SOME [] 3
NONE OR HARDLY ANY [] 4

79/80 79 designates institution

LANE COMMUNITY COLLEGE 1
PCC 2
OSU 3
UO 4
PSU 5

80 designates card no. 1

2nd card

1-3 RESPID respondent's identification no. within
the study

note: the following experiences have the same coding
categories

NOT INFLUENTIAL 1
HARDLY INFLUENTIAL 2
SOMEWHAT INFLUENTIAL 3
VERY INFLUENTIAL 4

4 TEACHASS Teaching Assistantship

5 UNDERGR Undergraduate Composition

6 GRADMETH Graduate course in Comp.: Methods

7 GRADRHET Graduate course in comp.,: Rhetoric

8/9	EXPINFLU	Undergraduate or graduate exp. influence you	
		Mentor	1
		Conversations w/ faculty	2
		Conver. w/ other stu.	3
		Major Advisor	4
		Non-English courses	5
		Academic Writing	6
		Creative Writing	7
		Other Courses in English	8
		Reading	9
		Teaching experience	10
		Other	11

note: the following experiences have the same coding categories

NOT INFLUENTIAL 1
HARDLY INFLUENTIAL 2
SOMEWHAT INFLUENTIAL 3
VERY INFLUENTIAL 4

10	PROFASS	Professional Association meetings	
11	WORKSHOP	Workshops	
12	INSERVICE	Inservice training	
13	RESJOUR	Research Journals	
14	GRADCLAS	Graduate classes	
15	CLASEXPE	Classroom Experience, Student Response	
16/17	POSTGRAD	Postgraduate experiences that influenced you	
		Mentor	1
		Conversation w/ colleague	2
		My own writing	3
		Institutional climate	4
		Consulting	5
		Comp. tchg load	6
		Reading	7
		Committee Work	8
		Traveling	9
		Other	10
18	PROFFESS	Noted Spelling Error	NO 1
			YES 2
			COMME. 3
19	COMMENT	Comment on questionnaire question 1-40	NO 1
			YES 2

20	ADDWORD	extensive comments on questionnaire, questions 41-64	NO	1
			YES	2
21-79	SKIP			
80	card no.			

APPENDIX E

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
RESPONSES TO ATTITUDE STATEMENTS

Responses to Attitude Statements (N=98) (5 = Strongly Agree; 1 = Strongly Disagree)

Attitude Statements	Mean	St. Dev
Q-1. In order to avoid errors in sentence structure, weak students should be encouraged to write only short, simple sentences.	1.871	0.755
Q-2. Differing teaching approaches must be used for teaching factual writing or objectively oriented writing and for teaching subjectively-oriented imaginative material	3.315	1.148
Q-3. Students who speak freely, fluently, and effectively are generally good writers.	2.787	1.086
Q-4. Successful writing is achieved only if all themes are carefully corrected by the teacher.	2.402	1.049
Q-5. Writing assignments should be more extensive than the specification of a topic or a list of topics.	3.807	.993
Q-6. Correct English is established by logical grammatical relationships within the language.	3.167	1.144
*Q-7. Creative dramatization, role-playing, and pantomime have little effect on written composition.	3.085	1.054
Q-8. Assignments should require primarily expository writing.	3.236	1.205
Q-9. Teachers should write all compositions they assign to students.	2.383	0.985
*Q-10. There is little research evidence that knowledge of grammar and usage will produce improvement in student writing.	3.117	1.144

Q-11.	Rhetoric as it is pertinent to the composition course concerns only the manner of writing or speaking, not the matter.	1.979	0.973
*Q-12.	Composition programs should be designed primarily to help students learn to discipline their writing and develop awareness of accepted standards of good prose.	2.915	1.170
Q-13.	Students should have freedom in selecting the topics for their compositions.	3.699	1.040
Q-14.	Growth in writing is enhanced by a broad and rich program of literature	4.158	0.790
Q-15.	Compositions written in class should never be graded.	2.126	0.890
Q-16.	The English course should include a research paper so that students can learn how to use the library and source materials for papers in their own courses.	3.598	1.059
Q-17.	Students' oral language should be corrected so that the forms will appear in their writing.	2.301	1.040
Q-18.	Students should be required to prepare written outlines before they begin writing expository papers.	2.221	0.970
Q-19.	Every error on a student's composition should be indicated.	2.271	1.090
Q-20.	The teacher-pupil conference can and should aid learners in finding their strengths and encourage them in correcting some of their weaknesses.	4.632	0.527
Q-21.	Strict conformity to rules of Standard English inhibits students' growth in writing.	2.663	1.198

Q-22.	Students should not be allowed to begin sentences with <u>and</u> , <u>or</u> , <u>for</u> , or <u>but</u> .	1.696	0.752
Q-23.	The experience of composing can and should nurture the pupils' quest for self-expression and their need to reate constructively to their peers.	3.859	0.872
Q-24.	Students should be discouraged from using figurative language because their efforts at metaphor so often produce only cliches.	1.579	0.538
Q-25.	Students should often "talk out" their compositions prior to the writing.	3.574	0.783
Q-26.	Grades are the most effective way of evaluating compositions.	2.087	0.821
Q-27.	Teachers should correct errors on students' papers.	2.231	1.023
*Q-28.	Students given freedom in composing wil discover various types of writing for themselves.	3.067	1.026
Q-29.	Grades are the most effective way of motivating students to improve their writing.	2.457	0.969
Q-30.	The major obligation of instruction in composition is to help students learn and practice the conventions of standard educated English.	2.745	1.067
Q-31.	By the time they complete the course, all students should be able to distinguish clearly among the four forms of discourse: narration, description, exposition, and argumentation.	3.181	1.077
Q-32.	Grading a paper or a course with a single letter grade informs no one as to the values sought, whether those of style, content, mechanical accuracy or a combination of these elements.	3.761	1.073

Q-33.	Students should rewrite each paper regardless of the number or kind of errors.	1.968	0.809
Q-34.	Growth in written self-expression depends in part upon a wide range of first-hand experiences.	3.211	1.009
Q-35.	Able pupils tend to explore different forms and styles of expression and show more variation in quality from one written product to another than do less able pupils.	3.432	0.907
Q-36.	Students who are able to consistently write correct English should not be required to do further work in composition.	2.074	0.919
*Q-37.	The major purpose of evaluating compositions is to guide individual student growth and development.	2.104	1.021
Q-38.	The techniques of writing and documenting a formal research paper should be taught in high school to all college-bound students.	3.872	0.907
Q-39.	Students should be discouraged from using the first person pronoun in their compositions.	1.904	0.917
Q-40.	Composition programs should be directed primarily at encouraging students to self-expression.	2.734	1.138

* = reverse scored: 5 = strongly disagree;
1 = strongly agree

APPENDIX F

FREQUENCY DATA BY INSTITUTION FOR DEMOGRAPHIC,
TRAINING, AND EXPERIENCE VARIABLES

Variable		Com. Coll.		Univ	
		N	Adj. Freq %*	N	Adj. Freq. %*
Sex	Male:	13	41.9	31	50.8
	Female:	18	58.1	30	49.2
Age	Under 40:	12	38.7	28	45.2
	40 or Over:	19	61.3	34	54.8
Degree					
	no Ph.D	27	87.1	27	44.3
	Ph.D.	4	12.9	34	55.7
Yrs Exp.					
Coll Teaching					
	under 7 yrs	4	12.9	21	33.9
	7-14 yrs	16	51.6	20	32.3
	15 yrs or over	11	35.5	21	33.9
Yrs at present institution					
	under 15 yrs	24	77.4	48	77.4
	15 yrs or over	7	22.6	14	22.6
rank					
	instructor	19	67.9	34	54.8
	asst. prof.	5	17.9	6	9.7
	asso. prof.	3	10.7	12	19.4
	full prof.	1	3.6	10	16.1
required comp course load (actual)					
	3 or less/yr.	6	19.4	28	45.9
	more than 3/yr	25	80.6	33	54.1
required comp. course load (preferred)					
	3 or less/yr	10	32.3	48	78.7
	more than 3/yr	21	67.7	13	21.3
involvement in:					
--Prof. writing					
	little or none:	16	51.7	24	40.0
	some or much:	15	48.4	36	60.0

Variable	N	Com. Coll. Adj. Freq %*	N	Univ Adj. Freq. %*
--Creative writing				
little or none:	10	34.5	32	54.2
some or much:	19	65.6	27	45.8
--Journalism				
little or none:	23	82.1	44	77.2
some or much:	5	17.9	23	22.8
--Prof. Orgs.				
little or none:	20	64.5	37	61.7
some or much:	11	35.5	23	38.3
Membership in Prof. Orgs.				
0:	16	51.6	20	32.3
1 or 2:	11	35.5	23	38.0
3 or more:	4	12.9	18	29.7
Teaching exp. other than College				
high school:	11	36	22	35.5
elem school:	6	19.4	10	16.1
Preferred institution of employment				
cc:	18	66.7	2	3.3
univ. or 4 yr college	9	33.3	59	96.7
Status				
Full-time	18	58.1	37	59.7
Part-time	13	41.9	25	40.3
% FTE, if part-time				
50%	3	9.6	8	13.1
60-70%	4	12.9	8	13.1
75%	6	19.3	2	3.3
Preferred status				
Full-time	23	74.2	38	65.6
Part-time	8	25.8	20	34.5

Variable	Com. Coll.		Univ	
	N	Adj. Freq %*	N	Adj. Freq. %*
Graduate training in comp				
much:	4	12.9	14	22.9
some or none:	27	87.1	47	77.1
Graduate training in lit.				
much:	28	90.3	59	98.4
some or none:	3	9.7	3	1.6
Influence of:				
-- TA in grad. school				
little or none:	7	29.1	13	23.7
some or much:	17	70.9	42	76.3
-- Undergrad comp				
little or none:	18	62	31	57.1
some or much	11	37.9	24	42.9
-- Grad course in comp: methods				
little or none:	20	76.9	36	73.4
some or much	6	23.0	13	26.6
-- Grad course in comp: rhetoric				
little or none:	21	84.0	39	83.0
some or much:	4	16.0	8	17.0
Other training influences				
non-English course:	7	22.6	6	9.8
Academic writing	3	9.7	13	21.3
Other English course	3	9.7	7	11.4
Mentor	2	6.5	7	11.4
Teaching	4	12.9	5	8.2

Variable	Com. Coll.		Univ	
	N	Adj. Freq %*	N	Adj. Freq. %*
Post-training influences				
Prof. Assoc.				
Meetings	10	33.4	18	32.1
Workshps	18	60.0	22	37.9
Inservice	11	35.5	18	33.4
Research				
Journals	12	38.7	31	54.4
Grad Classes	5	16.7	13	25.5
Classroom Exp.	30	96.8	60	98.3
Other Post-training influences				
-- conversations				
with coll.	8	26	13	21
-- reading	7	22	10	16
-- own writing	4	13	15	24
-- consulting	1	03	10	16

*Adjusted for missing values

note: 5 cases are omitted since they teach at both a community college and a university

APPENDIX G

ANOVA WITH GROUPED DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Items 10, 12, and 31					
Main effects	2.894	3	0.965	0.566	0.639
Institution	0.395	1	0.395	0.232	0.632
Years of Experience	1.986	2	0.993	0.582	0.561
2-Way Interactions	0.762	2	0.381	0.244	0.800
Institution & Years Experience	0.762	2	0.381	0.244	0.800
Explained	3.657	5	0.731	0.429	0.827
Residual	148.300	87	1.705		
Total	151.957	92	1.652		
Items 7, 21, & 28					
Main effects	3.910	3	1.303	0.444	0.722
Institution	0.247	1	0.247	0.084	0.772
Years of Experience	3.904	2	1.952	0.665	0.517
2-Way Interactions	5.787	2	2.893	0.985	0.378
Institution & Years Experience	5.787	2	2.893	0.985	0.378
Explained	9.696	5	1.939	0.660	0.655
Residual	255.551	87	2.937		
Total	265.247	92	2.883		

n = 98, 5 cases missing

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Items 6, 7, and 40					
Main effects	1.567	3	0.522	0.200	0.896
Institution	0.046	1	0.046	0.018	0.895
Years of Experience	1.433	2	0.717	0.274	0.761
2-Way Interactions	5.391	2	2.696	1.029	0.362
Institution & Years Experience	5.391	2	2.696	1.029	0.362
Explained	6.959	5	1.392	0.531	0.752
Residual	227.837	87	2.619		
Total	234.796	92	2.552		
Items 2, 16, & 30					
Main effects	1.159	3	0.386	0.164	0.920
Institution	0.872	1	0.872	0.370	0.545
Years of Experience	0.508	2	0.254	0.108	0.898
2-Way Interactions	2.606	2	1.303	0.553	0.577
Institution & Years Experience	2.606	2	1.303	0.553	0.577
Explained	3.765	5	0.753	0.320	0.900
Residual	205.031	87	2.357		
Total	208.796	92	2.270		

n = 98, 5 cases missing

APPENDIX H
ANOVA WITH SINGLE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Correct English (item 06)					
Main effects	10.915	6	1.819	1.025	0.418
Employment Status (E.S.)	0.447	1	0.447	0.252	0.618
Institution (Inst.)	5.469	1	5.469	3.082	0.084
TA Influence	0.049	1	0.049	0.028	0.868
Course load	1.584	1	1.584	0.892	0.349
Years experience	4.768	2	2.384	1.343	0.269
2-Way Interactions	26.534	14	1.895	1.068	0.404
E.S. & Institution	7.098	1	7.098	4.000	0.050*
E.S. & TA Influence	0.594	1	0.594	0.335	0.565
E.S. & Course Load	2.992	1	2.992	1.686	0.199
E.S. & Years Experience	0.603	2	0.302	0.170	0.844
Inst. & TA Influence	0.279	1	0.279	0.157	0.693
Inst. & Course Load	0.158	1	0.158	0.089	0.766
Inst. Years Experience	3.480	2	1.740	0.980	0.381
TA Influence & Course Load	3.430	1	3.430	1.933	0.170
TA Influence & Years Experience	10.530	2	5.265	2.967	0.059
Course load & Years Experience	0.879	2	0.440	0.248	0.781
Explained	37.449	20	1.872	1.055	0.419
Residual	102.931	58	1.775		
Total	140.380	78	1.800		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Composition for Discipline (item 12)					
Main effects	11.904	6	1.984	1.489	0.198
Employment Status (E.S.)	1.185	1	1.185	0.889	0.350
Institution (Inst.)	6.003	1	6.003	4.505	0.038*
TA Influence	0.095	1	0.095	0.071	0.791
Course load	1.851	1	1.851	1.389	0.243
Years experience	7.543	2	3.772	2.831	0.067
2-Way Interactions	24.361	14	1.740	1.306	0.232
E.S. & Institution	0.763	1	0.673	0.572	0.452
E.S. & TA Influence	2.059	1	2.059	1.545	0.219
E.S. & Course Load	3.286	1	3.286	2.467	0.122
E.S. & Years Experience	3.391	2	1.695	1.272	0.288
Inst. & TA Influence	0.611	1	0.611	0.459	0.501
Inst. & Course Load	0.316	1	0.316	0.237	0.628
Inst. Years Experience	3.776	2	1.888	1.471	0.251
TA Influence & Course Load	0.611	1	0.611	0.459	0.501
TA Influence & Years Experience	2.752	2	1.376	1.033	0.363
Course load & Years Experience	4.792	2	2.396	1.798	0.175
Explained	36.265	20	1.813	1.361	0.180
Residual	77.279	58	1.332		
Total	113.544	78	1.456		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Composition for Conventions (item 30)					
Main effects	6.494	6	1.082	0.934	0.478
Employment Status (E.S.)	0.491	1	0.491	0.424	0.518
Institution (Inst.)	2.008	1	2.008	1.733	0.193
TA Influence	0.145	1	0.145	0.125	0.725
Course load	2.609	1	2.609	2.252	0.139
Years experience	1.093	2	0.547	0.472	0.626
2-Way Interactions	21.729	14	1.552	1.340	0.213
E.S. & Institution	0.367	1	0.367	0.317	0.576
E.S. & TA Influence	0.038	1	0.038	0.033	0.856
E.S. & Course Load	0.071	1	0.071	0.061	0.806
E.S. & Years Experience	1.052	2	0.526	0.454	0.637
Inst. & TA Influence	0.534	1	0.534	0.461	0.500
Inst. & Course Load	0.001	1	0.001	0.001	0.974
Inst. Years Experience	2.189	2	1.095	0.945	0.395
TA Influence & Course Load	0.501	1	0.501	0.432	0.513
TA Influence & Years Experience	13.078	2	6.539	5.644	0.006*
Course load & Years Experience	1.395	2	0.697	0.602	0.551
Explained	28.223	20	1.411	1.218	0.274
Residual	67.195	58	1.159		
Total	95.418	78	1.223		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Able Pupils & Variety (item 35)					
Main effects	6.149	6	1.025	1.196	0.321
Employment Status (E.S.)	0.357	1	0.357	0.416	0.521
Institution (Inst.)	2.270	1	2.270	2.648	0.109
TA Influence	0.253	1	0.253	0.296	0.589
Course load	3.877	1	3.877	4.524	0.038*
Years experience	1.719	2	0.859	1.003	0.373
2-Way Interactions	21.236	14	1.517	1.770	0.066
E.S. & Institution	0.273	1	0.273	0.319	0.574
E.S. & TA Influence	0.270	1	0.270	0.315	0.577
E.S. & Course Load	0.473	1	0.473	0.552	0.460
E.S. & Years Experience	2.723	2	1.362	1.589	0.213
Inst. & TA Influence	0.484	1	0.484	0.565	0.455
Inst. & Course Load	0.150	1	0.150	0.175	0.677
Inst. Years Experience	7.480	2	3.740	4.364	0.017*
TA Influence & Course Load	0.256	1	0.256	0.298	0.587
TA Influence & Years Experience	4.065	2	2.033	2.372	0.102
Course load & Years Experience	10.868	2	5.434	6.341	0.003*
Explained	27.385	20	1.369	1.598	0.085
Residual	49.704	58	0.857		
Total	77.089	78	0.988		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Effect of Grammar (item 10)					
Main effects	13.351	6	2.225	1.746	0.127
Employment Status (E.S.)	3.916	1	3.916	3.070	0.085
Institution (Inst.)	2.707	1	2.707	2.122	0.151
TA Influence	5.875	1	5.875	4.606	0.036*
Course load	0.935	1	0.935	0.733	0.395
Years experience	0.434	2	0.217	0.170	0.844
2-Way Interactions	32.008	14	2.286	1.792	0.062
E.S. & Institution	1.333	1	1.333	1.045	0.311
E.S. & TA Influence	1.253	1	1.253	0.982	0.326
E.S. & Course Load	0.268	1	0.268	0.210	0.649
E.S. & Years Experience	1.630	2	0.815	0.639	0.531
Inst. & TA Influence	4.273	1	4.273	3.350	0.072
Inst. & Course Load	0.465	1	0.465	0.364	0.548
Inst. Years Experience	1.525	2	0.763	0.598	0.553
TA Influence & Course Load	0.823	1	0.823	0.646	0.425
TA Influence & Years Experience	8.175	2	4.088	3.205	0.048*
Course load & Years Experience	3.599	2	1.799	1.411	0.252
Explained	45.359	20	2.268	1.788	0.046*
Residual	73.983	58	1.276		
Total	119.342	78	1.530		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Rules Inhibit Writing (Item 21)					
Main effects	10.919	6	1.820	1.258	0.291
Employment Status (E.S.)	2.132	1	2.132	1.474	0.230
Institution (Inst.)	0.052	1	0.052	0.036	0.850
TA Influence	3.170	1	3.170	2.191	0.144
Course load	1.524	1	1.524	1.053	0.309
Years experience	2.452	2	1.226	0.847	0.434
2-Way Interactions	30.890	14	2.206	1.525	0.131
E.S. & Institution	3.196	1	3.196	2.209	0.143
E.S. & TA Influence	6.410	1	6.410	4.430	0.040*
E.S. & Course Load	0.282	1	0.282	0.195	0.660
E.S. & Years Experience	10.074	2	5.037	3.481	0.037*
Inst. & TA Influence	1.881	1	1.881	1.300	0.259
Inst. & Course Load	0.796	1	0.796	0.550	0.461
Inst. Years Experience	4.588	2	2.294	1.586	0.214
TA Influence & Course Load	0.633	1	0.633	0.438	0.511
TA Influence & Years Experience	1.577	2	0.789	0.545	0.583
Course load & Years Experience	0.551	2	0.275	0.190	0.827
Explained	41.809	20	2.090	1.445	0.139
Residual	83.913	58	1.447		
Total	125.722	78	1.612		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Freedom in Composing (item 28)					
Main effects	7.634	6	1.272	0.762	0.602
Employment Status (E.S.)	2.182	1	2.182	1.307	0.258
Institution (Inst.)	1.484	1	1.484	0.889	0.350
TA Influence	3.094	1	3.094	1.854	0.179
Course load	0.650	1	0.650	0.389	0.535
Years experience	0.500	2	0.250	0.150	0.861
2-Way Interactions	22.497	14	1.607	0.963	0.501
E.S. & Institution	4.717	1	4.717	2.826	0.098
E.S. & TA Influence	2.508	1	2.508	1.503	0.225
E.S. & Course Load	0.026	1	0.026	0.016	0.900
E.S. & Years Experience	2.955	2	1.478	0.885	0.418
Inst. & TA Influence	0.151	1	0.151	0.090	0.765
Inst. & Course Load	0.078	1	0.078	0.047	0.829
Inst. Years Experience	6.445	2	3.223	1.931	0.154
TA Influence & Course Load	0.073	1	0.073	0.043	0.836
TA Influence & Years Experience	0.407	2	0.203	0.122	0.885
Course load & Years Experience	4.088	2	2.044	1.225	0.301
Explained	30.131	20	1.507	0.903	0.585
Residual	96.806	58	1.669		
Total	126.937	78	1.627		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Evaluation for Individual Development (item 37)					
Main effects	8.572	6	1.429	1.406	0.228
Employment Status (E.S.)	2.301	1	2.301	2.265	0.138
Institution (Inst.)	0.122	1	0.122	0.120	0.730
TA Influence	0.111	1	0.111	0.110	0.742
Course load	5.632	1	5.632	5.544	0.022*
Years experience	1.868	2	0.934	0.920	0.404
2-Way Interactions	13.703	14	0.979	0.964	0.500
E.S. & Institution	1.933	1	1.933	1.903	0.173
E.S. & TA Influence	0.555	1	0.555	0.546	0.463
E.S. & Course Load	2.992	1	2.992	2.945	0.091
E.S. & Years Experience	2.606	2	1.303	1.283	0.285
Inst. & TA Influence	0.178	1	0.178	0.175	0.677
Inst. & Course Load	0.503	1	0.503	0.495	0.484
Inst. Years Experience	0.159	2	0.079	0.078	0.925
TA Influence & Course Load	0.010	1	0.010	0.010	0.921
TA Influence & Years Experience	0.383	2	0.191	0.188	0.829
Course load & Years Experience	0.229	2	0.115	0.113	0.893
Explained	22.275	20	1.114	1.096	0.378
Residual	58.915	58	1.016		
Total	81.190	78	1.041		

n = 98, 19 cases missing

*p ≤ .05

APPENDIX I

MULTIPLE CLASSIFICATION ANALYSIS ON ANOVA WITH SINGLE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Grand Mean = 2.91				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Correct English (item 06)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	-0.14		-0.08			
PT	36	0.17		0.09			
			0.12		0.06		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.34		0.44			
Univ	55	--.15		-0.19			
			0.17		0.22		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.11		-0.04			
Some or much	59	0.04		0.01			
			0.05		0.02		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	-0.07		0.24			
More than 3	53	0.03		-0.12			
			0.03		0.12		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	0.26		0.34			
7-15 years	29	0.09		0.02			
More than 15 years	26	-0.33		-0.34			
			0.18		0.21		
Multiple R Squared					0.078		
Multiple R					0.279		

Grand Mean = 3.08				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Composition for Discipline (item 12)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.04		0.13			
PT	36	-0.05		-0.15			
			0.04		0.12		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.30		0.46			
Univ	55	-0.13		-0.20			
			0.16		0.26		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.08		-0.06			
Some or much	59	0.03		0.02			
			0.04		0.03		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	0.04		0.26			
More than 3	53	-0.02		-0.13			
			0.02		0.15		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	0.26		0.45			
7-15 years	29	0.06		0.01			
More than 15 years	26	-0.31		-0.42			
			0.19		0.29		
Multiple R Squared					0.105		
Multiple R					0.324		

Grand Mean = 2.73				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Composition for Conventions (item 30)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.13		0.08			
PT	36	-0.15		-0.10			
			0.13		0.08		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.18		0.27			
Univ	55	-0.08		-0.12			
			0.11		0.16		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	0.12		0.08			
Some or much	59	-0.04		-0.03			
			0.06		0.04		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	0.23		0.31			
More than 3	53	-0.11		-0.15			
			0.14		0.19		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	-0.19		-0.04			
7-15 years	29	0.16		0.15			
More than 15 years	26	-0.00		-0.14			
			0.13		0.11		
Multiple R Squared					0.068		
Multiple R					0.261		

Grand Mean = 3.32				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Able Pupils & Variety (Item 35)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	-0.04		-0.07			
PT	36	0.04		-0.08			
			0.04		0.08		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.10		0.29			
Univ	55	-0.04		-0.12			
			0.07		0.19		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.12		-0.10			
Some or much	59	0.04		0.03			
			0.07		0.06		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	0.22		0.37			
More than 3	53	-0.11		-0.18			
			0.16		0.26		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	0.14		0.22			
7-15 years	29	-0.14		-0.16			
More than 15 years	26	0.03		-0.03			
			0.12		0.16		
Multiple R Squared					0.080		
Multiple R					0.282		

Grand Mean = 2.78				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Effect of Grammar (Item 10)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.12		0.23			
PT	36	-0.15		-0.28			
			0.11		0.21		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.34		0.31			
Univ	55	-0.15		-0.14			
			0.18		0.17		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.38		-0.48			
Some or much	59	0.13		0.16			
			0.18		0.23		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	-0.17		-0.18			
More than 3	53	0.08		0.09			
			0.10		0.10		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	-0.16		-0.08			
7-15 years	29	0.18		0.10			
More than 15 years	26	-0.05		-0.04			
			0.12		0.06		
Multiple R Squared					0.112		
Multiple R					0.334		

Grand Mean = 2.78				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Effect of Grammar (Item 10)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.12		0.23			
PT	36	-0.15		-0.28			
			0.11		0.21		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.34		0.31			
Univ	55	-0.15		-0.14			
			0.18		0.17		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.38		-0.48			
Some or much	59	0.13		0.16			
			0.18		0.23		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	-0.17		-0.18			
More than 3	53	0.08		0.09			
			0.10		0.10		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	-0.16		-0.08			
7-15 years	29	0.18		0.10			
More than 15 years	26	-0.05		-0.04			
			0.12		0.06		
Multiple R Squared					0.112		
Multiple R					0.334		

Grand Mean = 2.48				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Rules Inhibit Writing (Item 21)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.19		0.17			
PT	36	-0.23		-0.20			
			0.17		0.15		
Institution							
ComCol	24	-0.02		0.04			
Univ	55	0.01		-0.02			
			0.01		0.02		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.28		-0.35			
Some or much	59	0.10		0.12			
			0.13		0.16		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	0.29		0.23			
More than 3	53	-0.14		-0.11			
			0.16		0.13		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	-0.27		-0.18			
7-15 years	29	0.21		0.23			
More than 15 years	26	0.02		-0.09			
			0.16		0.14		
Multiple R Squared					0.087		
Multiple R					0.295		

Grand Mean = 2.75				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Freedom in Composing (Item 28)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.07		0.17			
PT	36	-0.08		-0.21			
			0.06		0.15		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.25		0.23			
Univ	55	-0.11		-0.10			
			0.13		0.12		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	-0.30		-0.35			
Some or much	59	0.10		0.12			
			0.14		0.16		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	-0.17		-0.15			
More than 3	53	0.08		0.07			
			0.09		0.08		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	-0.04		0.02			
7-15 years	29	0.15		0.09			
More than 15 years	26	-0.13		-0.11			
			0.09		0.07		
Multiple R Squared					0.060		
Multiple R					0.245		

Grand Mean = 3.90				Adjusted for		Adjusted for	
Variable & Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	ETA	Independents Dev'n	BETA	Independents & Covariates Dev'n	BETA
Rules Inhibit Writing (Item 21)							
Employment Status							
FT	43	0.08		0.18			
PT	36	-0.09		-0.21			
			0.08		0.19		
Institution							
ComCol	24	0.14		0.07			
Univ	55	-0.06		-0.03			
			0.09		0.04		
TA Influence							
None or little	20	0.00		-0.07			
Some or much	59	-0.00		0.02			
			0.00		0.04		
Course Load							
3 or less	26	-0.32		-0.45			
More than 3	53	0.16		0.22			
			0.22		0.31		
Years Experience							
Under 7 years	24	0.06		0.07			
7-15 years	29	-0.14		-0.20			
More than 15 years	26	0.10		0.17			
			0.11		0.16		
Multiple R Squared					0.106		
Multiple R					0.325		