THE ROLE OF WRITING PERMANENCY

IN THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO ENGAGE IN THE WRITING PROCESS

by

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ABSTRACT

A six week study was conducted with fifty-six grade 8 students to investigate the effect of a programme which encouraged all students in the experimental group to display their writing at a district writing fair. The programme involved prewriting experiences, drafting and redrafting, discussion with friends and family, and the production of a polished copy. The choice of whether to display or not, and of which work to display, belonged to the student. The control group participated in the same programme but without the option of displaying their work.

Two separate self-concept questionnaires were used before and after the study: the Self Description Questionnaire (SDQ) and the Writing Apprehension Questionnaire (DWAS). There was a significant difference in the scores of the two classes on the self-concept in English section of the SDQ post test, but not in the expected direction. The experimental group maintained a consistent level of reported self-esteem but that of the control group dropped significantly.

An assessment of interactions of academic achievement, gender, and group at the end of the study found that the lower achievers of both gender in the control group reported lower self-esteem, as did the upper-achieving females in the control group. However, in the experimental group, the lower-achieving boys reported significantly higher self-esteem and the lower-achieving girls maintained the same level as in the pretest. The scores of the upper achievers in both groups did not change significantly.

The reasons for the apparent drop in self-concept for these students during the first months of their grade 8 year are not known. However, the option of displaying their writing outside of the classroom setting seems to have had a positive affect on the lower-achieving males.

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THE ROLE OF WRITING PERMANENCY IN STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO ENGAGE IN THE WRITING PROCESS

Children struggle to communicate from the day they are born - by gestures, by sounds, and eventually, by words. They try to inform adults of their needs, interests, and pleasures. Fond parents usually respond with support and reinforcement, delighting in the extension of contact and understanding. However, many children seem to lose this joy in communication once school enters their lives. How can this happen when the avowed aim of teachers and school systems is to increase the child's interaction with the world and to help him to function efficiently within it?

Perhaps the education system is to blame in that too much emphasis is put upon the forms of communication and too little on the content. Children may start to learn in kindergarten and grade 1 that more attention is paid to whether they have put up their hands when they wish to speak than to what they have said. They may find that they cannot express themselves except within the narrow limits of spelling and grammar which adults have defined. They may see themselves measured through adult eyes and by incomprehensible limits instead of through their own investigation of life and the discovery of their own solutions.

The 1968 report of the Provincial Commission on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario (PCAOE) quoted Dean Neville Scarfe as saying

> We know that [children] become diligently thoughtful when they are actively investigating real and concrete problems that seem worthwhile solving to them. We know that they learn most effectively if they can persist with concentrated effort for a considerable length of time. We know that this can happen and does happen when the problem or topic of investigation retains their interest, cashes in on their curiosity, and develops their enthusiasm. (p. 14)

The progress that children make in the first two years of their lives is mainly self initiated. 'The infant comes early to solve problems of high complexity and does so on the basis of encounters with the environment . . . ". (Bruner, 1973, p .2). He learns to sit, crawl, walk and talk without formal instruction. He does not have to progress through the exact steps performed by the next child and he is not humiliated when he does not follow the correct pattern.

Once school starts, this independent investigation is often lost. It takes an exceptional teacher to make the system work for those children who do not fit in easily and find success immediately. From the beginning, all school work depends on the ability to read and write. Arithmetic requires less reading than most other subjects but one must still be able to decipher the problem and to engrave the

solution on paper. The child who comes to school with good eye-hand co-ordination, mature visual perception, and a background in which language is important, is a winner. A child whose perceptional abilities are immature or defective, or whose background has not been enriched by the pleasure of language, is likely to suffer.

Competition between children is promoted by the system regardless of the preferences of either the children or the teacher. The teacher is required to evaluate the children as well as to teach them. If she sends home work in which errors are not identified, she may be considered incompetent by parents and administrators. Therefore, children rarely get an opportunity to practise communication skills freely. Those who can follow the required communication pattern of spelling and grammar are rewarded, those who have difficulty are continually made aware of it. Even a talented and concerned teacher finds it difficult to not draw attention to the child who writes poorly when success is so narrowly defined, and so much depends upon the ability to write.

Fortunately, in recent years, educators and researchers have begun to stress the importance of the writing process rather than the product. This approach allows a child the same flexibility that an adult enjoys when communicating by writing. The child is not expected

to produce a finished piece of work at one sitting as directed by the teacher. Instead he is encouraged to think about a topic, to discuss it with friends and with the teacher, to write a rough draft, to discuss it and further revise it, and finally to choose when to present it for evaluation. This writing can then be genuinely evaluated as a piece of work which the child feels is a finished product.

"Although the written tasks students are asked to perform are similar to those which we might expect mature adult writers to engage in, the school context is one in which this undertaking will be taken to be an 'exercise', directed to an audience of one, the teacher" (Britten, Burgess, Martin, McLeod, & Rosen, 1975, p. 63), with only the judgement of the work as a goal. By discussing their work with peers and then reworking their papers, children can come to value their writing and to see it as inherently interesting to others, thereby gaining an expanded sense of audience.

Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984) pointed out that "Writing is an event, not an act. As such, writing is a process which occurs over time and which demands multiple and extended opportunities for engagement and reengagement. Classroom writing programs should be organized to reflect this process." (P. 214) By providing practice without punishment, this system maintains the child's interest in

improving his writing. It allows the child to record, evaluate, discuss, re-evaluate and choose for himself. It also provides him with an audience other than the teacher.

When adults write, it is almost always directed to an audience, whether it is a letter to a distant friend, a complaint to the tax department, or a novel, the aim is always to communicate something. Children must learn to see their writing in the same light rather than as an exercise to define their ability.

The relationship between students' work and adult endeavours is pointed out by Bruner (1966)

> Intellectual activity anywhere is the same, whether at the frontier of knowledge or in the third-grade classroom. What a scientist does at his desk, or in his laboratory, what a literary critic does in reading a poem, are of the same order as what anybody else does when engaged in like activities - if he is to achieve understanding. The difference is in degree, not in kind. The schoolboy learning physics is a physicist, and it is easier for him to learn physics behaving like a physicist than doing something else. (p. 14)

Hawkins (1974) describes the importance of producing something worthwhile as the challenge "to recover for our world the ways of learning that are concretely involving and esthetically rewarding, that move from play toward apprenticeship in work." (p. 5) This also involves the aspect of personal choice or locus of control. "When a

man perceives his behavior as stemming from his own choice . . . he will cherish that behavior and its results . . ." (de Charms, 1968, cited in Notz, 1975)

Often, in the schools, only the non-academic endeavours provide a concrete goal. Renzulli (1977), pointed out "Almost every extracurricular activity has a real and tangible product at the end of the line." (p. 39) He referred to a study by Munday and Davis (1974) which suggested that involvement in such activities correlates more highly with success in later life than does academic excellence.

If a child does not see what he is asked to do in school as inherently worthwhile, either his view of his own worth or his belief in the school system is diminished. When a child accepts an adult's definition of his ability, his own perception of himself is altered. School provides the most obvious labelling of success and failure that children encounter. The narrower the limits by which such success is defined, the fewer the children who will feel competent. Kifer (1975) suggests that "those instructional strategies which provide a means for more students to have more success would be considered preferable to those which do not because of their potential impact on the personality characteristics of students." (p. 207)

Bridgeman & Shipman (1978) conducted a study which indicated that children have a good self-concept until grade 3. After grade 2, their self-esteem is closely tied to academic self-concept. It would appear that they have learned to accept their success in school subjects as an assessment of their own worth. A study by Rholes, Blackman, Jordan, & Walters (1982) found that learned helplessness as a response to falsified test results could only be induced at the grade 3 level. Until that time, the children would not base their self-esteem on such a limited criterion. Back-to-the-basics movements may exacerbate this situation even further, by increasing the pressure on both teachers and students to prove that they are fitting the system.

Many educators would agree that "the enhancement of students' self-concept is valued as a goal of education and as a moderator and perhaps a cause of scholastic achievement" (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982, p. 3), although a meta-analysis by Hattie and Hansford (1982) suggests that this has not yet been empirically proven. They note that many variables such as grade level, socioeconomic background, and race prevent reliable generalizations at this time. Kifer (1975) supports this contention by his statement that few consistent and sizeable relationships between academic achievement and affective traits have been found in the many studies that have been conducted.

The short term nature of some of the experimental studies may account for the lack of consistent and lasting results. If enhancing factors are manipulated in isolation to the rest of the students existence, they may extinguish quickly due to lack of generalization. The study by Ludwig and Maehr (1967) in which positive or negative reinforcement was provided to grade 8 students regarding their athletic ability, would support this theory. The treatment was followed by the expected changes in self-report but diminished rapidly to the pretest level, although the changes in their stated preferences for the particular activity were slightly more long lasting.

A further question which emerges from the issue of self-esteem versus academic achievement is whether all children are able to function as apprentice professionals or only those that can be defined as gifted. It may be that the preselection of "gifted children" allows many to be missed who could perform equally well given the chance to believe in their own abilities.

In a recent interview, Dr. D. Knowles pointed out that:

> At least 25 percent of children have gifted characteristics in some very important area of school endeavor in which they are not sufficiently challenged by the regular curriculum ... For some it may only be one subject such as math; for others it's across the board. (as cited in Collins, 1985, p. C -1)

This view is supported by Whitmore (1982) in her description of the underachieving gifted and the tendency which exists to overlook their abilities.

The intention of this researcher was to try to construct a situation in which the students could believe that they were communicating to someone other than the classroom teacher and that an accepting audience did exist for their writing. The use of the writing process was expected to encourage participation by those who had not been successful in previous writing tasks. The opportunity to have time to think about the work, to discuss it with friends and teacher before submitting it for evaluation was expected to provide support for the belief that it was a worthwhile effort. The student was to have the option of submitting his choice of work for publishing or not, as would an adult in a similar situation. This was to allow the student the security of being able to withhold publication permission if the response in his practise exposure to a public audience (his friends) was not favourable. The study also attempted to determine if the students who were already functioning well in the system would be the ones to respond most favourably to this opportunity.

Although many projects have included the publishing of students' work, little research appears to have been done on motivational or

academic change as a result of this factor. These projects have ranged over a variety of disciplines but all have had the common factor of presentation within the community of the finished product. Publishing: Bringing Language to Life (Cozzens, 1979), Students Discover the Magic of Publication (Massey, 1975), Publishing Activities Center (New York State Education Dept., 1981), Writing: From Walls to Paper, The Texas Hill Country Writing Project (Lambert, 1979) and the Foxfire series (Weggentor & Bennet, 1984), are examples of programmes based on the publication of students' compositions.

Science fairs have been popular and successful for a number of years due to the wider audience they provide for student work, and writing and art fairs have been held in many school districts. However, the work displayed in most of these fairs is selected by in-school competition, rather than by the students themselves. The locus of control provided by the student selection of this study was expected to provide motivation to a wider range of students than those who usually display in these fairs.

The areas of literature which were researched included self concept, locus of control, the teaching of composition, publishing of students work, and the selection of students for gifted programmes.

Definitions

"gifted" - for this study will be defined as by Renzulli (1977, p. 34) as children with above average intelligence, showing creativity in some form, and who are capable of a high level of task committment or intrinsic motivation to perform.

"published" - presented in a polished form to an audience outside of the regular classroom or the student's own home.

"permanency of writing" - "permanency through publication, collections of writing, writing folders, charts, etc." (Graves, 1981, p. 204)

"the writing process" - the act of producing a finished piece of written work through stages of discussion, drafting and revision of the composition.

Literature Review

A search of previous research on students' writing disclosed no studies of the effect of publishing students' work. Graves (1980) stated in the Teachers of English Association research update that, in fact, little research on student writing had been undertaken and that most had been poorly done. Graves noted the difficulty of experimental design and the importance of the context in which the writing occurs. He said of a six year old who was showing enthusiasm and good progress in writing, that "she writes in a room that encourages child publication, mutual child help, and the importance of personal voice and information." (p. 914) He also pointed out that her mother is college educated, writes letters, and is interested in her child's progress. Her teacher writes for publication, the principal speaks, writes, and listens to the teachers. "Such contexts have been ignored in much of the past research related to writing" (p. 914)

New understandings of the context of the writing process are essential for the teacher of writing. It must be seen as a process of interaction, not a series of logical steps. (Murray, cited in in Donovan & McClelland, 1980). The need for rehearsal (prewriting), redrafting, and the development of skills for publication must be understood, allowing revision which does not end in publication to

become "the most significant kind of rehearsal for the next draft." (p.5) This kind of writing can be shared without the interference of mechanical problems, misspelling and poor penmanship.

It is also important to define the actual audience range which exists within the child's classroom, school, home, and to look at how this relates to the child's concept of audience and use of audience. "Too often students fail to see that what they have written is for reading". (Shaughnessy, 1977, cited in Donovan & McClelland, 1980, p. 28)

Graves (1981) listed, as one of the importance research question for the next decade, "how does the teacher provide for the permanency of writing?" (p. 204) He said that "Much writing should last . . . for the sake of the child, other children, parents and the teacher. This can be achieved through publication, collections of writing, writing folders, charts, etc." (p. 204) He also recommended a multi-level research project over a period of a year or more. As such range was beyond the means of the researcher, it was necessary to accept that replication and adaptation of this study in the future would be the only real basis for defining its reliability.

In order to narrow this research to a manageable unit, it was decided that the single aspect of publication would be examined. The

road to publication would necessarily involve the writing process and the stages of prewriting, revision, and final presentation. The study would also involve locus of control by allowing the student to decide whether to publish or not and which work to select. The researcher postulated that the belief that one's writing is of value to others should provide an increase of self-esteem, and that this self-esteem should inspire the child to increased interest and effort in writing.

The "writing as a process" approach was expected to provide support throughout the process by encouraging positive input to the draft writing by those with whom it was shared. These sharing opportunities would be, in fact, practice publication and were expected to make the student more comfortable with the eventual public display. Although similar reinforcement would be available to the students in the control group, the expectation was that without the aim of public display for the their work, they would take less advantage of the opportunity for sharing.

Self-concept theories fall into four categories (B. Byrne, 1984). In the nomothetic, fixed characteristics are affected by setting (Soares & Soares, 1980, cited in Byrne, 1984). The hierarchical model (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982), suggests multiple facets with general self-concept as the most stable peak of the pyramid and the situation

specific aspects as the less stable base. The taxonomic model (Soares & Soares, 1980), postulates relatively independent facets with a basic factor interacting with all; and the compensatory model (Marx & Winnie, 1980), suggests that certain facets are inversely related.

For this study, the hierarchical model was accepted, as the concept of situation-specific areas of self-concept fluctuating without greatly affecting the general self-esteem seemed most credible to the researcher. The eight facets investigated by the questionnaires were general self-concept, relationship with peers, relationship with parents, physical appearance, athletic ability, academic self-concept, and self-concept in the specific areas of English and mathematics.

Much has been written about the direction of causality in the relationship between academic achievement and academic self-concept. Those who believe in the causal predominance of self-concept over academic achievement include Entwisle and Webster (cited in Brophy & Good, 1974, p. 65) whose research indicated that young children who were praised and supported in their efforts at storytelling showed an increased effort and interest in the process. Similarly, a study by Meichenbaum and Smart (1971), (cited in Brophy & Good, 1974, p. 67), found that when a group of college freshmen of borderline ability were told that they were late bloomers and would do well in the following

semester in math and science, they did in fact improve significantly in two of the four classes.

Moyer (1980), using path analysis, a causal modeling procedure which allows the researcher to estimate reciprocal relationships over a period of time, conducted a four year study of 6,198 students and concluded that there was a weak flow from self-concept to academic achievement. He also discovered reciprocal causality of locus of control with academic achievement and a stronger flow from locus of control to academic achievement. A study by Boardman & Philips (1976) found that control was more important to underachieving students whereas the knowledge of achievement fed back to improved self-concept in high achievers.

Brookover, LePere, Hamachek, Thomas & Erickson (1964) explored three treatments to enhance self-concept of three samples of low achieving junior high school students over a three year period. The first attempted to enhance academic expectations and evaluations held by the parents of the students; the second introduced an 'expert' who communicated enhancing information to the students about their academic ability; the third created a new significant other in the form of a counsellor with high expectations and evaluations. Some variations were found in the effects of these treatments over sex and grade

level.

Over the three year period, self-concept change was found to be associated with a similar change in GPA. The researchers therefore assumed that self-concept of academic ability is an intervening factor between the perceived evaluation of others and performance. It was also found that self-concept of ability in specific school subjects was less stable in its relationship to total academic achievement than general self-concept of ability. An experiment by Hughes (1973) produced significant results on product measures affected by expectation. Grade 7 students who were systematically supported in their oral responses to questions surpassed the controls in science knowledge. (cited in Brophy & Good, 1974, p. 70)

According to an overview of such studies (Byrne,1984), research by Bailey (1971) agrees with view that self-concept influences academic achievement. He stated that significant differences in self-perceptions of achieving and underachieving students of below average college ability do exist and have important implications for understanding the role of non-intellectual factors in academic performance." (p. 191)

Other researchers hypothesize a stronger causal relationship from academic achievement to academic self-concept. Most theorists however,

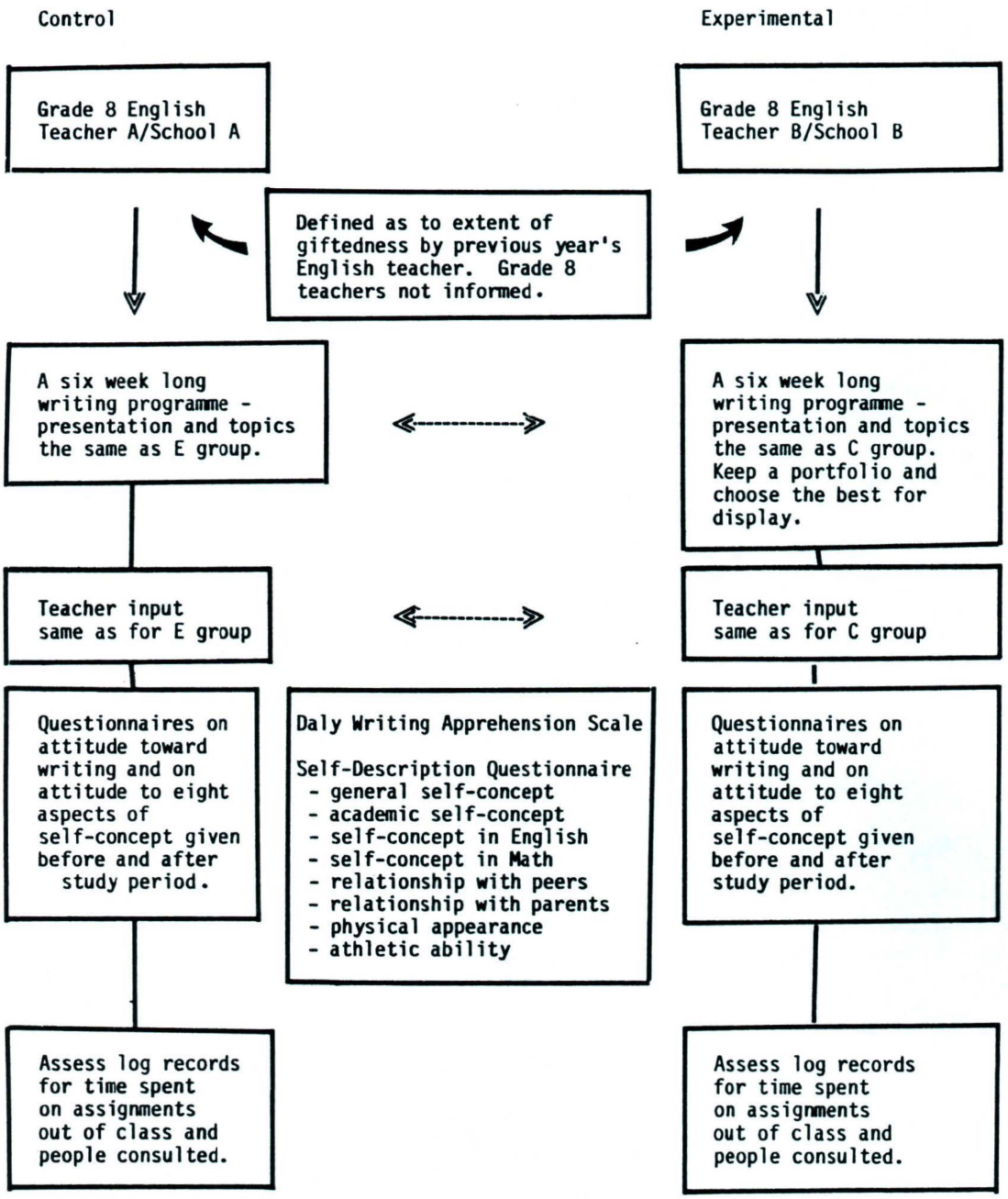
accept a two way stream with a stronger current in one direction. Bridgeman & Shipman (1978) found that grade 3 students' self-concept correlated with their academic achievement. Kifer (1975) suggested that a successful achievement pattern preceeds a high self-concept, and Calysn & Kenny (1977) found no support for the theory that perceived evaluations of others cause self-evaluation of ability, which in turn causes academic achievement. Research by Sheirer & Kraut (1979) led them to the conclusion that "self-concept change is likely to be an outcome of increased achievement with accompanying social approval, rather than an intervening variable necessary for achievement to occur." (p. 144)

While there seems to be comparable evidence for causal flow in both directions, the researcher believes that the structure of this study will incorporate the aspect of forced success which would fulfill either condition. By implying that the student's work is worth publishing, yet leaving the final choice up to him, the teacher is placing the student in a success situation which he will have to take steps to avoid, rather than the reverse as is more usually the case. It may be that the attempts to improve self-concept noted in some previous studies use enhancing procedures that are simply not believed by the students. Gagne & Biddle (1973) found "if direct communication of expectancies are to function as self-fulfilling prophecies they must

be credible to the children". (cited in Brophy & Good, 1974, p. 67) The guaranteed option of the concrete act of publishing the students work may lessen the likelihood of their disbelief.

Figure 1

THE ROLE OF WRITING PERMANENCY IN THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO ENGAGE IN THE WRITING PROCESS



Six measures used to identify change

1. Questionnaire results
2. Time spent on work out of class
3. Number of papers reworked
4. People consulted on writing
5. Attitudinal change of students nominated as gifted
6. Quality of work chosen to be published assessed by an non-involved English teacher.

Method

Procedures

The experimental design was a non-equivalent pretest/post test control group design as described by Campbell & Stanley (1963, p. 47), as it was necessary to use intact classrooms. By using two questionnaires plus non-reactive assessment measures, it was hoped that the uncertainty of interpretation would be reduced. (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 1966) The selection of similar groups, based on age, sex and achievement scores attempted to lessen the likelihood of bias. An analysis of co-variance was used with the pretest scores as the covariant. Replication of the study over a larger number of groups at different grade levels would be the best method of assessing the reliability of the present results. (see Figure 1)

Subjects

The original sample was drawn from two schools in the same school district. One school was situated in a more rural community and enrolled students who represented a wider range of socio-economic levels than the students in the other school, who were mainly upper-middle class. It was hoped that the selection of two similar groups from within the intact classes would overcome the difference in

the settings of the two schools. The same courses were taught in each school and the expectations of the principals and teachers appeared to be similar. The sample consisted of 109 grade 8 students from two classes in each school. Two similar groups of 40 students from these four intact English classes were selected to form a control group and an experimental group for a six week study on writing motivation. This number was eventually reduced to 29 in each group as several students did not agree to participate and a number of others did not complete the questionnaires.

It was not possible to match subjects because the classes were intact and could not be randomized for treatment. The possibility of grade 8 students keeping the secret as to which group they belonged was considered negligible. However, as Campbell & Stanley (1963) point out, intact classes are less reactive than a selection of students from those classes because selected students tend to see themselves as guinea pigs. The students who were not included in the study were unaware of their exclusion as they underwent identical treatment. Also, the intact groups were not self-selected to receive the treatment, and were, therefore, not pre-sorted for interest. According to Webb et al. (1966), "the curious, the exhibitionistic, and the succorant are likely to overpopulate any sample of volunteers."(p. 28)

The equivalence of the group was based upon comparison of their most recent school grades and their scores on the Canadian Basic Skills (CBS) tests. The students selected for the study all fell between the ages of 12 years 8 months and 13 years 9 months at the writing of the first questionnaire, and had marks ranging from C- to A in normal distribution. The scores on the total language section of the CBS test for each group, taken within the last three years, ranged from 4 years below present grade level to 4 years above grade level in a normal distribution.

The control group contained 9 males and 20 females, the experimental class, 13 males and 16 females. The students were defined as upper or lower on the level of their academic achievement. Those students with grades of better than a C+ average were considered to be upper-achieving, those with grades below a C+ average, to be lower-achieving. A toss of a coin by the teachers determined which class should contain the experimental group.

The teachers were both male, of a similar age, background, and interests, and were teaching in the same school district. They were both favourably inclined toward the programme provided by the researcher and both felt that they would be comfortable using the writing process approach. They saw the students for the same number of

classes per week and intended to present the material in the same manner.

Programme materials

The writing programme was based upon Pictures for Writing (Sohn, 1969). The book contains pictures, carefully defined exercises and introductions to exercises. Both teachers were asked to encourage the children to rewrite and polish their compositions and to write outside of class on things that interested them. The teachers were to provide further sources and examples when help was requested. The researcher observed in each class for a fifteen minute period to attempt to assess the bias of variations in teaching style. The questionnaires were given by the researcher in all cases.

Each student was given a folder in which to keep his writing with attached log forms to record time spent out of class on composition and to list people consulted for assistance. The children in the class who had not been selected as subjects performed the same activities and were not aware that they had not been selected as part of the study.

The independent variable was the use to which the work of the experimental group was to be put. The students in the experimental group were told that they were invited to produce work for the

district's writing fair, occurring three months after the end of the study. They were also told that they were expected to evaluate their own work and to select their best writing to be displayed. The control group were led to believe that their compositions did not have any purpose other than that of learning to express themselves in writing.

As this study was intended to allow circumstances similar to those which the students will encounter in life outside of the classroom, it was considered important that they be allowed to ask for advice. In order to provide equal treatment to both groups, both teachers were asked to offer as much support as possible. The independent variable was not to be the verbal encouragement, but the use to which the work was to be put. Therefore, both teachers were to:

- suggest a source for more information on the topic (either in content or form).
- suggest an expert with whom the student might talk.
- suggest a source of examples of this style of work.
- provide the usual input regarding style, grammar and spelling.

A previous year's English teacher for each of the subjects in the experimental group was asked to nominate students as potentially gifted based upon the Scales for the Rating of Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students (see Appendix D).

Data Collection

Instrumentation:

Primary assessment

The primary assessment tools used in this study were pretests and post tests using Likert-type scales for both self-concept and writing apprehension questionnaires. Both instruments were self-report multiple choice formats. The Daly Writing Apprehension Scale (see Appendix B) is a 5 point scale, scoring from 1 through 5, and the Self-Description Questionnaire (see Appendix C) is a 6 point scale, scoring 1 - 6.

The Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ) by Marsh, Smith, and Barnes (1983) was chosen on the basis of a search of the literature, which indicated that it was the most reliable of those in current use. According to Byrne (1984, p. 434), the subscales of the SDQ were empirically verified by confirmatory factor analysis, and found to load on each of the seven appropriate factors. Multitrait-multimethod matrix studies of the SDQ also yielded evidence of ample student-teacher agreement on all seven dimensions for three independent, diverse samples. Agreement on each dimension was relatively independent.

The Daly Writing Apprehension Scale (DWAS) was tested for validity by Daly and McCroskey (1975) on 176 adults. The reliability of the instrument was obtained by split half technique, the top half being compared with the bottom half. The reliability coefficient was .921.

The writing of the students in both classes was to be assessed at the beginning and at the end of the study. However, due to inconsistent collection methods by the teachers, it was decided to obtain an independent assessment of the writing submitted for publishing by the experimental group. The marking was performed by a teacher of grade 8 English on the basis of holistic assessment and primary trait analysis (see Appendix E) as defined by the National Assessment of Writing Achievement 1969 - 1979. The scores were then compared to the students' seventh grade English marks.

The teacher nomination of students with gifted attributes for the experimental group was collected by means of Scales for the Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students, parts II, and VIII. (see Appendix B).

Dependent variables

1. The difference, if any, between the scores achieved on the pretest and post test apprehension scale was the dependent variable to define attitude.

2. The difference, if any, between the scores achieved on the pretest and post test self-concept scales was the dependent variable used to define feelings of competence in specific areas.

3. Accuracy of teacher nominations for the gifted student were defined by the match of student behaviour to teacher prediction. Those who responded well to the programme were matched to the teacher nominations for gifted status.

4. The scores on the writing submitted for publication by the experimental class were compared to the marks assigned to the same students in grade 7 English.

Secondary assessment

A secondary approach attempted to cross-validate the primary measures. This included the qualitative assessment of non-reactive measures (Webb, 1966) in which student and teacher behaviours were observed, and records of particular activities, kept. Teacher report of student interest in the experimental group was obtained by teacher interviews and by information recorded in student logs of both groups.

Checklists were provided for each teacher to record the following:

- the number of clarifying questions asked about the exercise.
- the number of times a student seriously asked for help.
- the number of times a student discussed the assignments in general conversation.

However, as the teachers found it impossible to include time for this recording in their teaching programme, this assessment was not possible.

Recordings in student logs were compared for the two groups numerically and in anecdotal form. (see Appendix B)

Hypotheses:

The hypotheses were are follows:

1. H_0 - There will be no change in the writing apprehension scores of the students in either group on Daly Writing Apprehension Scale.

   H_1 - There will be an increase in positive responses to the writing apprehension scores of the students who have the option of publishing on the Daly Writing Apprehension Scale, but not in the scores of the group without this option.

2. H_0 - There will be no change in the self-concept in English and academic self-concept scores of the students in either group on Self-Description Questionnaire.

   H_1 - There will be an increase in the self-concept scores in English and academic self-concept scores of the students who have the option of publishing on the Self-Description Questionnaire, but not in the scores of the group without this option.

3. H_0 - The time spent on working on writing exercises out of class as indicated by student logs will be the same for both classes.

   H_1 - The time spent on working on writing exercises out of class time as indicated by student logs will be greater for the experimental class.

4. H_0 - The number of people consulted about the writing assignments as indicated by the student logs will be the same for both classes.

   H_1 - The number of people consulted about the writing assignments as indicated by the student logs will be greater for the experimental class.

5. H_0 - The scores achieved by the experimental group on the work submitted for publishing will not exceed the grades achieved by the same students in English in their grade 7 year.

H_1 - The scores achieved by the experimental group on the work submitted for publishing will exceed the grades achieved by the same students in English in their grade 7 year.

6. H_0 - The students who were nominated as gifted by their previous teachers will not be significantly correlated with improved scores on the two questionnaires.

H_1 - The students who were nominated as gifted by their previous teachers will be significantly correlated with improved scores on the two questionnaires.

Data Analysis

Primary measures

An analysis of co-variance was performed on the Daly Writing Apprehension Scale (DWAS) scores (see Appendix B) using the pretest as the covariant. No significant difference was found between the results of the experimental class and the control class. The first null hypothesis, that there will be no change in the writing apprehension scores of the student in either group was not rejected. (see Table 1)

The scores of the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ) (see Appendix B) were also assessed by an analysis of covariance on each of the eight individual sections: general self-concept, academic self-concept, self-concept in English, self-concept in mathematics, relationships with parents, relationships with peers, athletic self-concept, and self-concept in physical appearance. A significant difference in the scores of the two classes was found only in the self-concept of ability in English comparison. The second null hypothesis was rejected only for the English section of the SDQ. The alternate hypothesis was not rejected. In all other aspects the null hypotheses, that there will be no change in reported self-concept in the scores of the students in either group on the Self Description

Questionnaire could not be rejected. A t-test had shown no significant difference ($t(56) = .93$, $p < .05$) between the two classes based on their grade 7 English marks.

Table 1

Significance of Test Scores for all Subjects by Analysis of Co-variance

Test	F	p
Writing Apprehension	2.30	.135
SDQ		
English self concept	15.65**	.0001
Academic self concept	0.01	.93
General self concept	1.23	.27
Relationship w/peers	0.45	.51
Relationship w/parents	0.63	.43
Physical appearance	0.13	.72
Athletic ability	0.47	.50
Math self concept	0.24	.63

For **$p < .01$ $F(1,56) = 7.08$

While the ANCOVA did not indicate significant differences between the two classes on any measures but that of self-concept in English, when each measure was examined separately for each group a trend toward decreased self-concept was apparent in almost all areas. While these values cannot be considered significant in the comparison between the control and experimental group, the trend suggests that social context may play an important role in the self-concept of these students. (see Table 2)

A second ANCOVA was performed using sex, upper and lower academic level, and group against the pretest. Significant interactions were found on three sections of the SDQ: English, academic self-concept and athletic self-concept. Post hoc tests were performed for these three areas to examine paired comparisons. As the groups were not of equal size, the Scheffé method was used. (see Table 3)

Table 2

T-Tests for Questionnaire Results

Control					Experimental				
Pretest M	Post test M	d	SD	t	Pretest M	Post test M	d	SD	t
Daly Writing Apprehension Scale									
89.69	87.55	-2.14	1.18	2.16*	89.90	89.45	2.55	1.40	1.52
Self Description Questionnaire									
General self-concept									
49.52	48.62	-0.90	0.88	1.01	48.28	45.83	-2.45	0.76	3.74**
Academic self-concept									
40.45	39.28	-1.17	1.24	0.94	39.03	38.03	-1.00	0.71	1.26
English self-concept									
42.14	33.41	-8.72	1.56	5.60**	38.41	38.59	0.18	0.70	0.26
Mathematics self-concept									
38.86	38.45	-0.41	1.07	0.39	42.00	39.69	-2.31	0.82	2.83**
Relationship with Peers									
43.41	41.69	-1.72	0.96	1.79	38.90	37.38	-1.52	0.73	2.08*
Relationship with Parents									
45.93	44.10	-1.83	0.89	0.02	42.86	43.10	0.24	0.74	0.33
Physical Appearance									
40.38	38.10	-2.28	0.92	2.46	38.28	35.69	-2.59	0.83	3.11*
Athletic Ability									
40.41	39.24	-1.17	1.43	0.82	40.76	40.72	-0.30	0.62	0.06

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

Table 3

Pairwise Comparisons for Gender and Level - Scheffé

Group	n	pretest M	pretest SD	post test M	post test SD	comparisons	pretest F	post test F
				English self concept				
UF	22	47.27	8.68	42.23	9.63	UF:LF	5.48	11.12*
LF	14	39.79	11.36	31.07	11.12	UF:UM	21.93**	10.61*
UM	11	31.09	9.47	30.46	8.17	UF:LM	10.47*	3.61
LM	11	36.09	7.57	35.36	9.79	LF:UM	5.32	0.02
						LF:LM	0.96	1.19
						UM:LM	1.57	1.38
				Academic self concept				
UF	22	43.86	7.61	43.09	6.27	UF/LF	7.63	16.26**
LF	14	35.57	10.57	32.21	10.09	UF/UM	2.78	2.84
UM	11	38.46	10.09	38.18	8.13	UF/LM	3.17	1.97
LM	11	38.09	6.88	39.00	7.42	LF/UM	0.66	3.52
						LF/LM	0.51	4.56
						UM/LM	0.01	0.06
				Athletic self concept				
UF	22	38.41	11.89	38.09	10.18	UF/LF	0.38	1.60
LF	14	36.29	11.41	34.29	9.52	UF/UM	4.32	7.81
UM	11	46.09	6.16	47.18	5.88	UF/LM	3.09	3.10
LM	11	44.91	6.09	43.82	7.00	LF/UM	5.91	13.20**
						LF/LM	4.57	7.21
						UM/LM	0.08	0.80

For *$p < .05$ $F(3,54) = 2.79$ For **$p < .01$ $F(3,54) = 4.17$

UF = Upper-achieving female
LF = Lower-achieving female
UM = Upper-achieving male
LM = Lower-achieving male

Significant differences were found between sexes and levels of achievement in the three areas. In the SDQ - English self-concept, reported female self-concept declined, lower females more than upper females. Males remained almost the same with the upper males generally declining slightly and the lower males rising slightly. The academic self-concept section of the SDQ showed lower females with a low score initially that declined further by the post test. The scores of upper females and males remained at the original level. The athletic self-concept component showed a definite division between male and female scores, with the males rating their abilities considerably higher. The difference between scores of upper-achieving males and the lower achieving females reached significance at the $p < .01$ level by the post test.

The changes in mean scores for each gender and level within each group were examined and t-tests for dependent samples were performed for the three SDQ areas under consideration. (see Table 4)

Table 4

SDQ - Mean Score Changes for Level/Gender/Group Divisions

	Control					Experimental				
	n	pre test M	post test M	SD	t	n	pre test M	post test M	SD	t
					English Self Concept					
UF	11	48.91	41.18	7.98	3.22**	11	45.64	43.27	3.53	2.23*
LF	9	41.44	28.11	9.33	4.03**	5	36.80	36.40	1.34	0.67
UM	4	29.50	31.50	2.38	1.68	7	30.89	31.00	3.45	0.05
LM	5	37.00	29.00	7.19	2.49	6	35.33	40.67	4.97	2.63*
					Academic Self Concept					
UF	11	45.27	44.18	3.67	0.98	11	42.46	42.00	2.12	0.70
LF	9	38.11	32.67	9.63	1.69	5	31.00	31.40	3.67	0.24
UM	4	35.00	39.50	8.68	1.04	7	40.43	37.42	4.17	1.91
LM	5	38.40	40.20	2.16	1.88	6	37.33	38.00	2.99	0.14
					Athletic Self Concept					
UF	11	40.36	39.09	3.96	1.09	11	36.46	37.09	2.80	2.06
LF	9	38.67	34.33	4.80	2.71*	5	32.00	34.20	5.72	0.86
UM	4	41.25	47.50	7.41	1.68	7	48.86	47.00	1.88	2.62*
LM	5	43.00	41.80	4.34	0.62	6	46.50	45.50	1.97	1.25

*$p<.05$ **$p<.01$ See Table 2 for acronym definitions.

Significant changes occurred in four divisions in the English self concept section. Both upper and lower-achieving females in the control group reported significantly less self esteem on the post test than on the pretest at the $p<.01$ level. The upper-achieving females in the experimental group also indicated significantly less self esteem at the $p<.05$ level at the end of the study. However, the lower-achieving males in the experimental group reported significantly more self esteem at $p<.05$ on the post test than on the pretest. None of the males in the control group showed a significant difference over the study period in reported self-esteem, nor did the lower-achieving females and upper-achieving males in the experimental group.

Scheffé tests were also performed on the interactions of the eight divisions based on gender, level and group to examine the relationships between the changes noted. None of the interactions fell within the significant range at $p<.05$. Therefore, these results were not considered further.

Secondary measures

Logs kept by the students of their involvement with the writing process during the study indicated that while the control class wrote more papers, they spent less time out of class working on them and

consulted fewer people regarding the work. (see Table 5). The control class students also consulted the teacher for input much more often than those students in the experimental class. (see Table 6) Hypotheses 3 and 4 both allowed the rejection of the null hypotheses in favor of the alternate hypotheses which were not rejected. The third null hypothesis stated that the time spent on working on writing exercises out of class as indicated by student logs will be the same for both classes. The fourth null hypothesis stated that the number of people consulted about the writing assignments as indicated by the student logs will be the same for both classes.

At the end of the study, 27 of the 29 students in the experimental class chose to publish their work. The written work chosen by the students to be published was assessed by a grade 8 teacher of English using holistic evaluation and trait analysis. (see Appendix B) It was then assigned a combined total. When compared by t-test to the marks achieved by the same students in grade 7 English, no significant difference was found. ($t(28) = .46$) The null hypothesis for hypothesis 5 could not be rejected: The scores achieved by the experimental group on the work submitted for publishing will not exceed the grades achieved by the same students in English in their grade 7 year.

Table 5

A Summary of the Log Records Kept by the Students during the Study

	# of papers written		time out of class in minutes		# of persons consulted	
	Group					
	#1	#2	#1	#2	#1	#2
Total	182	125	2630	4150	95	135
M	7.3	4.8	105.2	159.6	3.8	5.2
SD	3.53	1.54	112.93	128.16	3.39	1.40
	t = 2.76		t = 2.20		t = 2.05	

Table 6

Persons Consulted on Draft Writing

	Group							
	#1	#2	#1	#2	#1	#2	#1	#2
#	32	60	43	66	3	8	26	1
M	1.1	2.1	1.5	2.3	0.10	0.28	0.90	0.03
%	34	45	36	49	3	6	27	0.7
	Parents		Peers		Siblings		Teacher	

Group #1 = control class Group #2 = experimental class

The students were asked to indicate on their "publishing" work, the reason for its selection. (see Appendix A) While 45% of the reasons given by the students were simply personal preference, 24% were based on the approval by others (marks 17%, other approval - 7%), 31% gave specific literary reasons for the selection.

Students were nominated for gifted categories in motivation and precision in language by their last elementary English teacher using the Scales for the Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students (SRBCSS). (see Appendix B) The frequency of specific behaviours representing the characteristic under consideration are assigned numerical values on the scales. The totals for each student were summed to provide a group mean score. Student's individual z-scores were then compared to the group mean. The SRBCSS guide book recommended that selections be based upon students scores that differed significantly above the mean (p. 17). It stated that no specific cutoff for student selection could be given, as other factors such as the type of programme provided could be relevant. Therefore, a level of significance of $p < .10$ on a one tailed test was used as only those students above the mean were considered.

At this level, three students were nominated as gifted in precision of language, and five students were nominated as gifted in motivation. (see Table 7) Only the experimental group was considered in this assessment.

Table 7

Scores Achieved by Students Nominated as Gifted by Previous English Teachers on the SRBCSS for Experimental Group Only

Precision		Motivation	
$M = 740/29 = 25.52$		$M = 645/29 = 22.24$	
$SD = 7.37$		$SD = 4.58$	
Student #	t	Student #	t
2025	1.97	2028	1.48
2042	1.83	2037	1.91
2043	2.51	2042	1.48
		2043	1.70
		2052	1.48

For $p < .10$ $t(28) = 1.32$

The data were analyzed by the Fisher Exact Probability Test as the two independent samples were small in size. A positive response to the programme was defined by a rise in the student's self-concept score in English on the SDQ post test. Those student's who reported higher self-esteem in the area of English were considered to be those who could benefit from a programme involving some form of publishing of their writing. (see Table 8)

Table 8

Fisher's Exact Z Results for the Responses to the Programme of Those Students Nominated as Gifted by Previous Teachers

	Precision		Motivation	
	factors	p	factors	p
as is =	(1,2,14,15)	= 1	(2,3,12,12)	= 1
Tocher's modification =	(0,3,14,15)	= 1	(1,4,12,12)	= 1
			(0,5,12,12)	= 1

The test indicated a probability of 1 which suggests that the large numbers are overwhelming the small numbers. However, it also implies that the results are no more likely than a random choice. Therefore,

the null hypothesis for hypothesis 6 could not be rejected: The students who were nominated as gifted by their previous teachers will not be significantly correlated with improved scores on the two questionnaires.

Discussion

The expectation that the option of publishing written work would increase the self-concept scores of the experimental group was not borne out. There was a significant difference in the post test scores in self-concept in English of the experimental group and the control group, but in an unexpected direction. The self-concept of the experimental group was maintained at the original level whereas the control group's reported self-concept in English dropped significantly. Changes in the scores of the pre test and post test for each of the two groups showed an increase of reported self-concept only in the DRAS and relationship with parents (SDQ) for the experimental class. All other areas tested showed a decrease in self-concept scores. (See Table 2) The differences between the two groups when assessed by ANCOVA indicated that the only significant difference was in the English section of the SDQ. However, the trend toward decreased self esteem in all areas would suggest the possibility of a general decrease in self concept during this period of these students' school life. (see Table 1)

As Graves (1980) points out "research about writing must be suspect when it ignores context or process. Unless researchers describe in detail the full context of data gathering and the processes of learning

and teaching, the data cannot be exported from room to room." (p. 917) It is therefore, important to look at the general results of the SDQ questionnaire. He defined the context in three categories: the writing episode, the life of the child who writes and the social-ethnographic context of the writing episode.

In this study, the writing episode should have differed only in the experimental factor, that of publishing. The social-ethnographic context varied slightly for the two groups in that one school was located in a more rural area with fewer professional and upper management residents. However, no significant difference was found in any of the pretest scores. The third category, that of the life the child is living at the time of the study can only be considered in very general terms as no individual information except previous marks was obtained.

The known factors of the grade 8 experience could be considered to be: the student moves from a smaller social circle to a larger and more varied one; he deals with a larger number of teachers, generally on a less personal basis; he is expected to function both socially and academically with less supervision and interaction; he moves from being the top class in elementary school to the bottom class at the secondary school; and life generally becomes more competitive at a social and

athletic level.

Examination of the literature revealed no studies specifically investigating self-concept during the first term of secondary school. It is possible that self-esteem may be affected by the move from the top of the social strata at the elementary school to the bottom at the secondary level. It may be altered through dealing with a larger social scene, or simply by physical and emotional aspects of adolescent development at that particular time. A study such as this should be followed up by "a series of linked critical experiments, each testing a different outcropping of the hypotheses." (Webb et al., 1966)

Studies on motivational factors for achievers and non-achievers have suggested interactions of level and sex, and parental support at this age. Boardman and Phillips (1976) devised separate simultaneous equations models for the education process for high and low achievers. They stated that "the usual assumption that school resources affect students uniformly may hide important school effects" (p .4)

The differences which surfaced in the investigation of the level and sex interactions imply that the effect of the experimental treatment was not consistent across the group of students. While we cannot assume that the drop in the motivational scores of the lower females in the control group was the result of not having the

treatment, the rise in the score of the lower males in the experimental group can be reasonably assumed to be connected with the treatment. (see Table 3)

Boardman & Phillips (1976) differentiated between motivation provided by achievement and that provided by control, claiming that among high achievers, achievement feeds back to self-concept, but that low achievers are more affected by control. As this study included both aspects, the achievement of displaying their work and the locus of control in the personal choice of work, it not possible to isolate this interaction. The same researchers found that low achievers were more affected by the opinions of significant others than were high achievers. The involvement of parents in the drafting of written assignments may have given added support to the low achievers in this study.

Expectation statements indicate a level of belief in a student's ability. As such, the suggestion that a student's work may be sufficiently interesting and polished to be published, must be considered an expectation statement. Two studies, one by Means, Means, Castleman, and Elsom (1971) and a follow-up by Alexander, Elsom, Means, and Means (1971) found that expression of high expectations was particularly effective with students with low grade point averages.

The information provided by the logs of the students showed significant differences in the number of papers written, the time spent out of class and the number of people consulted. (see Table 5) The control group wrote on significantly more topics than the experimental group but spent significantly less time working on them out of class. This would seem to imply a greater interest on the part of the experimental group in preparing a quality piece of work. The experimental group recorded significantly more consultations than the control group. The division of those consultations was particularly interesting, as the experimental group consulted parents and peers twice as often as the control group and only one twenty-sixth as often requested help from the teacher. (see Table 6) This would suggest that they did see the publishing of work as relating to their life outside the classroom and not as simply a contract between the teacher and themselves.

The assessment of the papers chosen for publishing revealed no significant difference when compared to the marks assigned to the students by grade 7 English teachers. Although the latter marks would be based upon more aspects than writing ability, it was considered a reasonable guide to expected levels of achievement. A dramatic change in the quality of work over such a short period of time was not expected, as previous studies (Brookover et al., 1964) indicated that

changes in motivation preceded changes in academic achievement by about six months. However, the reasons given by the students for their choice of publishing work indicated a reasonable level of awareness of the factors involved in good writing (31% of all reasons related to specific literary factors).

Students nominated as gifted by their previous English teachers did not show more than a random tendency to rise to the occasion. (see Table 7) Based upon the size of the gain shown by the lower males in the experimental class (see Table 3), none of whom were nominated, little credence can be given to the selection of students by the "gifted" criteria for this kind of programme.

Limitations

The problem of dealing with intact classes is very difficult to overcome. As randomly matched pairing was not possible in this study, the effect of teacher differences must be a limiting factor in considering the results. Although the teachers were selected for similar age, background, interests, and intellectual bent, differences in teaching style were evident. The effects of the transition from elementary to secondary schools are not clearly known and the possibility of contaminating variables within the schools themselves must be considered.

The students' belief that their work would be published can only be assumed as, at the time of the post tests, the work had not yet been displayed. The writing fair in which the work was to be displayed did not occur until three months after the end of the study. A school magazine or paper would have been a preferable format but neither were acceptable options due to cost factors. Therefore, the second questionnaire was administered when the expectation of publishing existed rather than the fact of publication.

The inconsistent collection of writing samples also prevented an appropriate assessment of writing skills. The assessing of the work chosen for publication could not provide the same kind of information and as the marking was done by a single teacher rather than three as is usual in holistic marking, the results must carry less weight than they otherwise might have done. However, as no significant change in the quality of work was defined, this is of limited concern.

The durability of any changes promoted in the study must also be questioned. When short term manipulation of self-esteem is attempted, the results are often contradictory and short lived (Shavelson et al, 1964). What is needed is "an intensive and extended exposure to conditions of success [but] success is not enough: it is the duration of the experience of success which is essential." (Kifer, p 207) The

extended, multi-level research suggested by Graves would address many of these questions.

Conclusions

This study, while rejecting one of the main null hypotheses, that no difference in self-concept scores will be found between the two groups after the treatment, opens many more questions. The interactions found between level and sex and the particular aspect of writing permanency are supported by the present literature but certainly require further investigation. The apparent, though not significant, trend toward general loss of self-concept at the grade 8 level poses many important questions. Clearly, similar studies must be done at other grade levels to define which effects result from the treatment rather than from the context of the students' life at a time of so many transitions.

The changes in athletic self-concept suggested by the Scheffé post hoc tests would seem to reflect the well documented changes in the athletic involvement of males and females around the time of puberty. (Docherty, 1980) Girls tend to be less involved in sports at puberty while boys seem to come into their own. Girls are generally physically less able and socially less motivated in athletic activities after reaching menarché. It would be reasonable to assume that other social factors are intervening with both sexes at this time. For example, the male and female roles may be altering in both the home and school

society. Studies on girls' involvement in science suggest that girls' views of themselves become more stereotyped at this time. (E. Byrne, 1978)

In the final interview, the teacher of the experimental group commented that 80% of the students approached the work seriously, 20% assumed that anything that they did would be good enough. He also said that "the traditional failures were initially the most intimidated, but when they knew that what they had written was good, they were surprised with the success and felt that their work was sufficiently important that others should see it." This may be the key to the interactions which were evident in the English post test. It relates to the early quote in this paper from Dean Scarfe (PCAOE, 1968). "We know that [children] become diligently thoughtful when they are actively investigating real and concrete problems that seem worthwhile solving to them." (p. 14) Educational philosophers have emphasized the importance of children taking their work in school seriously for many years. Montessori spoke of the importance of not interfering with children's work by adult intervention. (Orem, 1966)

If adults do not take students' work seriously, as something that has an inherent value, many children will also dismiss the importance of what they do in school. Perhaps the higher achievers in this study

were less affected by the experimental treatment because they were already taking their work seriously. The 20% who assumed that anything they did would be acceptable may have been correct. Previously, the lower achievers may not have taken their work very seriously because it had received little positive response. The concrete aspect of displaying their work by their own choice, may have offered them an opportunity to "persist with concentrated effort for a considerable length of time" (PCAOE, 1968) and then to have control over the final "publishing" decision.

Personality characteristics are derived at least in part from having accomplished successfully an important task. Home and school must "work co-operatively to give children a sufficient amount of time to excel academically." (Kifer, 1975, p. 208-9) If teachers can make students consistently value their work in their subject areas, the small successes may develop into a more positive attitude toward all school work.

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Appendix A

Forms

Student Log Record Form

Choice of Work Form

STUDENT LOG of_____

Please enter the date and exercise #, and the title of your work. Indicate the amount of time out of class which you spent on each piece of work, the number of draft copies for each assignment, and list any people other than your teacher whom you consulted regarding your work. You need not give the person's name, only indicate whether it was a parent, a brother or sister, a librarian, a professional writer, etc. You may use as many lines as you need for each assignment.

Ex #	Date	Title	Out of Class Time in Minutes	Draft #	Consulted
___	____	_____	_____	_____	_____
___	____	_____	_____	_____	_____
___	____	_____	_____	_____	_____
___	____	_____	_____	_____	_____
___	____	_____	_____	_____	_____

STUDENT _____

AGE _____

CHOICE OF BEST WORK

Title:_____

Reason for choice:_____

_____

_____

Title:_____

Reason for choice:_____

_____

_____

Please indicate which of your writing you have selected to allow to be displayed. Remember that you may use a pen name if you wish your work to remain anonymous. Thank you for contributing to the display.
Diana Rowles, University of Victoria.

Appendix B

Daly Writing Apprehension Scale (DWAS)

- Available from:
  John A. Daly,
  Department of Communication,
  Heavilon Hall, Purdue University,
  West Lafayette, Indiana 47907.
  U.S.A.

Appendix C

Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ) ©

- Available from:
  Dr. H.W. Marsh,
  Department of Education,
  University of Sydney,
  Sydney, N.S.W. 2006
  Australia.

Appendix D

Scales for the Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students, Part II & Part VIII

Teacher _____ How long have you known this child? ____

Part II: Motivational Characteristics	seldom or never	occasion -ally	consid -erably	almost always
1. Becomes absorbed and truly involved in certain topics or problems; is persistent in seeking task completion. (It is sometimes difficult to get him to move on to another topic).	___	___	___	___
2. Is easily bored with routine tasks.	___	___	___	___
3. Needs little external motivation to follow through in work that initially excites him.	___	___	___	___
4. Strives toward perfection; is self critical; is not easily satisfied with his own speed or products.	___	___	___	___
5. Prefers to work independently; requires little direction from teachers.	___	___	___	___
6. Is interested in many "adult" problems such as religion, politics, sex, race - more than usual for age level.	___	___	___	___
7. Often is self assertive (sometimes even aggressive); stubborn in his beliefs.	___	___	___	___
8. Likes to organize and bring structure to things, people and situations.	___	___	___	___
9. Is quite concerned with right and wrong, good and bad; often evaluates and passes judgement on events, people, and things.	___	___	___	___
Add Column Total	___	___	___	___
Multiply by Weight	1	2	3	4
Add Weighted Column Total	___	___	___	___

Part VIII: Communication Characteristics
- Precision

	seldom or never	occasion -ally	consid -erably	almost always
1. Speaks and writes directly and to the point.	___	___	___	___
2. Modifies and adjusts expression of ideas for maximum reception.	___	___	___	___
3. Is able to revise and edit in a way which is concise, yet retains essential ideas.	___	___	___	___
4. Explains things precisely and clearly.	___	___	___	___
5. Uses descriptive words to add color, emotion, and beauty.	___	___	___	___
6. Expresses thoughts and needs clearly and concisely.	___	___	___	___
7. Can find various ways of expressing ideas so others will understand.	___	___	___	___
8. Can describe things in a few very appropriate words.	___	___	___	___
9. Is able to express fine shades of meaning by use of a large stock of synonyms.	___	___	___	___
10. Is able to express ideas in a variety of alternate ways.	___	___	___	___
11. Knows and can use many words closely related in meaning.	___	___	___	___
Add Column Total	___	___	___	___
Multiply by Weight	1	2	3	4
Add Weighted Column Total	___	___	___	___

Appendix E

Holistic Scoring Guide, American Education Department]

Trait Scoring Guide, American Education Department]

NATIONAL ASSESSMENT WRITING ACHIEVEMENT, 1969-1979
RESULTS FROM THE THIRD NATIONAL WRITING ASSESSMENT VOL II
- AGE THIRTEEN

Holistic Scoring Guide
"Describe Something"

Score of 4

These papers choose a single object and describe it with concrete clear language. They contain considerable detail and substance, originality of language, and some sense of structure. There may be a few minor mechanical problems. They will often have focus.

Score of 3

These papers choose a single object and describe it clearly, though with less detail, originality, or focus than the 4 papers. There may be little sense of organization, but the object should be individualized and mechanical problems should be relatively minor (unless the paper is very strong).

Score of 2

These papers do describe something but are thin, general, and often very short and/or confused.

Score of 1

Papers scored as 1 are very brief, non-descriptive, and confused. They contain serious errors in syntax, diction, and mechanics.

Score of 0

No-response papers.

Trait Scoring Guide

Primary trait is the expression of feeling through systematic elaboration of detail consonant with a mood and situation.

Score of 4

These responses precisely define a feeling or feelings and substantiate them through an amplitude and variety of appropriate details. The details are systematically arranged and placed into a structure and tight control is demonstrated at all points.

Score of 3

These responses precisely establish a dominant feeling and elaborate using a variety of specific details consistent with the feeling. Some principle of arrangement is present -- temporal, climatic, controlling point of reference, etc. Generally, these papers clearly show competence in expressing and substantiating a feeling. They do not show simultaneous control of both structure and detail. For example, 3 papers may include some element of conflict in feeling or detail which is not integrated with the dominant attitude but is merely distracting rather than seriously confused as in 1 reponses) or these papers may be well controlled but somewhat lacking in variety and amplitude of detail.

Score of 2

These responses minimally fulfill the two basic conditions established by the trait: they name or clearly imply a feeling (no matter how generalized the naming or implication), and they name some of the consequences of the situation that account for that feeling, or they name one consequence and elaborate on it.

Score of 1

These responses do not fulfill the two basic conditions established by the trait: stating a feeling and elaborating that feeling. This may occur in the following ways: one or two feelings may be named but are not substantiated with any kind of detail, a feeling is named but is only substantiated with one unelaborated detail, some details are given but feelings are not named or are so vague as to be basically nonexistent, or feelings and/or details are too confusing, contradictory or inconsistent to determine the writer's dominant feeling.

Score of 0

no response.

VITA

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The B.C. Teacher, 65(3), 15-17.

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THE ROLE OF WRITING PERMANENCY IN THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO ENGAGE IN THE WRITING PROCESS

Author [redacted]

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