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SECONDARY AND POSTSECONDARY EDUCATORS' WRITING EXPECTATIONS AFTER THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS

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ABSTRACT

SECONDARY AND POSTSECONDARY EDUCATORS' WRITING EXPECTATIONS AFTER THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS

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Despite low levels of writing proficiency, noted gaps between secondary and postsecondary writing practices, and calls for a vertical curriculum, there is little research directly comparing the writing expectations of high school and college-level English educators after the implementation of the Common Core State Standards. In this convergent mixed methods research study, I explored the writing expectations of members of these two distinct communities to better understand how differences in expectations may contribute to the perceived writing gap between secondary and postsecondary contexts. Grounded in sociocultural theory, I conducted survey and interview research to study this topic, drawing on both snowball and convenience samples of secondary and postsecondary English educators. To analyze the survey data, I conducted descriptive statistics, *t* tests, and regression analyses to examine the commonalities and differences between the two groups of educators. To analyze the interview data, I used a two-cycle coding method to study major themes. I report the findings separately and then discuss the intersection of the findings to provide an updated overview of writing expectations for the two groups of educators.

In intersecting the data, I identified four major themes: (a) educators believe writing is a process, but there are differences in autonomy that result in differences in how the process approach is enacted in the classroom; (b) educators rely on a range of similar practices to teach writing, but the extent to which digital technologies are used is unclear; (c) argument is the dominant purpose at both levels, but the kinds of argument writing vary by level, with clear discrepancies regarding the emphasis on research; and (d) definitions of good writing are fluid, but there are differences in what educators at each level value. Through the analysis of these themes, I identified practical implications for policymakers and educators in determining next steps toward working to bridge the perceived writing gap.

DEDICATION

For Addy and Lyla.

See this and know you can do anything.

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They say it takes a village to raise a child, but it also takes a village to write a dissertation. Simply put, this dissertation would have been impossible without the guidance and support of many.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background to the Problem

Writing provides the ability to convey knowledge, refine thought, challenge opposition, articulate purpose, and self-express (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2011). In school, writing proficiency can be a predictor of academic success (Graham & Perin, 2007) and writing can be used to enhance the understanding of content knowledge and improve reading practices (Bangert-Drowns et al., 2004; Graham & Herbert, 2011; Graham & Perin, 2007). In the workforce, writing proficiency is directly related to both employment and promotion (Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2004, 2005). At home, writing is a vital component of civic life (Kiuhara et al., 2009) as well as social life, with social media providing a means of initiating and maintaining personal connections (Freedman et al., 2016). As such, those who are unable to write well can be limited academically, occupationally, and personally (Graham, 2006). Specifically, poor writers are at a significant disadvantage in the areas of succeeding in high school, pursuing higher education, and obtaining well-paying jobs (ACT, 2005; Graham & Harris, 2013; National Commission on Writing, 2003, 2004, 2005).

When considering writing instruction in schools, current research shows most writing instruction is inadequate (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Graham, 2019; Kiuhara et al., 2009). Indications of insufficient writing instruction include a lack of time devoted to writing instruction, infrequent opportunities to write, infrequent use of evidence-based teaching practices, and the notable absence of digital tools for writing (Graham, 2019). In addition, scholars repeatedly find teachers feel ill-prepared to teach writing in the classroom (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2013; Graham, 2019; Kiuhara et al., 2009). It is therefore

not surprising that writing has been called the "neglected element of American school reform" (National Commission on Writing, 2003, p. 9). Despite repeated calls for more attention on writing (ACT, 2005; Applebee & Langer, 2009, 2011; Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2003, 2004, 2005) and the hope found in the new Common Core State Standards (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2013; Troia & Graham, 2016; Troia & Olinghouse, 2013; Troia et al., 2016), writing continues to be an overlooked and under-researched aspect of literacy (Applebee & Langer, 2009; Graham, 2019; Sampson et al., 2016). There is a current call for additional research on writing instruction (Cassidy et al., 2020), specifically to study the gap between high school and college writing (Freedman et al., 2016).

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have long noted a perceived writing proficiency gap between secondary and postsecondary classrooms, suggesting students are not equipped for writing at the college level (Achieve, Inc., 2005; ACT, 2005; Appleman & Green, 1993; Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011). The 2011 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) examined writing proficiency for different writing purposes and different audiences, reflecting writing tasks common in both school and the workforce. The 2011 NAEP results revealed only 27% of Grade 12 students in the United States met or exceeded grade-level proficiency in writing, with proficiency defined as writing that effectively addresses the task and fully accomplishes the communicative purpose of the assignment (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). On the 2011 assessment, writing was evaluated using a holistic rubric focused on three broad features: development of ideas, organization of ideas, and language facility and conventions

(National Assessment Governing Board, 2010). Trends analyzed along gender, race, and school location showed average writing scores were (a) higher for White students, Asian students, and multiracial students when compared with Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students; (b) higher for female students than male students; and (c) higher for students in suburban schools when compared with students in cities and rural locations.

The 2011 NAEP writing task was the first year of a computer-based assessment and used a new framework that defined writing as "a complex, multifaceted, and purposeful act of communication that is accomplished in a variety of environments, under various constraints of time, and with a variety of language resources and technological tools" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012, p. 4). Despite this new mode of delivery and a more expansive definition of writing, the proficiency percentages were similar to those of previous years (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). This conclusion aligns with Applebee and Langer's (2009) findings of slow and minimal changes in performance when examining writing achievement since the 1980s.

Based on the NAEP data, it is not surprising then that Xu (2016) reported nearly one-third of incoming college students must take remedial English courses. This figure aligns with the ACT's (2005) earlier finding that almost one-third of students were not prepared for freshman college English Composition courses based on the ACT's readiness benchmarks, with Native American, Hispanic American, and African American students being one and a half times less likely to achieve proficiency on this benchmark than the total population. Similar concerns have been echoed in other reports that showed college instructors noted an estimated 50% of high school graduates are ill-prepared for

postsecondary-level writing (Achieve, Inc., 2005), that the literacy skills of graduates from the United States are lower than those of graduates in most other industrialized nations (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2000), and that U.S. businesses report spending $3.1 billion each year to improve employees' writing skills (National Commission on Writing, 2004).

Common Core State Standards

In 2010, the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) were developed, providing universal K-12 specific standards designed to enable students to meet expectations for college and career readiness. These standards answered the call for increased vertical alignment between high school and college in terms of writing expectations (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham, 2019; National Commission on Writing, 2003), and unlike previous efforts to improve the education system in the United States, the CCSS have made writing a central part of school reform (Graham & Harris, 2013). Co-chair of the CCSS Validation Committee, David Conley (2008), has even gone so far as to say "writing may be by far the single academic skill most closely associated with college success" (p. 4). Many researchers are hopeful that the CCSS can help bridge the perceived writing gap that exists between high school and college (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Perin, 2013; Troia et al., 2016). However, it has been noted that the expectations for writing proposed within the standards contrast with previous reports of what is actually occurring in high school writing classrooms concerning the emphasis placed on analysis, argument, and informational writing, as well as the use of digital tools (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). As such, successful implementation of the standards would require systemic

changes to writing instruction (Graham & Harris, 2013). Assuming states' content standards influence student outcomes through their impact on instruction (Troia et al., 2016), the effect of the CCSS on classroom practices needs to be addressed. Though the CCSS hold promise, new questions emerge: Will the implementation of the CCSS increase writing achievement? Will the implementation of the CCSS increase the time and attention given to writing instruction? Will the implementation of the CCSS change teachers' behavior and expectations? Will the implementation of the CCSS help to close the perceived gap between high school and college? These questions remain largely unanswered.

Missing Research

Despite alarming statistics surrounding writing proficiency, noted gaps between high school and college-level writing, and demands for a vertical curriculum that may be influenced by the CCSS for writing, the lack of available research that directly compares the writing expectations at the high school and college level supports the need for a current and updated overview of writing instruction. There are limited large-scale studies of high school-level writing expectations and practices before the implementation of the CCSS (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Purcell et al., 2013; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). Additionally, some research has been conducted on college-level writing expectations and practices (Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Melzer, 2009). Yet, the majority of the existing research looked separately at high school and college-level writing expectations and did not include comparisons of these expectations after the implementation of the CCSS. If vertical alignment is the true goal of the current policies and standards, then it is imperative to

look at the writing expectations of both sets of educators to be able to note commonalities as well as gaps and discrepancies.

Purpose of the Present Study

I help begin to fill the gap in the literature by using a convergent mixed methods design to examine and compare high school and college educators' expectations for writing after the implementation of the CCSS. My goal was to examine the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary English educators through survey data and interviews to understand the writing gap and how to better prepare students for the demands of college-level writing. Because writing is a social act (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2011), this research was rooted in a sociocultural theoretical framework (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006).

Overview of Guiding Theoretical Framework

Sociocultural theory is grounded in the idea that learning is socially situated in a community (Vygotsky, 1978). As such, learning is mediated by the cultural practices, social interactions, available tools, and literacy activities of these communities, as well as the larger institutions in which these communities are embedded (Kwok et al., 2016). Under sociocultural theory, researchers view writing as a social event, and, as such, teachers (and their implicit and explicit practices) play a substantial role in students' writing development (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006). Sociocultural theory is a leading theoretical framework used for writing research (Prior, 2006), and a sociocultural approach to research on writing

instruction includes a careful analysis of classroom practices and the kinds of work schools sponsor (Prior, 2006).

In this study, I explored two different communities, ultimately considering the beliefs held by those in each community about what it means to be a writer. This research hinged on the understanding that it is the educator who models the norms of how writers speak, act, write, read, and think, as they are seen as the experts in the community. In turn, students are ultimately socialized by their educators' expectations. Studying teachers' expectations then provides insight into what it means to be an insider in the respective learning community (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006). This impact of teacher expectations is logical, as it has been well-documented that classroom writing practices are directly influenced by teachers' beliefs and knowledge (Graham & Harris, 2018; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Troia & Graham, 2016). I selected the sample, survey and interview items, and analysis methods to analyze and compare the expectations of two sets of educators through the lens of three major sociocultural tenets: the importance of context, the co-authorship of educators, and the role of cultural tools and procedural facilitators (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006).

Research Questions

Using a convergent parallel mixed methods design, I explored secondary and postsecondary educators' expectations for student writing through a digital survey and digital interviews to understand the norms created through teachers' expectations at the different levels. The research questions guiding the study were as follows:

Research Question 1: What are the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators?

Research Question 2: What are the differences in writing expectations of both secondary and postsecondary educators?

For the purposes of this research, I defined writing expectations as the contextualized practices of in-school writing that are sponsored by teachers, whether implicitly or explicitly. I explored this concept through interview questions related to the importance of context, the ways in which teachers view themselves as co-authors, and the ways in which teachers use cultural tools and procedural facilitators. I also used survey data to explore writing expectations through a similar lens, but narrowed the focus to three major constructs: the range of required writing, the production and distribution of writing, and research to build and present knowledge (see Chapter 3 for operationalized definitions of each construct). I drew from survey data and interview data separately to answer each research question and then merged the findings together by theme (see Chapter 4). Finally, I considered the big-picture implications of this research for policymakers and educators (see Chapter 5).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

When considered broadly, sociocultural theory is rooted in the idea that meaning is constructed through social mediation and knowledge is negotiated among individuals, culture, and activity (Vygotsky, 1978). Sociocultural theorists maintain that activity is situated in interactions and mediated by language, tools, and practices. As such, people are socialized through cultural resources. Sociocultural theory emerged from three traditions—Marxism, pragmatics, and phenomenology; consequently, it has a complex interdisciplinary history (Prior, 2006). Much of sociocultural theory is related to the themes found within Lev Vygotsky's cultural-historical work. Vygotsky (1978) argued that to understand a student's intellectual development, it is important to understand the social, historical, and cultural contexts of the student's experiences; that individual development hinges on language that enables people to interact with others and develop higher mental functions; and that every student's cultural development occurs first as a process among others and second as an individual process. Through this lens, literacy practices such as reading and writing are regarded as complex cognitive processes advanced through social interaction in cultural contexts, which indicates literacy learning occurs through meaningful participation in social groups (Lenski & Nierstheimer, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978).

Literacy and Sociocultural Theory

Within sociocultural theory, literacy is viewed as a socially-constructed, malleable, and dynamic concept (Gee, 1989; Gee & Hayes, 2011; Leu et al., 2013). Sociocultural research has revealed great variability in literacy practices across

communities, societies, and institutions (Gee, 2013; Health, 1983; Kwok et al., 2016). As such, there is no one universal form of literacy, but rather various literacies people enact as they shift roles, purposes, contexts, and communities (Freedman et al., 2016; Gee, 1989; Kwok et al., 2016; Leu et al., 2013). Though school-based literacy is only one form of literacy, it is important to study as it acts as a gatekeeper that narrowly honors particular literacy practices, specifically a very limited view of what counts as academic writing (Alvermann, 2003; Freedman et al., 2016; Gee & Hayes, 2011; Graham & Perin, 2007; Kwok et al., 2016; Street, 2009). Researchers using sociocultural theory closely examine the literacy practices used within schools to determine the specific values those schools sponsor and have found school is a "powerful force" in student literacy development but also that school is a "profoundly laminated institution" (Prior, 2006, p. 62) that aims to control "what counts" as literacy (Alvermann, 2003; Englert et al., 2006).

Writing and Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory represents one of the most prevalent frameworks for writing research (Prior, 2006). This emphasis on the social aspects of learning is a notable shift from an earlier emphasis on solely cognitive processes (i.e., Flower & Hayes, 1981). Cognitive theory approaches focused on the particular cognitive processes used by individual writers to compose a text (Beach et al., 2016), yet this theory was quickly critiqued as ignoring the contextual factors that shape writing (Prior, 2006). In contrast, researchers using a sociocultural approach to writing view writing as a social event (Beach et al., 2016; Beck, 2009; Russell, 2010). It is this emphasis on the social practices students gain through learning in social contexts that differentiates sociocultural and cognitive perspectives. Thus, under sociocultural theory, writing is a social action, as

"Writing participates in making particular kinds of people, institutions, and cultures, as well as indexing them" (Prior, 2006, p. 58). Beyond a mere act of transcription, researchers drawing on sociocultural perspectives see writing as a process of production, representation, reception, and distribution (Prior, 2006).

Bazerman (2016) specifically outlined the general principles that sociocultural approaches to writing research have added to the understanding of writing. Some key features are outlined here, and specific discussions of other components most directly related to this research appear in the following section.

- Why and when people write: Writers write as a means of participation in a social situation, and the social situation dictates what to write and how to represent the material, calling on the importance of audience. Writing is always related to other texts, whether the relationship is implicit or explicit. Writing is deeply influenced by the technologies available, and, as such, technologies can change the production, design, form, and social circulation of writing.
- The consequences of writing: Writing is relationship building. Writing enables the writer to create relationships with readers while also providing opportunities for the writer to share their voice and identity. In turn, writing creates common meanings and representations of the world and can bring about social change.
- How writing gets done: Writing is a process that demands planning and revising for the greatest social effect. An awareness of audience and an

understanding of genre guide writers to create writing that is most appropriate for a given situation.

How Writing is Learned

Because writing is socially-mediated, people learn how to write as they participate in different situations in different communities. For the purposes of this research, I explore three major components of how writing is learned in schools: the role of context, the role of co-authorship and apprenticeship, and the role of cultural tools and procedural facilitators.

Context. The development of writing occurs as writers pass through different situations and problems. Though longitudinal research on writers is limited, the importance of a passage through multiple experiences is apparent (Bazerman, 2016). Writing development occurs through the enculturation and socialization of a writer into the norms of a specific community for the purposes of successful interaction. For this research, I draw on Gee's understandings of socially situated learning, and define context as "a social environment where knowledge construction, language, motives, values, societies, and cultures interact" (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013, p. 73). The norms of each community are thus contextual, and in order to best write within certain domains, a writer must learn the knowledge, reasoning, action, and evaluation criteria valued by that community (Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013; Ketter & Hunter, 2002). There are specialized forms of writing associated with different disciplines, particularly in terms of genre (Miller, 1994; Prior, 2006; Russell, 2010; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012).

As writers move from one community to another, even within the same discipline, what counts as knowledge shifts; as a result, writing needs to be adjusted (Bazerman,

2016). Writing development, then, occurs within a particular writing activity and writers are then challenged to contrast writing across different writing activity systems as they shift contexts (Beach et al., 2016). Appleman and Green (1993) described the shift from high school to college writing as a "boundary that is real, if undefinable" (p. 191), highlighting the tensions and contradictions that "boundary crossing" may present when moving from secondary to postsecondary writing contexts (Beach et al., 2016, p. 91). Beck (2009) argued that such tensions are products of fundamentally different instructional goals, with the focus of secondary instruction being to develop basic competencies and the focus of postsecondary instruction being to specialize students within specific disciplines. Farris (2009) called high school English classrooms and college composition courses "different cultures" (p. 437), which means successful boundary crossing then requires the transfer of social practices across contexts (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011). Writers' practices are continually developing through activity as they learn to negotiate within and across contexts, which demands habits of mind such as engagement, flexibility, and metacognition (Beach et al., 2016; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011). Thus, to write well, a writer must be able to frame the writing activity around an appropriate audience using appropriate genres, language, registers, and media, all of which are dependent on the context of the activity (Beach et al., 2016; Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011).

The enculturation needed to successfully participate in the writing of a community is "socially sponsored" and is consequently shaped by the "sponsor's agendas" (Bazerman, 2016, p. 16). It is the sponsors who provide emergent writers with resources for how to write, and, in turn, writers tend to conform to the ideologies of the

sponsors. By this logic, students are shaped by the ideologies of their teachers in terms of what is taught, how it is taught, and how value is assigned (Alvermann, 2003; Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013). Teacher ideology is influenced by the ideology of schooling (Bazerman, 2016), and teachers are influenced by larger institutional contexts (Beach et al., 2016; Hillocks, 2008). Teachers, and in turn the communities in which they are deemed experts, are influenced by outside sources such as parents, administrations, standards, testing, and federal mandates (Englert et al., 2006; Hillocks, 2008). In particular, schools generate specialized writing activities to produce narrow, specialized writing genres (Applebee & Langer, 2009; Bazerman, 2016). Notions of writing are deeply tied to the writing experiences that were created and perpetuated in schools. In school, writing is most often assigned and evaluated by the teacher as opposed to occurring spontaneously, indicating student engagement with writing depends on alignment with the expectations of the teachers. Therefore, the role of the teacher in a student's writing development is paramount.

Co-Authorship and Apprenticeship. Researchers using sociocultural theory argue that all writing is socially-mediated, meaning it can also be concluded that all writing is collaborative and an act of co-authorship (Prior, 2006). Consequently, teachers are always co-authors of student writing as they structure the assignment, the time to write, the style and topic used, and the processes used (Prior, 2006). Along the same vein, teachers support students in participation and performance in a community through cognitive apprenticeships (Englert et al., 2006). A major tenet of sociocultural theory is the role of experts in offering strategies and tools, through modeling and explanations, so that in this sharing of expertise, students (novices) can gain insight into how experts write

(Englert et al., 2006; Gee, 2013). In sociocultural theory, the term *practices* is used over the term *processes*, with practices defined as "socially developed and patterned ways of using technology and knowledge to accomplish tasks" (Scribner & Cole, 1981, p. 236). Because learning is deeply embedded in practice, much of what students learn occurs through participation in practice and is implicitly taught (Gee, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Lave & Wenger, 1991). However, explicit teaching strategies are also particularly helpful for writing instruction, as writing tends to be an abstract process that is made clearer when experts explicitly explain their decision making processes (Kwok et al., 2016).

The ultimate goal is for the teacher to eventually shift over the load of the mental activity to the students (Englert et al., 2006). In order for this transfer of responsibility to occur, teachers must provide opportunities for guided practice where they can share their expertise to produce a common artifact. This apprenticeship does not need to be limited to student–teacher relationships, however. Peers can also engage in interactive dialogue to externalize covert processes, which can provide additional opportunities for students to join the discourse (Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Forman & Cazden, 1985). Ultimately, as Englert and colleagues (2006) noted, "Throughout the instructional process, the heart of writing development is the dialogue in which teachers and students collaborate, inform, question, think aloud, self-correct, challenge, and construct meaning together (Gould, 1996)" (p. 211). To reach this goal, teachers can also create communities of practice where students participate in the literacy practices of the group and come to share the community's conventions, standards, and values (Englert et al., 2006; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Thus, because learning occurs explicitly or implicitly, writing support may be found in explicit apprenticeships between teacher and student or

may occur implicitly as students observe the practices of teachers over time (Kwok et al., 2016).

Cultural Tools and Procedural Facilitators. In order to support students before they are able to perform independently, teachers provide students with cultural tools and procedural facilitators to prompt student use of strategies (Englert et al., 2006). Cultural tools can include resources such as graphic organizers, text structures, and grammar and spell checkers. More recently, sociocultural researchers have also considered the affordances provided by multimodal tools (Kwok et al., 2016). These tools support emergent writers by reducing some of the cognitive load required for the task, making the task more achievable (Englert et al., 2006). To bring awareness to the function of these tools, teachers can employ procedural facilitators (or cognitive strategies), which make internal processes visible for students and provide students cues for particular processes as a scaffold. Thus, drawing on Vygotskian principles,

> Procedural facilitators offer semiotic tools that enable teachers to make visible the character of the particular text forms, the strategies and procedures that underlie the text construction and revision, and the discourse structures and language practices that permit writers to realize their writing goals. (Englert et al., 2006, p. 213)

Procedural facilitators permit students to perform at levels they have not yet attained individually (what Vygotsky would term zone of proximal development), allowing them to deepen their participation in the community. Over time, as students repeatedly engage with writing strategies as procedural facilitators, these strategies become internalized and part of their inner speech. From this perspective, effective teaching occurs when teachers

provide procedural facilitators, as well as cultural tools, within students' zones of proximal development to support student engagement in the community.

Connection to Present Research

In this study, I explored the writing expectations and practices of secondary and postsecondary English educators to better understand the differences in the two distinct communities and how these differences may contribute to the perceived writing gap between high school and college as students participate in the different contexts. The sociocultural framework guided all portions of this study. I have broken the literature review into two major sections: an overview of policy that can influence teacher decision making and an examination of what is already known about the expectations of high school and college writing educators. Under sociocultural theory, teachers play a significant role in students' writing development, as they are seen as the experts who socialize students in the norms of writing for that particular community (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006). As such, it is imperative to examine the literature that provides insight into the factors that influence teacher decision making (specifically the CCSS), as well as existing research that could help compare the expectations of the two different institutional settings.

I also used sociocultural theory to guide the selection of participants for this study (described in depth in Chapter 3). I looked specifically at the expectations of only high school English teachers and college writing professors; thus, I examined expectations within a single discipline, as it is already well-documented that expectations across disciplines vary greatly in terms of the specific knowledge needed to fully participate in the community (Bazerman, 2016; Prior, 2006; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012).

Additionally, I used the framework to guide what I researched and how I analyzed the data. I designed all survey items and interview questions to better understand what writing looks like in the particular communities, and, in turn, much of what I explored directly reflected how teachers report sociocultural understandings of writing instruction (i.e., the importance of context, the co-authorship of educators, and the role of cultural tools and procedural facilitators). I analyzed (Chapter 4) and discussed (Chapter 5) all data through the lens of what is known about writing instruction in the sociocultural framework.

Literature Review

The literature review is broken into four major topics: the Common Core State Standards, what is known about high school writing expectations, what is known about college writing expectations, and what is known about compared expectations. I provide a summary of the research at the conclusion of each major section.

Era of Accountability: The Road to the Common Core

The 21st century began with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, which encouraged a national focus on reading and reflected a growing concern with the concept of accountability through standards and testing (Applebee & Langer, 2009). This emphasis on standardized testing led to a narrowing of the curriculum, changing the structure of writing instruction at the cost of best practices (Au, 2013; Sampson et al., 2016). The demands of NCLB left less time for writing instruction and highlighted disparities between high- and low-income schools regarding the role of writing in the curriculum (McCarthey, 2008). Yet, this era of accountability did prompt new research regarding writing instruction, yielding some of the most seminal reports in the field

(ACT, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2003). Each of these reports called for writing to be considered part of the national literacy crisis. These reports advocated for a national writing curriculum (ACT, 2005; The National Commission on Writing, 2003), the inclusion of a comprehensive writing policy in each state's standards (National Commission on Writing, 2003), measured progress (ACT, 2005), writing instruction in all subjects (National Commission on Writing, 2003), increased access to teacher education on how to teach writing (National Commission on Writing, 2003), additional writing research (Graham & Perin, 2007), and a set of common expectations about writing (ACT, 2005; National Commission on Writing, 2003).

Taken together, these reports reflect the continued call for collaboration, research, and communication between high school and college for writing expectations (ACT, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2003). Some hope the CCSS for writing will help to answer this call (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2013; Troia & Graham, 2016; Troia & Olinghouse, 2013; Troia et al., 2016).

CCSS for Writing

In 2010, the CCSS were developed with the goal of better preparing K-12 students to meet expectations for college and career readiness. In 2011, the CCSS were reviewed and ratified by the individual states, and the implementation of these standards began in 2013. Currently, 41 states have adopted the CCSS (Common Core State Standards Initiative, n.d.).

Key Design Decisions. The CCSS were designed with basic principles in mind. Primarily, the standards contain a focus on the desired outcomes but not the means in which these outcomes are achieved. Though these standards provide benchmarks for students in each grade, the CCSS website is clear:

> By emphasizing required achievements, the Standards leave room for teachers, curriculum developers, and states to determine how those goals should be reached and what additional topics should be addressed . . . Teachers are thus free to provide students with whatever tools and knowledge their professional judgment and experience identify as most helpful for meeting the goals set out in the Standards. (Common Core State Standards Initiative, n.d., para. 4)

Because of this design, variation is expected in the practices and precise expectations of different educators. Second, the standards reflect an integrated model of literacy, meaning that though the standards are divided into specific Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language strands, there is overlap of concepts. Next, the standards blend research and media practices into the standards as a whole as opposed to having separate standards to address such topics, as college leaders and the workforce will expect that students are able to fluidly produce and consume information. Last, the standards maintain that literacy development is a shared responsibility that should not be confined to the English language arts classroom, but rather such instruction should occur in other disciplines as well. For this reason, the standards for Grades 6–12 are broken up into two sections: the English Language Arts Standards and Literacy in History/Social Studies, and Technical Subjects Standards. For the purposes of this dissertation, I examine only the English Language Arts Standards with particular focus on the Writing Standards for

Grades 11–12, as it is these standards that have the potential to most influence the communities of interest in the study.

English Language Arts Standards for Writing. The English Writing Standards are broken into four main categories: Text Types and Purposes, Production and Distribution of Writing, Research to Build and Present Knowledge, and Range of Writing. The Text Types and Purposes Standards address three main purposes for writing, with an emphasis on arguments, informative/explanatory texts, and narratives. The Production and Distribution of Writing Standards indicate students should be able to produce a well-organized and well-developed text by using a writing process and technology for support. The Research to Build and Present Knowledge Standards state students should be able to conduct research projects, gather relevant information, and use evidence to support writing. The Range of Writing Standards maintain that students must write both extended and shorter writing projects for a range of purposes, audiences, and tasks. Graham and Harris (2013) suggested the applications for writing presented in the standards are not independent, but rather should be seen as overlapping.

Benefits of the Standards. Many are hopeful that the CCSS can help to bridge the perceived writing gap that exists between high school and college (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Perin, 2013; Troia et al., 2016). Because writing has been historically neglected as part of the reform movements (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Sundeen, 2015), researchers believe the standards, by emphasizing writing, increase the likelihood that students will acquire critical writing knowledge (Graham & Harris, 2013). The CCSS provide a much-needed roadmap for writing instruction with benchmarks for what students are expected to master across

grades. Though the standards do not offer specific advice for how to teach writing, Graham and Harris (2013) maintained that the benchmarks do provide a reasonable progression of writing knowledge at each grade level. These benchmarks spiral in sophistication, so it is logical to assume mastery at one grade level will fuel growth as a writer at the next (Graham & Harris, 2013). The standards are succinct and provide a consistent range of coverage from grade to grade, which helps to build a consistent framework (Troia & Olinghouse, 2013). Additionally, the CCSS are superior in "coverage, coherence and clarity" when compared to previous individual state standards for writing (Graham & Harris, 2013, p. 29). Having more globalized expectations makes it easier for students to move from schools, districts, or states, as common expectations allow for a more seamless transition (Graham & Harris, 2013).

Proponents of the CCSS for writing appreciate the attention drawn to nonfiction writing and the emphasis placed on taking a critical stance toward information, using writing to express complex thoughts, and using digital tools to support 21st century writing goals (Perin, 2013). More specifically, Addison and McGee (2016) stated the focus on argument (as opposed to the emphasis on persuasion found in earlier state standards) better aligns with college-level requirements for writing grounded in logical claims and textual evidence. Additionally, Troia and Olinghouse (2013) reported the CCSS have a greater emphasis on the writing process and reduced emphasis on conventions as students move across grade levels, which aligns with current knowledge on best practices. It is believed these shifts in emphasis may lead to better alignment with college writing expectations (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Perin, 2013; Troia & Olinghouse, 2013).

Concerns Regarding CCSS. Despite the noted benefits, researchers have reservations as well. According to Troia et al. (2016), content analyses of the standards showed the CCSS focus on a limited selection of writing purposes (i.e., narrative, persuasive, informative and explanatory, literary response, and research writing), yet do not offer any specific strategies for or components of writing related to these purposes. Additionally, the CCSS lack components of writing instruction associated with evidence-based best practices, including peer feedback, the study of models, goal setting, and self-efficacy (Troia et al., 2016). Perin (2013) noted a lack of distinction between general and disciplinary writing expectations and a lack of specificity with regard to the increasing complexity of writing development for informational writing.

Further content analyses revealed concerns about conflicting definitions of argument in the standards (Rejan, 2017) as well as a lack of rhetorical awareness (Rives & Olsen, 2015). Rejan (2017) found that despite the fact that many suggest the CCSS's argument emphasis will best help bridge the gap between K-12 and college curriculum, the standards and the exemplars of student writing found in the Common Core supplemental materials define argument differently than how argument is traditionally defined at the college level. Rejan maintained that the standards and samples prioritize Toulmin's formulaic, structural approach, a narrow definition of argument, as opposed to more popular definitions used at the college level, which view argument as a "social" and "cognitive" event that leads to the exploration of and progression of knowledge. Similarly, Rives and Olsen (2015) indicated the CCSS will not help to bridge the curriculum gaps because the standard modifiers lack operationalized definitions, the standards do not position students as agentive learners, and the standards do not support

rhetorical awareness, which the Council of Writing Program Administrators considers to be a fundamental aspect of college composition courses.

Another source of contention is that the benchmarks provided by the CCSS reflect that the exact standards are appropriate for all students in each grade, suggesting the creators ignored current research on writing development and the variability that occurs with each learner (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2013). This tension is of particular importance for students with disabilities, as it has been explicitly stated that the standards apply to all students (Graham & Harris, 2013). To meet the demands of the standards, writing instruction in schools will need to be redesigned. This revamping of instruction may be hindered by the fact that teachers indicate they are not prepared to teach writing (Gillespie et al., 2013; Graham & Harris, 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009). In order for the standards to be successful, there are various calls for extensive professional development (Addison & McGee, 2016; Troia & Graham, 2016).

Teacher Perceptions of the Standards. Early survey data on perceptions of the CCSS for writing showed teachers (across grade levels) mostly appreciated the increased emphasis on writing instruction and the rigor the standards demand, yet expressed concerns regarding having the time, resources, and expertise needed to implement the standards (Hall et al., 2015; Troia & Graham, 2016). Of particular interest for the current research, the ACT (2016) directly compared high school and college educators' perceptions of the CCSS for writing. When asked about their extent of familiarity with the CCSS for writing, the overwhelming majority noted substantial familiarity, with over 80% of high school teachers responding "completely" or "a great deal." When asked the same question, 9% of college educators responded "completely," 42% responded "a great

deal," 40% responded "slightly," and 9% responded "not at all." Considering the standards are for Grades K–12, it is logical that high school teachers would report greater familiarity with the standards. However, if the standards are meant to be used to help bridge the gap, the fact that nearly half of the college professors were "slightly" or "not at all" familiar with them may be a source of concern. Researchers in the same study also asked both sets of educators about the extent to which they felt the CCSS aligned with college instructors' expectations regarding college readiness. The majority of the high school teachers selected "a great deal" (41%) and "slightly" (38%), suggesting a divide in how teachers perceive the role of the standards in helping students achieve college readiness. In contrast, 34% of the college educators reported "a great deal" and 49% reported "slightly." These statistics reflect tension, as nearly half of the professors noted limited familiarity with the standards but nearly half also suggested the standards are only marginally aligned with college expectations. If the standards were created for the purpose of better preparing students for college and opening the doorway of communication between the high school and college levels, these findings show there is still more work to be done.

Summary. In sum, the standards provide universal benchmarks for writing instruction across grades. Noted strengths include an increased emphasis on writing (Graham & Harris, 2013) and a roadmap of instruction (Graham & Harris, 2013) with a reasonable progression of growth (Graham & Harris, 2013) and a consistent range of coverage (Troia & Olinghouse, 2013) that is superior to previous state standards (Graham & Harris, 2013). Proponents of the standards argue that emphasizing the writing process (Troia & Olinghouse, 2013), crafting nonfiction writing and argument writing (Addison

& McGee, 2016; Perin, 2013), taking critical stances toward information (Perin, 2013), and using digital tools (Perin, 2013) will help to close the divide between high school and college. Noted weaknesses include a lack of specificity (Perin, 2013; Rives & Olsen, 2015; Troia et al., 2016), a lack of evidence-based practices (Troia et al., 2016), a lack of awareness for variability in the writing process (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2013), and conflicting definitions of key elements (Rejan, 2017; Rives & Olsen, 2015). Based on this information, it is important to consider the varying perspectives on the CCSS of both high school and college educators (ACT, 2016). The existing research on the CCSS consists mostly of content analyses of the standards themselves (Graham & Harris, 2013; Rejan, 2017; Rives & Olsen, 2015; Troia & Olinghouse, 2013; Troia et al., 2016) and survey research of teacher perceptions (ACT, 2016; Hall et al., 2015; Troia & Graham, 2016). What is missing is the impact of the standards on classroom instruction. Troia and Olinghouse (2013) argued that there is a limited body of literature to show the writing standards (generally speaking) do influence what is taught and how it is taught. Assuming that states' content standards influence student outcomes based on their impact on instruction (Troia et al., 2016), the effect of the CCSS on classroom practices needs to be addressed. Yet, most comprehensive surveys that offer a glimpse into the writing landscape of high school were completed before the implementation of the CCSS.

High School Expectations

In response to the limited available information on the writing practices found in contemporary high schools (Kiuhara et al., 2009), there are four frequently cited pieces of research that aimed to provide a snapshot of what is occurring at the high school level (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery,

2014). Here, I briefly describe each of these four studies and then synthesize the results of all the studies in the sections that follow. Kiuhara et al. (2009) examined how high school teachers in the United States teach writing through a survey of a random sample of 361 high school language arts, social studies, and science teachers. Regarding topics such as what students wrote, how teachers used evidence-based practices, the importance of writing, and teacher preparation of writing, the results raised concerns about the quality of instruction. Applebee and Langer (2011) provided an in-depth look at writing instruction, drawing on data from classroom visits; interviews with teachers, students, and administrations; and a national survey of 1,520 teachers. Centering the work on how writing instruction has changed over the last 30 years, Applebee and Langer examined the amount of writing required, the dominant audiences for student work, the effect of testing, how writing is taught, and the impact of technology. Though the results showed writing instruction has changed over time, the researchers concluded that "writing as a way to study, learn, and go beyond . . . is rare" (Applebee & Langer, 2011, p. 26). Gillespie et al. (2013) administered a survey to 211 high school language arts, science, social studies, and math teachers to examine how frequently they applied writing to learn activities. Results showed topics stressed in the CCSS (i.e., analysis, argument, informational writing, and use of digital tools) were used infrequently. Last, Wilcox and Jeffery (2014) analyzed the writing of 66 students across the United States over the course of a 13-week period. Their results showed all students need more opportunities to engage in source-based and argument writing. Each of these researchers looked at writing from a disciplinary approach. Because I designed this study to examine the expectations

of English educators, emphasis in the following analysis is placed on what is happening within the English classroom.

What Are Students Writing? Kiuhara et al. (2009) surveyed the frequency with which teachers reported using specific writing activities on an 8-point scale with options of *never*, *once a year*, *once a semester*, *once a quarter*, *once a month*, *once a week*, *several times a week*, and *daily*. Of the English teachers surveyed, the types of writing reported most frequently were short answer responses, responses to material read, completing worksheets, summarizing read material, and journal entries. Half of the English teachers reported assigning a five-paragraph essay either once a month or once a week. Yet, persuasive writing was most likely to occur once a semester or once a quarter, and research papers were overwhelmingly reported as only occurring once a year (55% of English teachers selected this option). These findings align with those reported by Gillespie et al. (2013), who also surveyed the frequency with which teachers reported using certain writing activities on an 8-point scale with options of *never*, *several times a year*, *monthly*, *several times a month*, *weekly*, *several times a week*, *daily*, and *several times a day*. Of the English teachers surveyed, the types of writing used most frequently were journal entries, notetaking for reading, and notetaking while listening, followed by summarization and five-paragraph essays. The majority of the English teachers reported writing research reports, literary analyses, arguments, and synthesis of multiple sources as occurring only several times a year. Taking the findings of the self-reported data of Kiuhara et al. (2009) and Gillespie et al. (2013) into consideration, it is imperative to note that in Wilcox and Jeffery's (2014) analysis of student writing, of the assignments that required multi-paragraph composition, 84% of the English classroom assignments were

classified as narrative. Though these studies highlight a range of writing that occurs at the high school level, the primary audience for this work is teacher-as-examiner (Applebee & Langer, 2011).

How Often and How Much Are Students Writing? Applebee and Langer (2011) found students write more in their English classes than they do in each of their other classes, but that even in English class, students are not writing a substantial amount. In a 9-week grading period, English teachers reported an average of 5.5 assignments of a page or less, 2.6 assignments of one or two pages, and 1.1 assignments of three pages or more. If these types of assignments were combined, then a typical student would be expected to produce just 1.6 pages of extended writing a week for English class. The majority of the writing students are expected to do in school would be classified as writing without composing, a concept that appeared repeatedly in surveys of high school writing (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). According to Wilcox and Jeffery (2014), writing that does not organize the text into at least a paragraph in length is deemed mechanical and does not require composing. In contrast, writing of a paragraph or more that is organized into text segments is categorized as extended writing involving composing. Applebee and Langer (2011) reported that of the 8,542 assignments gathered across all content areas, only 19% represented extended writing. Classroom observations in this study reiterated this limited amount of extended writing. During classroom observations in English class at the high school level, only 12.3% of the overall class time was dedicated to asking students to write a paragraph or more. Concerns for the limited opportunities to compose were

echoed in the most frequently reported writing activities of Kiuhara et al. (2009) and of Gillespie et al. (2013), as well as the content analysis of Wilcox and Jeffery (2014).

How do Teachers Teach Writing? Researchers have attempted to determine the approaches used to teaching writing. Applebee and Langer (2011) reported the percent of teachers reporting frequently or almost always using various approaches to writing. The overwhelming majority (80% or more) noted the need to clearly specify the components that must be included in an assignment; spent class time generating ideas before writing; taught specific strategies for planning, drafting, and revising; provided models of effective responses; and used rubrics to identify the characteristics of a good response. Less frequently named approaches included asking students to work together to plan and revise work (60.4%), basing writing on immediate data from inquiry tasks (44.4%), and organizing a workshop environment that provided students with individualized attention (43.9%). These results mostly align with findings about the use of evidence-based writing practices in Kiuhara et al.'s (2009) survey. Like Applebee and Langer (2011), Kiuhara et al. (2009) reported the frequent use of strategy instruction, with more than 50% of English teachers reporting teaching strategies for prewriting, editing, and revising at least several times a month. Providing opportunities for students to collaborate and asking students to emulate models of good writing occurred less frequently, with most teachers reporting these events happened several times a year. Though both studies revealed strategy instruction is occurring frequently and student collaborating is occurring less frequently, there seems to be a discrepancy in the reported use of models.

How do Students Use Digital Tools to Support Writing? Professional organizations, researchers, and major reports have challenged teachers to use digital tools

when teaching writing (e.g., College Board et al., 2010; National Council of Teachers of English, 2018; National Writing Project, 2010; Yancey, 2009b), allowing students to draw from outside of school literacy practices (Alvermann, 2008). Yet, Hutchison and Reinking (2010, 2011) found teachers rank the importance of implementing digital tools higher than their reported actual level of use. Additionally, many researchers are concerned that digital tools are used merely in perfunctory ways, replicating traditional academic literacies (Hicks, 2018; Howell et al., 2017; Hutchison & Colwell, 2014). Across recent studies, teachers reported various barriers to implementing digital tools for writing instruction, including their own beliefs about technology, access to technology for instructional purposes, limited professional development opportunities (Williams & Beam, 2019), external pressures, concerns about conventional writing practices, students' lack of relevant experience (Howell et al., 2017), the challenge of engaging students in meaningful participation, logistical issues (Galvin & Greenhow, 2020), constraints of standardized curricula and assessments (Jensen & Shaughnessy, 2021), and time (L. L. Johnson, 2016). Noted affordances included increased motivation (Williams & Beam, 2019), increased opportunities for social interaction and collaboration (Williams & Beam, 2019), ease of collecting and sharing resources (Hutchison & Colwell, 2014), ease of getting feedback (Hutchison & Colwell, 2014), increased engagement (Howell et al., 2017), increased agency (Galvin & Greenhow, 2020; Howell et al., 2017), and opportunities for authentic contexts (Galvin & Greenhow, 2020). For NAEP writing scores, prior computer use for writing predicted writing proficiency levels (Mo & Troia, 2017; Tate et al., 2019).

The extent to which digital tools are used in the secondary English classroom, however, is unclear (Freedman et al., 2016; Howell et al., 2017). Two large-scale studies examined the use of digital tools for writing at the secondary level (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Purcell et al., 2013). Applebee and Langer (2011) found English teachers reported frequently or almost always using computers for finding source material on the internet (60%), for writing first drafts (42.3%), for editing and revising their own work (48.6%), and for the final copy (75.8%). Analysis of student writing samples, however, showed teachers may overestimate how often students are asked to produce writing using word processing software, as only 42% of assignments at the high school level were composed on a computer. Additionally, only 18.4% of English teachers stated having students frequently or almost always use computers to embed video, audio, or graphics in their writing. This notable lack of multimodality led Applebee and Langer to conclude that students are mostly using computers as "a powerful typewriter" (p. 23). Purcell et al. (2013) found similar results, with reports of 21% of AP and National Writing Project teachers having students incorporate video, audio, or images into writing assignments weekly or monthly.

Last, when considering how computers are used to enhance the sharing of student work, Applebee and Langer (2011) found only 23.7% of teachers reported using the computer to frequently or almost always send work in progress to peers for feedback. Similarly, Purcell et al. (2013) found only 29% of their surveyed teachers said they had students give other students feedback using a collaborative web-based tool (e.g., Google Docs) and only 22% reported having students post their work online for people outside of the class to see. Though teachers reported the beneficial impacts of digital tools on

student writing include wider audiences, greater collaboration, and increased student creativity (Purcell et al., 2013), findings from the Applebee and Langer (2011) and Purcell et al. (2013) studied highlighted that how often computers are actually used to achieve these purposes is limited. Though the data from these large-scale studies are important, more current comprehensive studies are needed to provide an up-to-date overview of secondary technology use. Representative, current but smaller-scale studies indicate digital writing practices are more expansive than presented in the Applebee and Langer (2011) and Purcell et al. (2013) studies and demonstrate that digital tools have been used in the secondary English classroom for multimodal arguments (Howell et al., 2017), multimodal analysis of literature (Smith, 2019), multimodal narrative nonfiction (Canady & Hicks, 2019), publication of student work on class website (Hackney, 2020), writing on social media (Galvin & Greenhow, 2020), and peer feedback in online affinity spaces (Marsh, 2018).

Summary. This overview of the landscape of high school writing highlights a few major trends. First, the majority of writing that occurs does not require students to compose (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). Second, when students are composing, they are infrequently asked to write research reports, arguments, or literary analyses (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). Third, English teachers teach writing through strategy instruction, but students are not often provided opportunities for collaboration (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Kiuhara et al., 2009). Last, teachers report having students use word processing software for producing writing but show limited use of computers to open up new possibilities for writing (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Purcell et al., 2013). Of utmost

importance is the fact that each of these seminal pieces of research occurred before the implementation of the CCSS. As Graham and Harris (2013) noted, these portraits of contemporary writing at the high school level stand "in stark contrast" to the demands of the CCSS (p. 30). Yet, without a more updated survey of practices, it will be difficult to determine the impact of the CCSS on writing instruction. A curriculum survey from the ACT (2016) offered a glimmer of insight into how the standards may or may not have changed the landscape. When asked to what extent the CCSS for writing have been implemented into the curriculum, 56% of high school teachers reported "a great deal" and 20% reported "completely." However, when asked the extent to which writing instruction changed to accommodate the CCSS, almost 60% of teachers reported "not at all" or "slightly." This tension alone highlights the need for further research now that the standards have been implemented.

College-Level Expectations

Yancey (2009a) argued that central to first-year academic literacy at the college level is academic writing and academic argument. Drawing on the research of writing at the college level (Addison & McGee, 2010; Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Melzer, 2009; Yancey, 2009a), this section is organized into four major themes: what students are writing, characteristics of good writing, characteristics needed for college-level writing, and level of preparedness for college-level writing.

What Are Students Writing? To provide a panorama of college writing, Melzer (2009) used quantitative and qualitative discourse analysis of over 2,100 writing assignments from over 400 undergraduate courses across disciplines. Drawing on an established taxonomy, Melzer first examined the purposes or functions of the

assignments. Melzer classified each assignment by its dominant function: expressive (informal and exploratory writing for self as audience), poetic (imaginative that focuses on text as art), transactional (informative or persuasive writing), and exploratory (exploration of ideas for a public audience). He found that of the assignments collected, 83% were classified as transactional. Of the assignments classified as transactional, 66% were informative and the remaining were persuasive. Thirteen percent of the assignments were exploratory, making poetic and expressive functions negligible. Across all institutions and levels, informational writing was the dominant function. The dominant audience for these assignments was consistently teacher-as-examiner, with peers and self consisting of only 6% and 5% of the total audiences, respectively.

Melzer (2009) observed a variety of used genres, including "lab reports, executive summaries, book reviews, ethnographies, feasibility reports, essay exams, abstracts, annotated bibliographies- the list is truly extensive" (p. 251). Despite this range, the analysis revealed the dominance of two genres, the term paper and the short-answer exam. Other studies on genres at the college level produced similar results.

Addison and McGee (2010) surveyed college professors and found that at both the freshman/sophomore and junior/senior levels, the research paper was the dominant genre assigned. Brockman et al. (2011) surveyed and interviewed faculty at Central Michigan University and found the in-class essay to be the most common writing assignment and out-of-class writing was most commonly critical analysis and research-based writing. The authors noted none of the faculty in the focus groups mentioned the five-paragraph essay as essential for college writing. Most recently, Donham's (2014) qualitative content analysis of undergraduate faculty's expectations of student writing,

based on the instructions the faculty provided in student assignment directions, also showed informational writing and the research paper to be the norm of college-level writing. It is understandable then, why Yancey (2009a) called the research paper the "gold standard" of writing assignments for first-year college students (p. 265).

What Does Good Writing Look Like? An attempt to define what "good" college writing looks like is not new. Historically, studies have shown defining good writing is abstruse, as there is tremendous variability from instructor to instructor and pedagogical inconsistencies that highlight the tension between theory and practice (Appleman & Green, 1993). Current research revealed inconsistencies in identifying the most important characteristics of good writing in a general sense, as well as specific concerns regarding what counts as good research. Addison and McGee (2010) asked college professors to select the most important characteristics of good writing. The most frequently selected characteristic was organization (chosen by 66% of participants), followed by analysis (chosen by 59%) and supporting evidence (chosen by 57%). In a similar vein, Brockman et al. (2010) studied college teachers' expectations for student writing in an attempt to concretely define good college writing. Through their analysis, Brockman et al. concluded that good writing is a complex concept that varies by discipline. The top five identified characteristics of good writing were grammar/mechanics, organization, clarity, logical/critical thinking, and support for thesis. Yet, humanities and non-humanities faculty members differed in expectations regarding citation style, genre, use of the first-person perspective, use of personal experience as evidence, length of paragraphs, and use of passive voice, forcing the researchers to conclude that good writing is a "highly elusive term" (Brockman et al., 2010, p. 43).

In an in-depth analysis of research paper expectations specifically, Melzer (2009) found research papers fell into two different categories: the "modernist" and the "alternative." Reporting what is known, the modernist research paper is informative, thesis-driven, and objective, valuing expertise and detachment. The alternative research paper, on the other hand, is about the creation of new knowledge, with a greater emphasis on exploration, synthesis, and creativity. Thus, though the research paper dominates, the exact expectations of what counts as a research paper can vary greatly. As Melzer noted,

> The differences among disciplines- and even among instructors within the same discipline and subdiscipline- in terms of purposes and audiences for research writing, research methods, what counts as evidence, how research papers are structured, and the persona the writer is asked to take on make it difficult to generalize about the research paper as a genre. (p. 255)

Melzer's commentary shows ambiguity in expectations does not just occur at the big-picture level (Brockman et al., 2010), but is found at the genre level as well.

What Are the Habits of Mind Needed For College-Level Success? Although defining good college writing has proven challenging, professional organizations and researchers alike have offered suggestions for the practices needed to be successful. The *Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing* includes eight habits of mind necessary for success in college writing (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011). This report was developed to "connect expectations across educational levels and institutions" (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011, p. 2) and was based on the outcomes reflected in the Council of Writing Program Administrators' (CWPA) *Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition*, a document written to express

what students should know and be able to do at the end of their first-year college composition course. This framework indicated students need curiosity, openness, engagement, creativity, persistence, responsibility, flexibility, and metacognition to be successful college writers. These habits of mind should be developed through experiences with writing, reading, and critical analysis that can develop rhetorical knowledge, critical thinking, writing processes, knowledge of conventions, and the ability to compose in multiple environments.

For specific recommendations from researchers, there is an underlying theme of the need for critical readings to be able to write well at the college level. Yancey (2009a) named sourcing and evaluation of information as one of the five major themes associated with postsecondary literacy success. Brockman et al. (2010) repeated a reading and writing connection, stating faculty members across disciplines generally agree that writing assignments are based on reading, and as such, students are expected to be able to read closely. Along this same vein, Brockman et al. (2011) explicated the need for reading and writing connections as they examined the complex research processes needed to evaluate source materials, summarize main points and potential biases, evaluate evidence, consider opposing viewpoints, and synthesize material to merge the reading's ideas with one's own. Similar processes were echoed by Donham (2014), who emphasized the need for students to be able to read to learn and to demonstrate critical research knowledge. Based on the content analysis of assignments, Donham argued that college-level students must be able to learn to gather information from trustworthy sources, evaluate the presented information for credibility and relevance, and construct knowledge from this information. Taken together, this research highlights the more

abstract qualities college-level writers need (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011) as well as the specific practices researchers find students need most (Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Yancey, 2009a).

How Prepared Are Students for College-Level Writing? In ACT's (2016) curriculum survey, college composition educators were asked how prepared students were with writing content skills when entering the course on a scale from 1–4, with 1 being *not prepared* and 4 being *very prepared*. For each category (sentence structure, usage, punctuation, topic development, organization, and knowledge of language), 60% or more of the professors selected 1 or 2, indicating the overwhelming majority of professors considered students marginally prepared. For all categories, at most 2% of the professors said students were very prepared. This sense of unpreparedness was echoed, but also more fully explained, by Brockman et al. (2011), who found that most professors took a developmental view of writing growth, indicating students do not come to college as fully competent writers, but that they also do not leave their college composition courses as fully competent either. Instead, Brockman et al. suggested professors and students alike should consider college a place where students will continue to grow as writers, and, as such, faculty have a shared responsibility for students' writing growth (Brockman et al., 2010). However, it is important to note that in the ACT's (2020) curriculum survey, postsecondary English instructors were asked to explain the extent to which they agreed with the statement, "Students have been better prepared in ELA/writing in the last few years than they have ever been before" (p. 6). Of the educators surveyed, 46% agreed and 25% strongly agreed. These percentages show that perhaps the increased attention to writing has led to better student preparation.

Summary. Just as the survey of the high school writing landscape offered major trends, common themes emerged when looking holistically at the portrait of college writing. First, it is evident that the vast majority of writing assignments at the college level demand students inform or persuade, typically in the form of a research paper (Addison & McGee, 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Melzer, 2009; Yancey, 2009a). Second, it is difficult for professors (across and within disciplines) to achieve consensus on what good writing looks like at the college level (Addison & McGee, 2010; Appleman & Green, 1993; Brockman et al., 2010; Melzer, 2009). Third, it is generally agreed upon that students need critical analysis practices, particularly in the area of being able to critically read to evaluate and then apply sources to their own writing (Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Yancey, 2009a). Last, professors do not find students are prepared for the demands of college-level writing, though most see college as a place for students to continue to grow as writers (ACT, 2016; Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011).

Insights From Compared Expectations

Though there is research on high school and college writing expectations individually, there is a very limited picture of compared expectations. Five key studies directly compared secondary and postsecondary expectations, each offering different insights. The major themes that arose from these studies were tensions surrounding the effects of standardized testing, potential language barriers between institution levels, differences in practices, differences in the importance of different writing approaches, and different focuses in the understandings of research processes.

Product Versus Process—The Effect of Standardized Testing. Fanetti et al. (2010) interviewed secondary English teachers and college writing instructors in an attempt to better understand the degree to which standardized testing affects instruction and development. Despite a wide range of teaching styles and practices reported across groups, one notable tension reoccurred: secondary teachers felt they needed to teach to standardized tests and college professors wished students had not been engrained with the five-paragraph essay model. High school educators frequently mentioned the power of the writing process and noted writing was important for reasons well beyond a standardized test, but "the curricular constraints require those ideals to be uncomfortably married to practices that deflate their significance" (Fanetti et al., 2010, p. 80). College writing instructors, on the other hand, maintained that they had to begin their instruction by getting students to "unlearn" rules from high school. This study shows that as long as standardized tests for writing hold value, teachers at the high school level will be unable to provide a true process model of student-centered learning, which is just what college professors are expecting on the other side of the divide.

Language Barriers. Hannah and Saidy's (2014) survey research of ninth-grade students reiterated the idea of a lack of universal expectations. Hannah and Saidy, two college writing professors, surveyed high school students to investigate the potential of language acting as a barrier between high school and college writing expectations. The survey, which identified language students used to talk about writing, showed there were layers of barriers posed by language and that language at the genre, institutional, disciplinary, and personal levels differed from that which was expected or understood by college professors. The authors argued that though the students were working in familiar

genres, they spoke about writing in a way that was "at times disorienting" for the researchers (Hannah & Saidy, 2014, p. 132). This lack of understanding indicated students may enter college with writing knowledge that cannot be easily identified by college professors, ultimately affecting student success, for when a common language is missing, students and instructors can become frustrated as they operate under assumptions instead of understandings.

Differences in Educators' Practices. Addison and McGee's (2010) attempted to create an empirically-based picture of high school and college writing by investigating the experiences of high school and college students and faculty with writing instruction. When looking explicitly at the compared teaching practices of college and high school faculty, the survey results showed the educators generally aligned on the need for prewriting, clear expectations, and good instructor practices. Two of the most significant differences between the two levels of faculty were that college professors were significantly less likely than high school teachers to provide exploratory writing opportunities and peer review opportunities, even though these activities have been found to contribute to deep learning.

Differences in Importance of Approaches. The ACT's (2016) curriculum survey had some items that were used to directly compare secondary and postsecondary educators' opinions on the importance of different writing approaches and general writing knowledge. Educators were asked to pick the most important approach to writing, selecting from (a) generating sounds ideas for writing, (b) using language conventions proficiently, (c) critically analyzing source texts, and (d) clearly summarizing other authors' ideas in writing. College professors were most in agreement, with 47%

indicating generating sound ideas for writing was the most important and each of the other categories receiving about 20% or less. In contrast, high school educators showed greater variations in what was most important, with 43% selecting critically analyzing source texts as the most important, followed by generating sound ideas for writing at 35%. These results were consistent with previous curriculum surveys that highlighted that high school courses typically value a greater diversity of goals when compared to college composition courses.

Differences in the Focuses of Research. In an additional ACT (2020) curriculum survey, questions focused particularly on educators' perceptions of the relative importance of different research practices. When asked to select the three most important research skills from a list, none of the three skills most likely to be identified as important by college educators matched those of the skills most likely to be identified as important by high school English teachers. College educators were most likely to value inquiry and researching skills, whereas high school English teachers placed more value on argument skills (e.g., developing and supporting a claim). This difference is logical with the CCSS emphasis on argument yet highlights a possible tension as students move from high school to college.

Summary. Each of these studies offered some limited insight into the differences between high school and college educators' expectations for writing. Fanetti et al. (2010) noted the tension between the demands of standardized testing and the effects of such formulaic writing. Hannah and Saidy (2014) referenced differences in the language high school students used to talk about writing and what would be expected by college writing instructors. Addison and McGee (2010) found college educators do not use peer feedback

or exploratory writing as often as do high school teachers. The ACT (2016) curriculum survey revealed differences in the value of critically examining source material when compared to the importance of generating sound ideas for writing. Last, the ACT (2020) found secondary and postsecondary educators differ in the value they place on certain research practices, with inquiry valued more at the college level and argument valued more at the high school level. Some of this research occurred before the implementation of the CCSS (Addison & McGee, 2010; Fanetti et al., 2010; Hannah & Saidy, 2014) and thus does not offer insight into how the new standards could have shifted some of these tensions. The ACT curriculum surveys occurred after the CCSS implementation was in full swing (i.e., in 2016 and 2020), but included very limited, narrow points of comparison (i.e., importance of four different approaches or importance of 14 different research skills). What is lacking is a comprehensive picture and comparison of the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators after the implementation of the CCSS.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS

The Mixed Methods Research Design

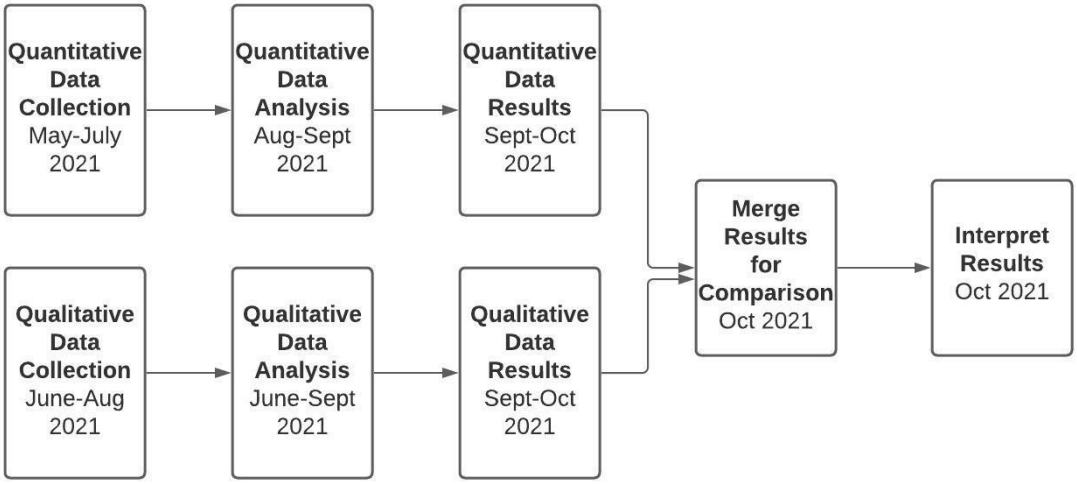
In this dissertation research, I used a convergent parallel mixed methods design, as was approved by the St. John's Institutional Review Board (see Appendix A for IRB approval). I chose a mixed methods approach because it allowed me to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the problem than the quantitative or qualitative components would have on their own. Because I drew on both approaches, I minimized the limitations of the approaches when used individually. For the present research, the quantitative survey data created an opportunity for generalization and the qualitative interviews offered in-depth insight into individual perspectives (Creswell, 2015; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Examined together, these data allowed for triangulation (convergence and corroboration), complementarity (elaboration and illustration), and initiation (paradox and contradiction; Creswell, 2015; Greene et al., 1989).

More specifically, I used a convergent parallel mixed methods design for the "broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding" (R. B. Johnson et al., 2007, p. 123). With this design, I collected, analyzed separately, merged, and then interpreted together the qualitative data (interviews) and quantitative data (Likert-type surveys; Creswell, 2015; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Fetters et al., 2013; see Figure 1 for procedural diagram with timeline). In a convergent parallel mixed methods design, each strand is performed independently and then brought together for the overall interpretation (e.g., Arnault & Fetters, 2011; McAuley et al., 2006; Scammon et al., 2013). This is considered a "separative" approach to data merging, as the qualitative and quantitative are treated as separate before the final merging. I chose this approach because I

completed complex qualitative and quantitative work and designed the study so each piece would carry equal weight (QUAN + QUAL; R. B. Johnson et al., 2007; Morse, 1991). In choosing a *separative dimension*, I could ensure I examined the insights provided by each piece of the research, some of which would have been lost if I examined only the intersection (Moseholm & Fetters, 2017). Additionally, when designing this mixed methods study, I did not take a "matching" approach, which Creswell (2015) described as intentionally matching qualitative items with quantitative items for the purposes of easy merging. Instead, I used what Moseholm and Fetters (2017) called a "blind faith" approach, setting up the research with the intent that the merging of the two data types would provide new insights, but not directly constructing questions in a way that immediately compared constructs. In this research, I used the QUAN measures to examine writing expectations, as aligned with the constructs established by the CCSS, and QUAL measures to examine writing expectations from a more sociocultural, context-based approach. I used both the survey data and the interview data to address both research questions.

Figure 1

Convergent Parallel Design Procedural Diagram and Timeline



Research Questions

Research Question 1: What are the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators?

Research Question 2: What are the differences in writing expectations of both secondary and postsecondary educators?

Participants and Sampling

In this section, I describe the quantitative sampling methods used to recruit survey participants and provide an overview of the location, years teaching, and highest degree of these educators. Then, I describe the qualitative sampling methods used to recruit interview participants, followed by the demographic information for these participants.

Quantitative Sample

For the quantitative portion of this mixed methods study, I used a nonprobability sample of high school English and college composition educators, drawing on a snowball sampling method (Huck, 2012). Though it is important to understand the documented

differences in expectations across disciplines for writing (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Melzer, 2009), I aimed to examine differences within a discipline, drawing on the understandings of the sociocultural tenets of writing instruction, including the importance of context, the co-authorship of educators, and the role of cultural tools and procedural facilitators (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006). To gain access to potential participants, I posted a link for the online survey as well as a visual overview of my research in active teacher Facebook groups (see Appendix B for recruitment post). I offered a chance to win a $50 Amazon gift card as an incentive to participate.

I staggered how I posted the recruitment flyer and survey link in order to maximize my exposure. For example, during week one, I posted in the first cluster of Facebook groups, which included Teachers Making Better Writers (4,330 members), St. John's University PhD in Literacy (194 members), Rhetoric & Composition/Writing Studies Pedagogy (2,000 members), and Secondary ELA Teachers (5,800 members). The following week, I posted in a second cluster of groups: National Writing Project (2,420 members), Council of Writing Program Administrators (1,436 members), Cult of Pedagogy English Teachers (7,614 members), and Higher Ed Learning Collective (37,000 members). In the third week, I reposted in the first cluster. In the fourth week, I reposted in the second cluster. Additionally, I posted on my personal page and asked those who participated in the survey to share the survey with other individuals who taught either high school English or college composition courses. I left the survey open for a 6-week period.

This sampling method was limited, as the kinds of teachers who belong to social media professional development groups may not represent the desired total population of educators. Though the results will not be generalizable to the population as a whole, as the purpose of this study was to explore the potential differences in expectations, using a snowball sampling method offered a large sample size during a pandemic. Because I used a snowball sample method, there was no way to determine the return rate; however, I closed the survey when I reached saturation of 100 participants per group, as this saturation level allowed me to have enough participants to compare the means of both groups of educators. To participate in the survey, participants had to first type their name to acknowledge consent (see Appendix C for survey consent form). Participants were ensured confidentiality of research records would be strictly maintained by deleting their name and any other identifiers from the data files used to analyze the results.

The 100 high school English teacher participants were from 36 states and U.S. territories (see Figure 2 for high school state breakdown). These teachers had taught for an average of 11.56 years at their current level, with reported years of teaching experience ranging from 1 to 32 (see Table 1 for years teaching at current level). Of the high school teachers, a majority of the teachers surveyed held master's degrees (see Table 2 for degree by level taught). The 100 college composition professors were from 39 states and U.S. territories (see Figure 3 for college state breakdown). These teachers had taught for an average of 12.46 years at their current level, with reported years of teaching experience ranging from 1 to 35. Of the college professors, majority of the educators held doctoral degrees.

Figure 2

High School Teacher State Breakdown

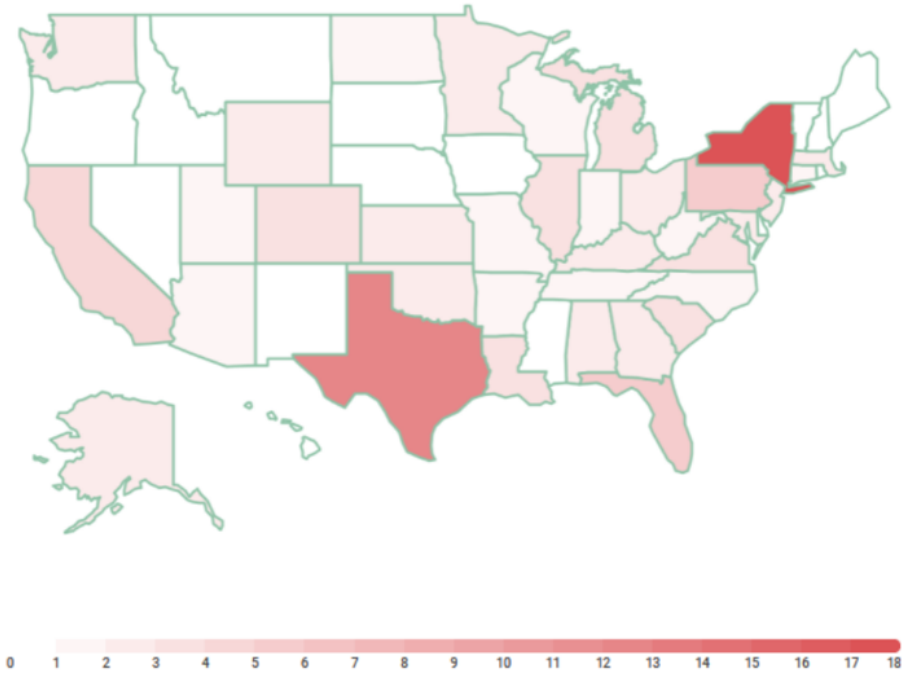


Figure 3

College Professor State Breakdown

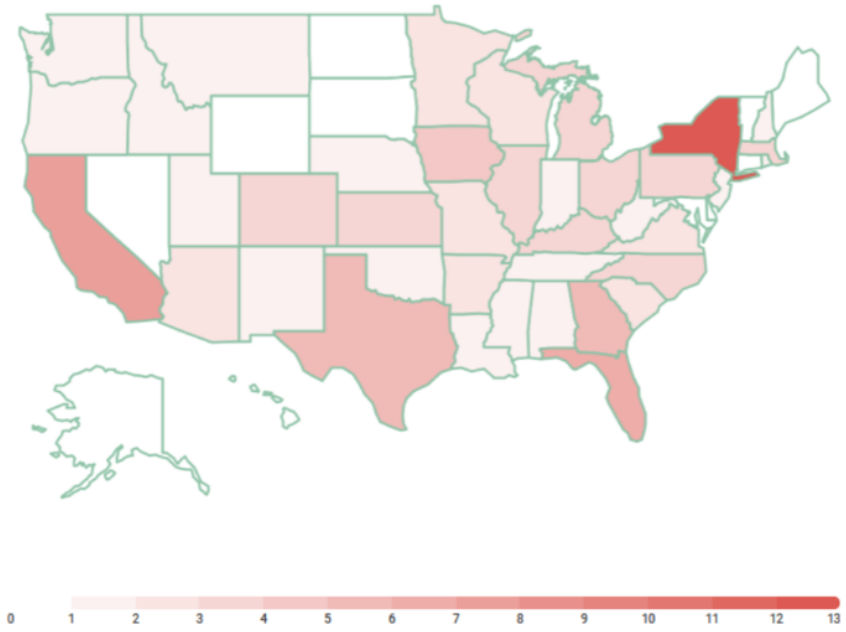


Table 1

Years Teaching at Current Level

Level	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*
High school *N* = 100	1	32	11.56	8.37
College *N* = 98	1	35	12.46	7.35

Table 2

Highest Degree by Level Taught

Level taught	Bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree plus additional credits	Master's degree	Master's degree plus additional credits	Doctoral degree	Doctoral degree plus additional credits
High school *N* = 100	10%	14%	30%	44%	2%	0%
College *N* = 100	1%	0%	16%	41%	34%	8%

Qualitative Sample

For the qualitative interviews, I used convenience sampling (Huck, 2012); at the conclusion of the survey, I asked for participants who would be interested in being interviewed. As noted in the recruitment portion of the survey, participants who completed the interview were offered a $25 Amazon gift card, sent directly to their email at the conclusion of the interview sessions. To expedite the data collection process and to capitalize on the opportunity to interview those who were interested, I interviewed the first five volunteers from each group. As I collected survey data, I emailed the first five interview volunteers who were high school English teachers and the first five interview volunteers who were college composition professors. In the email, I provided scheduling options and the consent form that needed to be signed (see Appendix D for interview

consent form). If I did not receive a response within 3 days, I sent a follow-up email. If I did not hear back after a week, I moved on to the next volunteers on the list from the survey data. Table 3 provides an overview of each of the interview participants at the high school level. Table 4 provides an overview of each of the interview participants at the college level. All participants scanned over the written consent before the interviews occurred and were ensured confidentiality by removing names and identifiers from the data.

Table 3

Demographic Overview of High School Teachers Interviewed

Participant	Years teaching at current level	Highest degree	State	Notes
Participant A	18	Bachelor's degree plus additional credits	North Carolina	
Participant B	10	Doctoral degree	District of Columbia	
Participant C	6	Master's degree	Louisiana	Previously taught college composition classes
Participant D	3	Master's degree plus additional credits	New York	
Participant E	16	Master's degree	Georgia	

Table 4

Demographic Overview of College Professors Interviewed

Participant	Years teaching at current level	Highest degree	State	Notes
Participant F	4	Master's degree plus additional credits	Arizona	Previously taught as Fulbright Scholar
Participant G	14	Master's degree	Georgia	
Participant H	14	Doctoral degree	Georgia	Previously taught high school
Participant I	17	Master's degree plus additional credits	Oklahoma	
Participant J	3	Master's degree plus additional credits	Nebraska	Previously taught middle school

Instruments

In this section, I first describe the creation of the survey instrument, explaining the design and rationale for each section of the survey. Then, I describe the interview protocol used, focusing on the structure of the interview, the questions asked, and how these questions were designed.

Quantitative Instrument

I created a 62-item survey to understand the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators (see Appendix E). All survey items were influenced by prior research on the topic, the CCSS for writing, and the sociocultural framework that centered this study (see Appendix F). The original goal was to measure three main constructs: the range of required writing, the production and distribution of writing, and research to build and present knowledge. I based these constructs and their definitions on the CCSS. I organized the survey around the CCSS because these standards provide a

common framework that should be familiar to both secondary and postsecondary educators (Addison & McGee, 2016). In this survey, I defined each of the constructs, or my primary dependent variables of interest, as follows:

- *Range of writing*: For the purpose of this research, range of writing was defined as the frequency of text type/purpose, length of assignments, duration of assignments, and audience for assignments. It is important to note that in the CCSS themselves, there are two separate major sections for Text Types and then Range of Writing. Because the use of different text types is referenced in the Range of Writing portion of the standards as well as in the Text Types portion, I decided to collapse the two categories to create one construct to avoid redundancy.
- *Production and distribution of writing*: This construct was defined as the writing activities educators use to develop and strengthen student writing, the use of technology to support writing, and how educators define good writing.
- *Research to build and present knowledge*: This construct was defined by the frequency of research projects as well as the frequency of specific research practices.

It is important to note here that though I originally designed the survey to measure these constructs, when I conducted exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, new variables emerged (as I describe in Chapter 4). The scales I created to analyze the inferential statistics were variations of these originally designed constructs.

In Part 1 of the survey, I collected demographic data, including level taught, number of years teaching, and highest educational degree. This section provided

information on the primary independent variable of interest (i.e., level taught, high school or college) as well as other independent variables for which I controlled (i.e., numbers of years teaching and level of education). In Part 2 of the survey, I asked the educators to indicate how often they had students write for different purposes. The items in this part were inspired by Gillespie et al.'s (2013) and Kiuhara et al.'s (2009) research, which looked at the frequency of listed genres. However, I deliberately chose to look at purpose instead of genre for two reasons. First, the CCSS use the term purpose, not genre. To consider the effect of the standards, I aligned the questions with this language. Second, Melzer (2009) explained there is tremendous variability in genres used but a narrower range of functions (i.e., purposes). I derived the definitions of the purposes in the study directly from the standards, and this section was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009), which was a modified version of the scale used in previous research ranging from never to daily (*Never* = 0, *Once/Semester* = 1, *Once/Month* = 2, *Once/Week* = 3, *Daily* = 4). Though previous research measured frequency on an 8-point scale, I collapsed this scale into 5 points to make it more appropriate for both high school and college professors, because high schools and colleges do not run on the same time schedule. Frequency was measured in multiple parts of this survey (Parts 2–6), for as Graham (2019) stated, the complexity of writing requires time to master, and, as such, time matters.

In Part 3 of the survey, I explored the range of writing teachers expect from students in terms of length, duration, and audience. In Part 4, I asked participants to report the frequency of using specific writing activities. I took the writing activities directly from Kiuhara et al.'s (2009) survey. Kiuhara et al. compiled this list of activities

from a meta-analysis on effective writing practices. I decided to remove two of the original 27 items from Kiuhara and colleagues' original list because those particular items aligned more with different parts of my research (using word processing software and engaging in research inquiry) and were thus moved to Part 5 and Part 6, respectively. In Part 5 of the survey, I looked specifically at the use of technology to assist writing, drawing from concepts found in previous research (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Purcell et al., 2013).

In Part 6, I asked about the use of research practices. Many of the items in this section drew specifically from the language of the CCSS. In Part 7, I asked teachers to identify the five most important characteristics of good writing. I used characteristics of good writing defined in Addison and McGee's (2010) research of college professors, and I also had the option for teachers to write in additional characteristics that were not included. Educators selected the boxes of the five characteristics they identified as most important for good writing. In Part 8, I provided space for participants to explain any of their answers if necessary. Finally, in Part 9 of the survey, I asked for participants' email addresses to enter the Amazon gift card drawing and if survey participants would be interested in completing a follow-up interview.

Qualitative Instrument

I used an interview protocol for asking and recording responses to ensure consistency from participant to participant (see Appendix G for full question list). Using Creswell and Creswell's (2018) interview protocol as a guide, the interviews began with an overview of the basic interview information: time, date, and names of interviewer and interviewees. I reviewed the overall structure of the interview and the overview of the

research. During the interviews, I asked two icebreaker questions followed by nine main questions that were divided into three main theoretical categories: teacher as co-author (e.g., How do you define writing?), context (e.g., What institutional factors do you feel most influence your curricular decisions for writing instruction?), and tools/procedural facilitators (e.g., What tools [such as graphic organizers, particular strategies, or a specific curriculum] do you use most often to help students with writing?). I followed-up with probes for more information or clarification when needed. At the conclusion of each interview, I thanked the participant, and following the interview, I emailed the Amazon gift card to the participant.

Research Procedures

In this section, I describe the procedures for collecting and cleaning all quantitative data as well as the procedures for recording and transcribing all qualitative data.

Quantitative Procedures

For the quantitative strand, I collected survey data through Qualtrics and exported all data into Excel. I cleaned the survey data to eliminate suspected bot responses (i.e., a series of responses sent in quick succession that all followed a particular pattern for years teaching, the fill-in response, and the email addresses) or surveys that were primarily incomplete. I then exported the clean data to SPSS for analysis. I entered the email addresses that were included for the Amazon gift card into a random name generator at the end of the data collection period and sent the Amazon gift card electronically to the winner.

Qualitative Procedures

For the qualitative strand, I collected data through virtual (i.e., Zoom) interviews to examine the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators. Because the interviews occurred virtually, all sessions were recorded (with participant permission) so I could return to the participants' responses. Additionally, I recorded the interviews on a sound device in the event of technology failure. On average, the interviews were 30–40 minutes long. Following the interviews, I transcribed and then coded all data. To ensure reliability, I carefully checked the transcripts for accuracy and continually compared the coded data for consistency.

Data Analysis

In this section, I describe the analyses I conducted using the survey data, ranging from the examination of descriptive statistics to *t* tests and regression analyses. Then, I explain the two-cycle coding methods I used to analyze the interview data. Finally, I detail how I merge the findings of the quantitative and qualitative strands.

Quantitative Analysis

I analyzed the survey data using SPSS. To address Research Question 1, I began by examining the descriptive statistics (i.e., percentages, means, and standard deviations) for all demographic information and all survey items. I divided this information into two categories based on the primary independent variable of interest (i.e., level taught). Thus, percentages, means, and standard deviations were provided for each item for both high school teachers and then for college professors for easy comparison (Huck, 2012). To address Research Question 2, I examined inferential statistics. First, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis and then a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate construct

validity. I created three scales using the information from the factor analyses to ensure the survey items measured each of the desired constructs, correlating with three parts of the survey (Utilized Writing Practices – Part 4, Use of Digital Technologies – Part 5, and Research Practices – Part 6). To achieve the most parsimonious model, any items that did not contribute significantly to each construct were eliminated from the analysis (Huck, 2012). Then, I ran Cronbach's alpha to check for internal reliability for these three scales. Each Cronbach's alpha was over .70 and would thus be considered an acceptable reliability (Huck, 2012). I also forced a one-factor solution to determine whether all of the survey questions could load onto a single factor (Huck, 2012) and ended up creating a fourth scale titled "Overall Writing Expectations" that contained survey items from Parts 4–6. This scale also had an acceptable Cronbach's alpha (see Chapter 4 for a complete description of the scale creation process).

With these scales, I conducted a series of independent *t* tests to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups for each of the scales examined. To determine practical significance, I used Cohen's *d*. Then, I conducted a series of multiple regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of each scale score when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education. To determine practical significance, I also determined the coefficient of determination (R^2). To address the portion of the survey that was not Likert-type questions, I conducted a series of logistical regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of whether an educator selected each of the elements of good writing descriptors.

Qualitative Analysis

To analyze the interview data, I drew from Saldaña's (2016) guide to coding for qualitative research. As coding is a heuristic and cyclical process, I used a two-cycle coding method, ultimately moving toward a synthesis of "consolidated meaning" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 10). I moved from codes to categories to themes, with themes acting as the outcome of the coding process. First, I transcribed all of the interview data. Then, using Excel, I broke each interview into short, paragraph-sized units with line breaks between topics or subtopics. Gee (2014) argued that breaking up the data in this way allows the researcher to best understand what the speaker is trying to say, rather than focusing on a single line that may provide too narrow of a focus. While transcribing, as a way of pre-coding, I highlighted significant quotes that struck me (Saldaña, 2016).

To code the data, I broke the data up into two distinct data corpuses, one reflecting the transcript data from the high school teacher interviews and one reflecting the transcript data for the college composition professor interviews. This organization allowed me to better understand the patterns that existed within each context before comparing the two. Thus, for the first two rounds of coding, I coded only within each distinct corpus. For the initial coding of the data, I used an affective coding method called values coding (Saldaña, 2016). This coding method reflects the participant's values, attitudes, and beliefs. Values coding looks at these different constructs in order to best understand the participant's worldview. Drawing on Saldaña's (2016) work, value is defined as "the importance we attribute to ourselves, another person, thing, or idea. They are principles, moral codes, and situational norms people live by" (p. 131). Attitude is defined as "the way we think and feel about ourselves, another person, thing, or idea"

(Saldaña, 2016, p. 131). Last, a belief is "part of a system that includes our values and attitudes, plus our personal knowledge, experiences, opinions, prejudices, morals, and other interpretive perceptions of the social world" (p. 132). Because there is a complex interplay among these three constructs, I did not differentiate the constructs as I coded (Saldaña, 2016). I did not determine any code a priori, but rather I developed the codes from the data. After the initial values coding cycle, I had 106 codes for the high school English teacher corpus and 84 codes for the college composition professor corpus (see Appendix H for initial codes). I then categorized the codes and reflected on their collective meaning and interaction. In this study, I explored secondary and postsecondary educators' expectations for writing, so as a result, it felt logical to explore educators' cultural values and beliefs through this coding model because it aligned with the sociocultural tenet that a teacher's ideologies shape students' writing development (Bazerman, 2016).

During the second coding cycle, I aimed to further develop the sense of categories and then ultimately moved toward thematic organization. To meet this end, I reorganized and reconfigured the first cycle codes to develop a smaller and more select list of significant themes. For the second coding cycle, I used pattern coding. Pattern codes are explanatory or inferential in nature and are used to identify emergent themes, creating more parsimonious units of analysis. Saldaña (2016) maintained that this search for commonality in the perspectives of multiple participants helps to explore the shared ways of knowing that can form a dominant discourse. I first used pattern coding to synthesize the initial codes in each data corpus individually (see Appendix I to see each initial code organized by pattern for each data corpus). Then, to determine the final themes, I

compared pattern codes across the two data corpuses (see Appendix J for matrix highlighting the intersection of first and second round coding for each theme). In order to keep track of all codes and categories, I created a codebook in Excel that served as a compilation of the codes, content descriptions, and data examples. An excerpt from this codebook can be found in Appendix K so readers of this dissertation can understand the minutia of the coding process. Additionally, I was conscious to name my own biases during the research process. While coding, at Saldaña's (2016) recommendation, I noticed what surprised me to track my assumptions, what intrigued me to track my positionality, and what disturbed me to track tensions with my own beliefs through detailed researcher memos.

Mixed Methods Analysis

In Chapter 4, I first present the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data separately for each research question, in alignment with a convergent parallel mixed methods design. Then, at the conclusion of Chapter 4, I merge the findings according to theme. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) described that integration at the methods level can occur in several ways, and Creswell (2015) argued that a hallmark of mixed methods design is *intentional* integration. For this study, I drew on the *merging* approach, where the two databases are brought together for analysis and comparison after the statistical analysis of the numeral data and the qualitative analysis of the textual data have occurred. Because I placed equal weight on both qualitative and quantitative data, I used a *simultaneous bidirectional framework* to structure the merging, meaning I used the analyses of both the survey and interview data to determine the merged findings (Moseholm & Fetters, 2017).

There are also different approaches to integration at the interpretation level, two of which I drew on in this study. First, I integrated the qualitative and quantitative findings through a joint display after reporting the quantitative and qualitative findings separately. This allowed for a visual representation of the intersection of the separate qualitative and quantitative results (Fetters et al., 2013). When assessing the "fit" of the integration, I drew from three possible outcomes: confirmation (where the findings from the qualitative and quantitative confirmed each other), expansion (where the findings expanded insights), and discordance (where the findings from both sources contradicted or conflicted with each other; Fetters et al., 2013). Then, I used the *integrating through narrative* approach to describe the intersection of the findings. More specifically, I drew from a *weaving approach*, intersecting the data theme-by-theme (Fetters et al., 2013). Chapter 4 is structured according to these described analysis practices.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In this chapter, I describe the major findings from the research, organized by the two research questions of this study. Under each research question, I analyze both the quantitative survey data and the qualitative interview data. At the conclusion of this chapter, I consider the intersection of the results, analyzing points of convergence and divergence across methods.

Research Question 1

My first research question was: What are the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators? In this section, I examine the qualitative survey data and the qualitative interview data that address this question. For the quantitative data, I present the descriptive statistics for the survey items. For the qualitative data, I discuss three major themes I found as I analyzed the interview transcripts.

Quantitative

To address the first research question from a quantitative perspective, I analyzed the frequencies, means, and standard deviations for all Likert-style questions (Parts 2–6) and the frequencies for the Good Writing portion of the survey in which educators selected the five most important qualities of good writing, with each of the options becoming its own survey item so I could analyze the data in SPSS (Part 7). This division created a total of 58 items that measured overall reported writing practices with a Cronbach's alpha of .892. In this section, I report the descriptive statistics for these items in tables and discuss noteworthy findings for each portion of the survey. For all Likert-style questions, data were coded as 0 (*Never*), 1 (*Once a Semester*), 2 (*Once a Month*), 3 (*Once a Week*), and 4 (*Daily*). Data are reported here by survey part.

Purpose of Writing. The type of writing that was assigned most frequently at both the high school and college levels was argument, with 59% of high school teachers and 76% of college professors reporting they asked students to engage in this kind of work at least monthly. Educators reported similar frequency of informative texts, with 54% of high school teachers and 64% of college professors reporting using this writing type at least monthly. Narrative writing assignments were less frequent for both groups of educators, with 12% of high school and 21% of college educators reporting never using this type of writing. The majority of educators reported using this writing type once per semester. These findings conflict with previous reports that showed narrative to be the primary purpose used in high school and informational to be the primary purpose used in college (Melzer, 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). It is logical to assume that at least at the high school level this can be partially attributed to the influence of the CCSS, which emphasize argument writing (Addison & McGee, 2016). In a very broad sense, the common emphasis on argument indicates a greater alignment in the dominant purposes expected by educators at both levels than reflected in previous research. See Table 5 for Part 2 reported frequencies, and note that in the frequency tables, I bolded the highest reported frequency for each group in order to help streamline this extensive numerical data.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 2

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Write arguments							
High school *N* = 100	0%	**41%**	33%	21%	5%	1.90	.905
College *N* = 100	2%	22%	**46%**	25%	5%	2.09	.866
Write informative/ explanatory texts							
High school *N* = 100	4%	**42%**	37%	12%	5%	1.72	.911
College *N* = 100	6%	30%	**35%**	23%	6%	1.93	1.008
Write narratives							
High school *N* = 100	12%	**56%**	26%	5%	1%	1.27	.777
College *N* = 100	21%	**46%**	22%	8%	3%	1.26	.981

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Length of Writing. Most educators reported using short, ungraded writing assignments often, with 73% of high school teachers and 79% of college professors stating this practice occurred once a week or daily. One- to two-page writing assignments were also used frequently at both levels, with most high school teachers reporting this activity monthly (55%) or weekly (26%) and most college professors reporting this activity monthly (36%) or weekly (39%). At the three- to four-page level, there started to be more notable differences between the two groups, as 48% of high school teachers reported using a three- to four-page assignment once a semester, as compared to the college level, where 64% reported requiring this type of assignment monthly. Starting at the five- to six-page assignment, at least more than half of high school teachers reported

never assigning a writing piece of that length, with the percentage of teachers selecting never increasing as the required page numbers increased (five to six pages = 51%, seven to eight pages = 88%, nine to 10 pages = 92%, 11+ = 97%). At the college level, the five- to six-page paper was reported frequently, with more than half of professors selecting once a semester and 28% selecting once a month. At the seven- to eight-page requirement, if these papers were assigned at the college level, it occurred once a semester (seven to eight pages = 46%, nine to 10 pages = 26%, 11+ = 5%). The data show there was a difference in length requirements between levels when moving to writing assignments longer than five pages (see Table 6 for reported frequencies of Part 3a). Overall, the impression is that college-level students are writing papers of greater length more frequently than are high school students, indicating the sheer volume of writing expected at the college level may pose a barrier to student success.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 3a

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Compose short ungraded pieces of writing							
High school *N* = 100	12%	2%	13%	**42%**	31%	2.78	1.252
College *N* = 100	10%	3%	8%	**53%**	26%	2.82	1.158
Compose a 1- to 2-page graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	5%	14%	**55%**	26%	0%	2.02	.778
College *N* = 99	9%	11%	36%	**39%**	4%	2.18	1.004

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Compose a 3- to -4-page graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	15%	**48%**	36%	0%	1%	1.24	.740
College *N* = 99	10%	23%	**64%**	2%	0%	1.59	.700
Compose a 5- to -6-page graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	**51%**	43%	6%	0%	0%	.55	.609
College *N* = 98	18%	**52%**	28%	0%	0%	1.10	.681
Compose a 7- to -8-page graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	**88%**	10%	2%	0%	0%	.14	.403
College *N* = 97	**48%**	46%	3%	0%	0%	.54	.560
Compose a 9- to -10-page graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	**92%**	7%	1%	0%	0%	.09	.321
College *N* = 96	**70%**	26%	0%	0%	0%	.27	.447
Compose an 11+ graded writing assignment							
High school *N* = 100	**97%**	3%	0%	0%	0%	.03	.171
College *N* = 94	**89%**	5%	0%	0%	0%	.05	.226

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Length of Writing Timeframe. High school teachers asked students to compose a piece of writing in a single setting more often than college professors, as 77% of high school teachers reported doing this practice at least monthly compared with 47% of

college professors. The reports of composing over a week timeframe were similar, with 66% of high school teachers and 62% of college professors selecting once/month or once/week. College professors reported composing over a month time more frequently, with most educators (63%) selecting once/month. At the high school level, 55% of the teachers reported writing over a month timeframe as occurring once a semester (see Table 7 for all reported frequencies for Part 3b). These findings indicate high school teachers are more likely to expect that students compose a piece of writing in a single setting and college professors are more likely to expect that students produce a piece of writing over a month timeframe. It is possible to hypothesize that this difference is directly related to the amount of time teachers have for writing instruction, because in a composition class, writing is the primary focus, whereas high school English teachers are required to provide extensive reading instruction as well. Another possible explanation is that high school teachers are influenced by standardized exams, which ask students to produce writing in a single sitting. This difference in timeframe expectations may indicate differences in a process approach to writing as well.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 3b

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Compose a piece of writing in a single setting							
High school *N* = 100	10%	13%	28%	**32%**	17%	2.33	1.198
College *N* = 98	**34%**	17%	16%	26%	5%	1.50	1.341
Compose a piece of writing over a week timeframe							

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
High school *N* = 100	5%	28%	**57%**	9%	1%	1.73	.737
College *N* = 98	21%	14%	**39%**	23%	1%	1.68	1.090
Compose a piece of writing over a month timeframe							
High school *N* = 100	31%	**55%**	13%	0%	1%	.85	.716
College *N* = 98	6%	27%	**63%**	1%	1%	1.63	.664

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Audience. Of the four provided options for intended audience, high school teachers reported instructor as the intended audience more frequently (*M* = 2.19) than did college professors (*M* = 1.86), whereas the college professors reported peer audience (*M* = 1.93), audience as self (*M* = 1.70), and outside audience (*M* = 1.55) more often than did high school teachers (*M* = 1.45, *M* = 1.38, *M* = 1.08, respectively; see Table 8 for all reported frequencies for Part 3c). For this category, some scores seemed to be distributed relatively standardly, with the standard deviation close to 1 for both the peer and outside audience categories. One area that appeared particularly divisive within level taught was the audience as self. At the high school level, 50% reported never and 30% reported at least weekly. Similarly, at the college level, 35% reported never and 37% reported weekly or daily. Earlier research showed the primary audience for both high school (Applebee & Langer, 2011) and college (Melzer, 2009) was teacher-as-examiner; as such, the more frequent reports of peer audience at the college level may reflect a shift from previous expectations.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 3c

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is the instructor							
High school *N* = 100	15%	15%	24%	**28%**	18%	2.19	1.316
College *N* = 98	19%	20%	**29%**	20%	12%	1.86	1.279
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is peers							
High school *N* = 100	20%	**35%**	29%	12%	4%	1.45	1.067
College *N* = 100	14%	15%	**37%**	32%	2%	1.93	1.057
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is oneself							
High school *N* = 100	**50%**	14%	6%	8%	22%	1.38	1.656
College *N* = 100	**35%**	11%	17%	23%	14%	1.70	1.494
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience goes beyond that of the classroom							
High school *N* = 100	26%	**51%**	14%	7%	2%	1.08	.929
College *N* = 100	13%	**37%**	36%	10%	4%	1.55	.978

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Utilized Writing Activities. To analyze the 15 writing activity items in this section of the survey, I created four subcategories of (a) instructional methods, (b)

strategies, (c) motivation and assessment, and (d) language to better think about the items as they theoretically relate to each other. In the table for these data (see Table 9), however, I chose to keep the items organized as they were originally presented in the survey so the reader may experience the items in the same order as the participants.

Instructional Methods. Across levels, educators documented using writing as a tool for subject-matter learning, with more than half of high school teachers and college professors noting they asked students to do this weekly or daily. Additionally, high school teachers and college professors often used a process approach to writing instruction, as 78% of high school teachers and 92% of college professors reported using this approach at least monthly. Of note, more than half of the college writing professors selected that they used this approach daily. Both groups also reported using direct instruction methods such as modeling, guided practice, and review, as 78% of high school teachers and 72% of college professors selected that they used this approach weekly or daily. Educators also reported having students collaborate when writing, though when comparing the means for these items, this collaboration was reported occurring less frequently than direct instruction techniques (high school direct instruction $M = 3.07$, college direct instruction $M = 2.87$, high school collaboration $M = 1.88$, college collaboration $M = 2.25$). Most (50%) of the high school teachers selected using this collaboration method monthly, whereas the majority of college professors (42%) selected using this method weekly. Educators also answered an item related to how often students study and emulate models of good writing. High school teachers and college professors both selected once/month most often (37% and 40%, respectively). When asked about the use of prewriting activities, over half of both the high school and college educators

selected using this activity weekly or daily. These similarities in instructional methods are important when thinking about the expectations (and impact of such expectations) of high school and college educators. There is the potential for great variability in literacy practices across communities and institutions (Gee, 2013; Heath, 1983; Kwok et al., 2016), and it is through examination of these practices that one can determine the specific values that school sponsors. Therefore, the similar approaches to writing instruction as found in this research are significant, for though this research documented contextual differences that existed between secondary and postsecondary institutions, the fact that both institutions drew on familiar practices for teaching writing pinpoints a common ground.

Strategy Instruction. Four items asked educators about the specific use of strategies for planning, revising, editing, and summarizing reading material. When comparing means, college professors cited using planning and revision strategies more frequently than did high school teachers (high school planning $M = 2.56$, college planning $M = 2.90$, high school revising $M = 2.32$, college revising $M = 2.63$), whereas high school teachers selected using editing and summarizing strategies more frequently than did college professors (high school editing $M = 2.31$, college editing $M = 2.25$, high school summarizing $M = 2.35$, college summarizing $M = 1.93$). Examined together, educators reported using teaching strategies for planning and revising more often than they did for editing and summarizing. Aside from the college professors' reported frequency on the use of summarizing strategies (34% reporting once/semester), the majority of the educators reported using these strategies monthly or weekly, highlighting that high school teachers and college professors expect strategy application for students,

particularly in the areas of planning and revising, as part of the cultural norms of the communities.

Motivation and Assessment. Across levels, educators often establish clear goals for writing assignments. At the high school level, 28% cited establishing goals monthly, 41% weekly, and 21% daily. Similarly, at the college level, 32% reported establishing goals monthly, 41% weekly, and 23% daily. Seventy-four percent of high school teachers and 62% of college professors reported having students use self-monitoring strategies to monitor their writing performance and writing goals monthly or weekly. Educators also documented frequently providing students with verbal praise when they write, with 80% of high school teachers and 60% of college professors reporting providing praise at least weekly. The findings related to motivation are interesting when thinking about the data in relationship to the CCSS. One of the primary concerns with the CCSS is that the standards lack components of writing instruction associated with evidence-based best practices (i.e., goal setting, self-efficacy; Troia et al., 2016). Despite the fact that these practices are not included in the standards, this research showed goal setting and self-efficacy practices were reported as occurring often in both high school and college settings.

Grammar. Two items asked specifically about language instruction, both of which highlighted differences at the different levels. Seventy-eight percent of the high school teachers reported teaching grammar at least monthly, with almost half reporting teaching grammar at least weekly. In contrast, 52% of college professors reported teaching grammar at least monthly, with only 16% reporting teaching grammar at least weekly. Of note, 28% of college professors cited never teaching grammar. When asked

more narrowly about a specific grammar topic, teaching students how to write complex sentences using sentence combining procedures, there was again a difference. High school teachers reported using this strategy once a semester (27%), monthly (32%), and weekly (25%). Of the college professors, 34% selected once a semester and 18% selected monthly, but the largest percentage of college professors reported never using this strategy (39%). The results of these survey items reflect a notable difference in the emphasis on grammar across levels. This difference may be reflective of the different developmental stages of writing growth (Graham, 2019).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Survey Part 4

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Teach strategies for planning how or what to write							
High school *N* = 100	0%	12%	31%	**46%**	11%	2.56	.845
College *N* = 99	0%	5%	21%	**52%**	21%	2.90	.789
Teach strategies for revising written material							
High school *N* = 100	0%	10%	**50%**	38%	2%	2.32	.680
College *N* = 100	0%	4%	38%	**49%**	9%	2.63	.706
Teach strategies for editing written material							
High school *N* = 100	0%	13%	**47%**	36%	4%	2.31	.748
College *N* = 99	1%	13%	**52%**	26%	7%	2.25	.812
Teach strategies for summarizing reading materials							

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
High school *N* = 100	4%	15%	**37%**	30%	14%	2.35	1.029
College *N* = 100	2%	34%	**37%**	23%	4%	1.93	.902
Establish specific goals for what students are to include in their written assignments							
High school *N* = 100	0%	10%	28%	**41%**	21%	2.73	.908
College *N* = 100	0%	4%	32%	**41%**	23%	2.83	.829
Have students collaborate when writing (students work together to plan, draft, revise, and edit)							
High school *N* = 100	10%	18%	**50%**	18%	4%	1.88	.956
College *N* = 100	8%	11%	34%	**42%**	5%	2.25	.999
Teach students how to write complex sentences using sentence combining procedures							
High school *N* = 100	10%	27%	**32%**	25%	6%	1.90	1.078
College *N* = 100	**39%**	34%	18%	5%	4%	1.01	1.068
Have students engage in prewriting activities (i.e., reading and completing a graphic organizer) to help them gather and organize possible writing ideas							
High school *N* = 100	0%	15%	27%	**41%**	17%	2.60	.943
College *N* = 100	6%	6%	37%	**41%**	10%	2.43	.967
Use a process approach to writing instruction							

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
High school *N* = 100	5%	17%	**32%**	24%	22%	2.41	1.156
College *N* = 99	4%	3%	11%	28%	**53%**	3.24	1.041
Have students study and emulate/imitate models of good writing							
High school *N* = 100	4%	19%	**37%**	29%	11%	2.24	1.016
College *N* = 100	12%	8%	**40%**	30%	10%	2.18	1.114
Have students use writing as a tool for subject-matter learning							
High school *N* = 100	12%	8%	**30%**	22%	28%	2.46	1.306
College *N* = 99	16%	9%	**27%**	26%	21%	2.27	1.339
Have students use self-monitoring strategies to monitor their writing performance and writing goals (i.e., rubrics or checklists)							
High school *N* = 100	3%	11%	**43%**	31%	12%	2.38	.940
College *N* = 100	13%	7%	**35%**	27%	18%	2.30	1.227
Provide students verbal praise when they write							
High school *N* = 100	4%	4%	12%	32%	**48%**	3.16	1.051
College *N* = 99	10%	4%	25%	**33%**	27%	2.64	1.216
Use direct instruction methods (modeling, guided practice, and review)							
High school *N* = 100	1%	4%	17%	**43%**	35%	3.07	.879

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
College *N* = 100	4%	4%	20%	**45%**	27%	2.87	.991
Teach grammar							
High school *N* = 100	10%	11%	**31%**	28%	20%	2.37	1.212
College *N* = 100	28%	20%	**36%**	9%	7%	1.47	1.193

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Use of Digital Technologies. Eighty-two percent of high school teachers and 90% of college professors reported having students complete writing activities using word processing software (i.e., Microsoft Word) at least weekly, and nearly half of the educators in both groups reported using this activity daily. Educators in both groups noted asking students to edit or revise their own work using word processing software or a collaborative web-based tool (i.e., Google Docs) more frequently than asking students to edit others' work in this way. At the high school level, 33% of teachers asked students to revise their own work through word processing software monthly, 25% weekly, and 29% daily. Similarly, at the college level, 34% of educators did this activity monthly, 33% weekly, and 23% daily. When asked about using word processing software to edit others' work, most high school teachers used this activity once a semester (22%) or once a month (44%), whereas 57% of college professors reported monthly. All of the data regarding the use of word processing software should be regarded cautiously, as Applebee and Langer (2011) previously found teachers may overestimate how often students are asked to produce writing using word processing software. Additionally, 77% of high school teachers and 90% of college professors noted asking students to research information online at least once a month. The least frequently reported activities in this

section of the survey were “Digitally share their work to a larger audience” and “Produce digital texts that utilize more than one mode.” At least half of both levels of educators reported never asking students to digitally share their work to a larger audience. High school teachers asked students to produce multimodal texts more frequently than did college professors. For high school teachers, 14% never assigned a multimodal text, whereas 37% did once a semester, 35% did once a month, 8% did once a week, and 5% did daily. For college professors, 27% never assigned a multimodal text, whereas 51% did once a semester, 15% did once a month, 6% did once a week, and 1% did daily (see Table 10 for all reported frequencies for Part 5). These results show, as was anticipated, an increased use of word processing software for writing as well as editing work when compared with earlier research; however, the results also show similarly infrequent use of multimodal text creation (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Purcell et al., 2013). The fact that the high school teachers were asking students to compose multimodal texts more often than the college professors highlights that the definitions of “what counts” (Alvermann, 2003) as writing may be evolving differently at both levels.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 5

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Complete writing assignments using word processing software (i.e., Microsoft Word)							
High school *N* = 100	3%	4%	11%	35%	**47%**	3.19	.992
College *N* = 100	2%	0%	8%	41%	**49%**	3.35	.796
Research information online							
High school *N* = 100	2%	21%	33%	**36%**	8%	2.27	.952
College *N* = 100	0%	10%	31%	**43%**	16%	2.65	.869
Digitally share their work to a larger audience (i.e., on a website, wiki, or blog)							
High school *N* = 100	**55%**	25%	11%	8%	1%	.75	1.009
College *N* = 100	**50%**	26%	8%	11%	5%	.95	1.218
Edit or revise their own work using word processing software or collaborative web-based tool (i.e., Google Docs)							
High school *N* = 100	2%	11%	**33%**	25%	29%	2.68	1.072
College *N* = 100	6%	4%	**34%**	33%	23%	2.63	1.070
Edit others' work or give others feedback using word processing software or collaborative web-based tool (i.e., Google Docs)							

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
High school *N* = 100	13%	22%	**44%**	18%	3%	1.76	.996
College *N* = 100	12%	7%	**57%**	17%	7%	2.00	1.005
Produce digital texts that utilize more than one mode (i.e., audio, image, video, and text)							
High school *N* = 100	14%	**37%**	35%	8%	5%	1.53	1.003
College *N* = 100	27%	**51%**	15%	6%	1%	1.03	.870

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Research Practices. For each item in this section, with the exception of "Drawing evidence from literary and informational texts to support writing," the college professors reported using the research practice more frequently than the high school teachers (see Table 11 for all reported frequencies for Part 6). When asked about frequency of engagement in research writing activities, nearly half of the high school teachers selected never or once/semester whereas 80% of the college professors encouraged students to engage in research activities at least monthly. Though the prevalence of research writing at the college level has been well-documented (Addison & McGee, 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014; Melzer, 2009; Yancey, 2009a), the discrepancy in reported frequency between levels was surprising. Because research is emphasized in the CCSS, I anticipated that high school teachers would report drawing on research practices more often than the data from the survey revealed.

In terms of specific research practices, 91% of high school teachers and 86% of college professors asked students to draw evidence from texts to support their writing at least monthly. College professors asked students to gather relevant information from

multiple authoritative digital sources more frequently than did high school teachers, with 55% of high school teachers and 78% of college professors asking students to do this exercise at least monthly, yet collectively, this particular item was reported as occurring less frequently than most of the others in this section. Of all the items in this section, educators from both groups reported asking students to assess the strengths and limitations of each source least often. For high school teachers, 11% never asked students to assess the strengths and limitations of each source, 37% asked students to do this activity once a semester, and 37% once a month. Of the college professors, 24% asked students to do this activity once a semester, 38% once a month, and 25% weekly. Occurring more frequently, 70% of high school teachers and 88% of college professors asked students to integrate their own ideas with the ideas of others at least monthly. Similarly, 72% of high school teachers and 90% of college professors asked students to follow a standard format for citations at least monthly.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 6

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
Engage in inquiry/research writing activities							
High school *N* = 100	6%	**43%**	38%	8%	5%	1.63	.906
College *N* = 100	0%	20%	**44%**	22%	14%	2.30	.948
Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support writing							
High school *N* = 100	1%	8%	18%	**37%**	36%	2.99	.980

Level	Never	Once/ Semester	Once/ Month	Once/ Week	Daily	*M*	*SD*
College *N* = 99	2%	11%	**44%**	28%	14%	2.41	.937
Gather relevant information from multiple authoritative digital sources							
High school *N* = 99	7%	**37%**	**37%**	14%	4%	1.71	.940
College *N* = 99	1%	21%	**43%**	27%	8%	2.20	.899
Assess the strengths and limitations of each source							
High school *N* = 100	11%	**37%**	**37%**	11%	4%	1.60	.964
College *N* = 100	2%	24%	**38%**	25%	11%	2.19	.992
Integrate own ideas with the ideas of others in writing							
High school *N* = 99	6%	23%	**34%**	22%	14%	2.15	1.119
College *N* = 100	0%	12%	**35%**	33%	20%	2.61	.942
Follow a standard format for citations							
High school *N* = 100	8%	20%	**31%**	15%	26%	2.31	1.277
College *N* = 100	1%	9%	**37%**	31%	22%	2.64	.959

Note. Highest reported frequency for each group of educators is bolded for each item.

Good Writing. On the Good Writing portion of the survey, I asked educators to select the five most important characteristics of "good" writing (see Table 12 for frequencies of selected/not selected for each characteristic). Here, I have organized these by decreasing percentage. The percentage represents the number of teachers at the specified level who selected that particular trait. For high school, the results were

organize ideas logically (84%); develop a main idea (64%); use supporting evidence appropriately (62%); write appropriately for different purposes (46%); synthesize information from multiple sources (42%); analyze data/ideas/arguments (39%); use correct grammar and syntax (38%); write appropriately for different audiences (35%); appropriately use, cite, and document sources (23%); quote and paraphrase appropriately (20%); employ correct mechanics (e.g., spelling; 16%); use paragraphs appropriately (16%); record data and/or use detail (5%); and other (5%). For the five participants who chose to write in their own answers, coded fill-in responses were elaboration (1 participant), focusing on a central assertion (1 participant), connecting/collaborating with others (1 participant), using syntactical structures for purpose (1 participant), and voice (1 participant). Despite the fact that the fill-ins were qualitative data, I chose to include this information here as it is most relevant to the findings of Part 7 of the survey.

For college, the results were write appropriately for different purposes (72%); organize ideas logically (70%); use supporting evidence appropriately (65%); write appropriately for different audiences (63%); develop a main idea (57%); synthesize information from multiple sources (44%); analyze data/ideas/arguments (34%); appropriately use, cite, and document sources (27%); use correct grammar and syntax (15%); other (15%); use paragraphs appropriately (11%); quote and paraphrase appropriately (9%); employ correct mechanics (e.g., spelling; 6%); and record data and/or use detail (5%). For the 15 participants who selected other and chose to write in their own answers, coded responses included having self-directed purpose (2 participants); metacognitive awareness and reflection (3 participants); rhetorical awareness of genre, audience, purpose, and/or modality (6 participants); incorporation of non-word media (1

participant); voice (1 participant); effectively showing/expressing ideas (1 participant); and developing own process (1 participant).

Of interest, although appearing in a different order, four of the top five for each level overlapped: organize ideas logically, develop a main idea, use supporting evidence appropriately, and write appropriately for different purposes. Thus, though there was variability, the overlap of selected characteristics indicates that perhaps there is less ambiguity regarding the elements of "good" writing than previously suggested in the research (e.g., Appleman & Green, 1993).

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Survey Part 7

Level	Selected	Not selected
Write appropriately for different audiences.		
High school	35%	65%
College	**63%**	37%
Write appropriately for different purposes.		
High school	**46%**	54%
College	**72%**	28%
Organize ideas logically.		
High school	**84%**	16%
College	**70%**	30%
Develop a main idea.		
High school	**64%**	36%
College	**57%**	43%
Use paragraphs appropriately.		
High school	16%	84%
College	11%	89%
Use supporting evidence appropriately.		
High school	**62%**	38%
College	**65%**	35%

Level	Selected	Not selected
Analyze data/ideas/arguments.		
High school	39%	61%
College	34%	66%
Synthesize information from multiple sources.		
High school	**42%**	58%
College	44%	56%
Appropriately use, cite, and document sources		
High school	23%	77%
College	27%	73%
Quote and paraphrase appropriately.		
High school	20%	80%
College	9%	91%
Record data and/or use detail		
High school	5%	95%
College	5%	95%
Use correct grammar and syntax		
High school	38%	62%
College	15%	85%
Employ correct mechanics (e.g., spelling)		
High school	16%	84%
College	6%	94%
Other.		
High school	5%	95%
College	15%	85%

Note. Top five selected characteristics for each group are bolded.

Section Summary. In summary, the descriptive survey results provided an overview of the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators. Analysis of the survey items indicated potential areas of overlap and contrast between high school and college. Similarities in expectations included the most frequently reported purposes with educators across levels asking students to write arguments most frequently, followed by informational texts and then narratives. This emphasis on argument highlights a shift

from previous research and a possible effect of the CCSS (Addison & McGee, 2016). A second area of overlap was with cited writing practices, as educators across levels reported often using a process approach to writing, direct instruction, collaboration, strategy application, clear assignment goals, and verbal praise. This common use of practices is significant because it demonstrates common cultural values across contexts (Gee, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016).

A third area of overlap relates to the use of digital technologies for writing instruction. The overwhelming majority of educators at both levels had students use word processing software weekly while also reporting that they frequently used word processing software to have students edit their own work and the work of others. However, educators at both levels reported digitally sharing student work to a larger audience and producing multimodal texts as occurring less frequently, suggesting that though there is a noted increase in the use of technology for writing, this may not be transformative in terms of expectations. A final notable area of overlap related to the characteristics of "good" writing. When asked to select the most important elements of good writing, high school teachers chose organize ideas logically, develop a main idea, use supporting evidence appropriately, write appropriately for different purposes, and synthesize information from multiple sources most often. College professors selected write appropriately for different purposes, organize ideas logically, use supporting evidence appropriately, write appropriately for different audiences, and develop a main idea. Thus, there was significant overlap between the top selected traits for both levels, which is significant because it showed the expectations for what makes a piece of writing "good" have commonalities across levels.

Despite these areas of overlap, the survey data also revealed areas of contrast. First, in terms of the writing process, the data revealed notable differences in length of assignments, length of writing timeframe, and audience. Specifically, more than half of high school teachers never assigned a paper five to six pages or longer, whereas at the college level, five- to six-page papers were often assigned at least once a semester. High school teachers asked students to compose writing in a single setting more often than did college professors, whereas college professors reported asking students to compose over a month timeframe more often than did high school teachers. High school teachers reported asking students to compose a piece of writing with the instructor as the intended audience most frequently, whereas the college professors reported using peer audiences most frequently. These differences in length, timeframe, and audience pinpoint possible barriers for students as they cross the boundary from high school to college, as the expectations in each context differ.

A second area of divergence related to the frequency of grammar instruction. High school teachers reported teaching grammar more often than did college professors. This difference in emphasis could represent differences in the development level of the writers or more global differences with high school teachers taking a more prescriptive approach to grammar instruction than college professors. The last notable difference in the descriptive statistics related to research practices. Overall, college professors documented using research practices more frequently than did high school teachers. Collectively, educators at both levels asked students to draw evidence to support their writing, integrate their ideas with the ideas of others, and follow a standard format more frequently than gathering relevant information from multiple digital sources and

evaluating the strengths and limitations of these sources. The infrequency of research practices at the high school level was unanticipated, as the CCSS place a strong emphasis on research. Taken together, the descriptive statistics offer a general picture of potential overlap and divergence in expectations across levels.

Qualitative

In analyzing the interview responses from the high school English teachers and college composition professors, I identified three major themes that addressed the first research question: What are the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators? These themes included (a) definitions of "good" writing are fluid, (b) writing is a process where teachers have a defined role, and (c) teachers rely on a wide range of interactive practices to teach writing.

Definitions of "Good" Writing Are Fluid. When asked to define writing, both high school English teachers and college composition professors emphasized the importance of expression and communication. At the high school level, teachers defined writing as "expression on paper," the ability to "express their [the students'] ideas about a subject or a question," "an ability where somebody . . . is able to express themselves critically and effectively," "the process of getting your ideas on paper, and ultimately leading it to some organized format," and "written communication of ideas." In these initial definitions, high school teachers articulated the importance of expressing ideas clearly, suggesting the primary expectation of writing is clear communication. Also of interest is that two of these teachers included the word "paper" in their definitions, implying a very traditional use of the term "writing." Each of the five high school educators then went on to define writing in terms of traditional academic genres, with

four of the five interviewees comparing narrative and argument to illustrate their definitions. Participant D, for example, maintained that the definition of writing depends on the type of writing. She stated, "If it's more of a narrative, they're able to express the point of what they're feeling . . . If it's more like argumentative, or like rhetorical or synthesis . . . they're critically analyzing and establishing their point." Though only one high school educator used the word "purpose" specifically, it was evident that for these high school teachers, definitions of writing were closely tied to the purposes of traditional academic writing genres and the way in which people express their ideas through writing depends on the purpose of these genres. As such, it can be inferred from these participants' descriptions that high school writing expectations are directly tied to relatively narrow school-based literacy practices, reiterating a limited view of what counts as academic writing (Alvermann, 2003; Freedman et al., 2016; Gee & Hayes, 2011; Graham & Perin, 2007; Kwok et al., 2016; Street, 2009).

At the college level, professors defined writing as "communicating through a written medium," "inventing ideas and communicating those ideas," "a documentation process," "putting words down in a readable form," and "putting your ideas out into the world." Similar to the high school teachers, there was an emphasis here on the communication of ideas. Two of the college educators then went on to articulate that writing goes beyond traditional academic definitions. When defining writing, Participant F stated she tried to communicate to students that writing is not just an essay, as writing also happens beyond the academic setting (e.g., a text message, a grocery list, a note on a Post-it) across multiple modes (e.g., pencil and paper or phone). A second college educator also referenced students texting their friends as a form of writing, echoing

Participant F's sentiment to show students they are using writing in their everyday lives already and success in writing requires learning the conventions of the particular task. For these two participants, this connection to students' outside writing lives suggested an awareness that students have and can draw from outside of school writing practices (Alvermann, 2008).

When asked to consider what "good" writing looks like, educators across levels universally maintained that "it depends," highlighting a fluidity in expectations. During the course of the 10 interviews, the word "depends" and its derivatives were used over 20 times. For high school teachers, "good" writing depended on grade level, time of year, ability of students, duration of the writing activity, and the task at hand. For college professors, it depended primarily on the rhetorical situation: genre, audience, and purpose.

High school English teachers emphasized how definitions of "good" writing can shift and evolve. For example, Participant B, who worked in a private high school that was mission-driven toward low-income families, described her evolving definition of "good" writing for her ninth-grade students, arguing that "good" writing "the first day of school is not what [she] would consider what is good the last day of school." On day one, she defined "good" writing as writing a clear sentence, yet by the end of freshman year, greater sophistication was expected (e.g., mastery of the five-paragraph model, citations, control of capitalization and basic punctuation, and sentence variety). This evolution of what is deemed "good" highlights the fluidity of writing expectations across a single teacher over a single year at the high school level, suggesting a developmental approach to writing instruction that increases in complexity (Graham, 2019) and revealing that to

be successful, students must be able to keep up with changing expectations. Participant B later went on to state that she valued these aspects because she was dealing with freshmen specifically, but that when she taught seniors her definition of "good" writing was different as well. Though Participant B was the only high school teacher to speak to how the definition of "good" writing evolved over the course of the school year, other teachers did speak to how the definition of "good" writing evolved from freshman year to senior year, where, as Participant D noted, the rigor "goes up progressively," language that can be directly tied to the CCSS (Graham & Harris, 2013).

Additionally, all five high school educators spoke to how expectations of "good" writing depend on the abilities of the students. Throughout the interviews, teachers mentioned that for lower-level students, "good" writing includes complete sentences and is understandable. Yet, for high-level students, "good" writing includes greater attention to patterns, purpose, style, and synthesis. Participant A, who had taught ninth grade, 10th grade, and 11th grade English courses during her 18 years of teaching, spoke directly to these differing standards:

> And good writing . . . I mean, I don't think they're there yet . . . I've always taught the foundations and the standard courses . . . So good for me is if they can follow the rubric, and that I walked away from it . . . understanding what their thought process was and what kind of conclusions that they had drawn . . . As far as good writing, per se, now outside of my classroom, that's a whole different conversation.

Here, Participant A's language of "good for me" demonstrated an understanding of the fluid nature of "good" writing and the highly contextualized nature of this term. The

teachers at the high school level revealed that expectations for "good" writing shifted based on students' abilities, a concept that was absent from the college conversations, despite college educators talking about the wide range of student ability that can be in any one class.

Though the interviews with the high school teachers demonstrated the evolutionary nature of the expectations associated with "good" writing based on grade and student ability, teacher responses did highlight two main components: clear communication of the topic and reliance on textual evidence for support. High school teachers reported that "good" writing "clearly communicate[s]," provides a "clear answer," allows the teacher to walk away with an "understanding" of the students' thought process, and "makes sense." These expectations of "good" writing then align with the teachers' definitions of writing, as they center on the ability to effectively express ideas.

Additionally, each of the five high school teachers stressed the importance of textual evidence for a piece of writing to be deemed "good." The proper use of textual evidence was the greatest cited element of "good" writing by high school teachers. The teachers spoke of the importance of evidence selection skills (e.g., what is "good" evidence, what is "bad" evidence, when to quote, when to paraphrase), the amount of evidence needed, and the challenge of synthesis for students. In these conversations, teachers revealed what may be considered arbitrary writing rules, such as Participant E, who stated,

> You have to have multiple pieces of different evidence for each of your points. Basically, what I tell them is you're going to have to support anything you say

> with evidence and examples . . . I can prove almost anything with one point. So you got to give me at least two and you have to make sure it's clear to the reader why you picked that quote.

This concept of needing a specific number of pieces of evidence for support was mentioned by teachers from different grades and states, highlighting the sense that "good" writing can be achieved by including required elements. The commentary about evidence throughout supports that a major expectation of writing at the high school level is that student ideas are supported with outside evidence in the form of direct quotes or paraphrasing, which aligns with the language and expectations found in the CCSS. Interestingly, though the word "evidence" was used over 20 times in the high school teacher interviews, it appeared only once in the college professor transcripts.

At the college level, the expectations of "good" writing also "depended," but instead of speaking about grade level or ability, college professors emphasized that "good" writing depended on the rhetorical nature of the task. Participant G, who taught composition one and composition two at her institution, argued that "good" writing "depends on the genre of writing. It depends on the audience. It depends on the purpose." Each of the five college educators emphasized that "good" writing achieves the purpose of the task. Through this lens, other aspects of writing, such as grammar or organization, are not valued individually, but rather as a means to an end, specifically a means to meeting the purpose. This concept was illustrated through Participant F's commentary on "good" writing:

> I can teach you those mechanics of writing . . . but that's not what I focus on. I'm much more focused on the rhetorical situation and audience and purpose. And

> when I think about language, I'm thinking about the effectiveness of language in relation to audience and purpose. So if we're communicating to a bunch of surfer dudes, right, it might be appropriate to use a more informal writing style. As opposed to a professional report for a class, right? And so as far as like, good writing goes . . . it has a clear sense of purpose, and it achieves whatever that purpose is. So if it's persuasive, it makes me believe that or if it's informative, I've learned something.

Here, Participant F articulated clearly what all of the other professors suggested—expectations for "good" writing are guided by the idea that "good" writing achieves the desired purpose. Writing elements such as grammar, structure, and language are dependent on purpose and are tools that can be used to meet a particular purpose. Yet, it is important to note here that Participant F was the only professor to consider this concept with an example of outside of school writing (i.e., communicating with surfers) as well. The rest of the professors spoke only to this concept in terms of traditional academic genres (i.e., narrative, argument). This connection between expectations for "good" writing and purpose is interesting, as educators most often are the ones who set the purpose of the writing assignments, focusing on narrow, specialized writing genres of school and, as such, the expectations hinge on these limited purposes and genres (Applebee & Langer, 2009; Bazerman, 2016).

Beyond achieving the purpose, college composition professors emphasized that "good" writing is rooted in good ideas. Though the high school teachers articulated a need for textual evidence, three of the five college professors voiced a need for complex thinking. Participant J, who taught middle school before moving to the college level,

boiled it down simply: “The ideas make it good.” Similarly, Participant H stated that for him, good writing has a controlling idea that is developed throughout a paper, emphasizing the importance of the “consistency of that idea.” Along this same vein, Participant I, who ran the composition program at a community college, said, “What would like really impress me is a demonstration of a depth of thinking . . . something that shows that the student is like really engaging with whatever they’re writing about.” For Participant I, this depth meant going beyond rote essay formats to really explore complex ways of thinking. The college educators’ emphasis on critical thinking stands in contrast to the high school teachers’ emphasis on a “correct” amount of evidence to support a point.

In summary, the high school teachers and college composition professors interviewed defined writing as the communication of ideas. Yet, for the participants in this study, there was no universal, single quality of “good” writing. Instead, throughout the interviews, the idea that “good” writing “depends” was reiterated. For the high school participants, “good” writing depended on grade level and student ability. For the college participants, “good” writing depended on the rhetorical situation. This fluidity of expectations reflects a possible area of tension for students, as what is “good” in one context is not necessarily “good” in another. This tension reiterates the importance of the role of the educator in shaping writing expectations, as it is the educator who models the norms of how writers speak, act, write, read, and think and allows students insight into what it means to be an insider in each respective learning community (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006).

Writing is a Process and Teachers Have a Defined Role. All of the high school teachers and college professors stated or implied taking a process approach to writing instruction and defined their role as a teacher accordingly. When asked to define their role as a writing teacher, the high school teacher responses fell into two categories: expert or guide. Participant B stated, "With freshmen, my role is specific. I see myself in the classroom as having to be their authority." Participant D stated, "My role is to make sure that the kids are . . . able to reach the standards." Here, both teachers defined their role as a writing teacher as an expert, a keeper of correctness and of the standards. Juxtaposed with these definitions of roles were the commentaries of the other three high school teachers. These teachers viewed their role from a more collaborative position, as they stated "my role is initially sort of as a guide," "to take them from where they are and improve their abilities," and "to encourage them to write . . . and then to improve their writing, from where they are." Instead of defining their position as that of expert, these teachers emphasized their responsibility to help students develop as writers while meeting them at their current developmental level. This distinction between educators informed later commentary on the writing process. Participant B, a teacher who defined her role as expert, argued that by the end of freshman year students had "mastered" the five-paragraph model. Conversely, Participant E, a teacher who defined her role as more of a guide, maintained that when dealing with writing, "you can't ever perfect it, so therefore everybody can grow." In these two examples, there seemed to be a connection between how teachers defined their role and what they imagined the end result of the writing process to be, which would then affect expectations for writing.

All five of the college professors interviewed fell into the guide category. Self-descriptions included "experienced friend" and "coach," centering on the need to help students "develop as writers" instead of "telling them what they're doing wrong." More specifically, Participant F drew on a more complex metaphor of a Sherpa, a person known for their skill in navigating the Himalayas:

> My role as a writing instructor is Sherpa. Sherpa is a word that like comes from people climbing up the Himalayan Mountains, which is really challenging for so many reasons. Physically, it's very challenging. And there are things that you have to learn, right? So in terms of a teacher, there is knowledge that I know that I have, that I have to communicate. If I don't communicate that knowledge, then I'm not doing my job, and my students will not be able to do their job. But it's not just like, here's transformation of information. We got to get up this frickin' mountain. A lot of it is cheerleading.

In her response, Participant F highlighted that her job was twofold. First, she needed to provide students with the knowledge needed to complete a complex task. Then, she must support the students in actually completing the task. Each of these instructors upholds a supporting role in the writing process, guiding students through a difficult task. Though many instructors, as was illustrated in Participant F's quote above, acknowledged that they must provide students with knowledge in order for the students to be successful, the emphasis was more on the support provided than on the transfer of expert information. (Bazerman, 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Prior, 2006).

The high school teachers interviewed commented on the importance of students understanding that writing is a process, which can be challenging because, according to

Participant C, “The number one struggle I think students have with writing is they think that when they write something, it should be perfect the first time.” Thus, drawing on a process approach can highlight for students that immediate mastery is not expected, but rather writing is crafted over time through a process of drafting and revising. To implement the process approach, two of the high school teachers spoke specifically to how they broke the assignment down into gradable parts that highlighted different aspects of the process (e.g., picking a topic, writing an outline), which, as Participant B stated, mandated students’ use of “time management.” Other teachers placed value on the process approach by prioritizing the collection of drafts and providing students with revision exercises to reiterate the importance of process. As such, the process approach to writing directly influenced high school teachers’ expectations in terms of how writing was assigned and graded (Alvermann, 2003; Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013).

Yet, despite the universally described importance of a process approach, teachers also documented two main obstacles to the process approach in the high school classroom, resistance to writing and time, additional factors that would shape teacher expectations. Three of the high school teachers commented on students’ resistance to write. Participant A stated, “So, a lot of our students are scared to write. They don’t write. They don’t like writing. They’re uncomfortable. They want a yes or no answer.” Participant E stated, “Writing is the one thing they don’t want to do.” Similarly, Participant C said, “They’re not big fans of writing drafts. They kind of hate brainstorming. So for me, it’s a lot of pulling teeth and getting them to understand that it is a process and it should take a lot of effort.” Student resistance to writing in the first place makes it difficult for teachers to gain student buy-in for a process approach. These

quotes show that for these teachers, a lack of student comfort with writing and a lack of student interest in writing create obstacles when planning instruction, which arguably would affect expectations.

Additionally, every one of the high school teachers noted the limitations of time, particularly with even further time restraints due to COVID. Participant A articulated why the process approach is challenging:

> So, you know, if you spend a lot of time writing, like let's say that I want my students to write an essay, and I want it to be a good essay, right? Then first . . . they have to brainstorm. Then they have to, you know, write their essay. Then they have to get someone to read the essay. Then after they edit their own essay . . . So then that took up a whole week of instruction, where I'm supposed to be teaching rigorous texts and making sure they understand that it can answer the subjective multiple-choice questions.

Here, Participant A argued that her curriculum and her school's emphasis on what is prioritized in the state testing limited how often she could dedicate the time necessary for a process approach. Consistently, the interviewed high school teachers identified the need for more time to provide adequate instruction using the process approach. Thus, though the fact that teachers valued a process approach was clear from the conversations, the extent to which teachers were able to actually implement this pedagogical belief due to student resistance and pressures of time was unclear. It is logical to conclude, however, that the tension between the desire to use a process approach and factors that limit it would affect teacher expectations.

Like the high school teachers, the college professors noted how they broke assignments into gradable parts to scaffold assignments, highlighted the process approach, and placed values on drafts. Yet, though the high school teachers seemed to be focused on the importance of communicating to students that writing is a process, the college professors instead focused on the individualistic nature of writing processes. Participant H reported emphasizing for students that writing is "not a linear process" and that students need practice in being able to "talk about their own process." This quote echoed Participant G's comment that "the writing process looks so different for different people" and her role was to "demystify writing as much as [she] can." Participant J explained how she did not follow the traditional model of a full draft before the revision process but rather encouraged students to revise the draft in sections as they wrote them because she felt this strategy was less overwhelming and more authentic for students, which was similar to Participant G's commentary regarding her own writing, where she mentioned that for her process, she preferred to revise as she wrote. College educators repeatedly stated they wanted students to feel comfortable in the messiness of the process and to understand that the writing process is difficult, as "all writing is difficult at some point." This emphasis on messiness and the individualistic nature of writing processes contrasts with the more linear approach suggested by the high school teachers, pointing to a possible source of tension for students who may come into college feeling they should move through the writing process in a series of sequential steps.

Unlike the high school teachers, the college professors did not talk about student resistance to writing or lack of time as threats to a process approach. However, Participant I highlighted a noteworthy tension. Though composition classes value a

process approach to writing, other college classes do not. Rather, according to Participant I, the norm in classes outside of composition is that "nobody else requires rough drafts" and some professors refuse to look at drafts, claiming to read "final drafts only." This difference sends mixed messages about the value of a process approach to writing to students and reiterates previous findings regarding the disciplinary differences in writing expectations (e.g., Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012).

In summary, the educators universally endorsed taking a process approach to writing instruction. Two of the high school teachers defined their role in this process as that of an expert, whereas the other three high school teachers and all of the college professors took the approach of guide. The high school teachers spoke to the importance of highlighting for students that writing is a process that takes development, while noting they felt limited in using a process approach because of the constraints of time and student resistance to writing. College educators focused on the individualistic nature of writing processes and tensions that go along with the nonlinear process. These findings are significant, as an educator's definition of the process approach would influence the expectations of that educator in terms of how writing is produced.

Teachers Rely on a Wide Range of Communal Practices to Teach Writing. Throughout the interviews, teachers across both levels cited using a wide range of communal practices to teach writing, which is interesting because it is through these practices that educators communicate their expectations for students and reveal how they expect students to participate in the classroom culture as writers (Bazerman, 2016; Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2016; Prior, 2006). Additionally, these practices are directly shaped by teachers' beliefs and knowledge (Graham & Harris,

2018; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Troia & Graham, 2016). For these 10 participants, the most frequently cited communal practices included teacher feedback, peer review, examination of mentor texts, and model writing.

At the high school level, the English teachers interviewed spoke to the importance of teacher feedback, which aligned with how these teachers defined their role as writing teachers. Participant B, who worked with ninth-grade students, argued for the importance of breaking assignments into sections and then conferencing with all students in the 2 days before each component was due. She either did this check-in quickly, moving from desk to desk, or with small groups of students at a time. Participant B did add, however, that during COVID, when her school was virtual, doing this kind of work through breakout rooms was "really tough" and occurred less frequently than it would during a typical school year. Participant B was the only high school teacher who described doing teacher conferences often. Two of the other teachers mentioned how they would like to do teacher conferences but felt constrained by time and student behavior. Participant D stated,

> I definitely try to read all the stuff beforehand, and then meet with the students one-on-one for 10 minutes and be like, this is what you need to work on . . . but timing can be really tough.

Participant C echoed the concerns of time in the curriculum but added that even though she felt she benefited and was molded into the writer she was today because of conferencing with her former teachers, she felt limited by "today's modern" student behavior (e.g., other students being on their phones or goofing off while she was meeting with one student individually). Thus, this interactive element that many—including the

teacher herself—perceive to be of great value (e.g., Graham & Perin, 2007) may not be perceived as feasible by some, changing the expectations of what writing in the high school classroom can be.

Alternatively, Participant E offered two ways in which she provided feedback to students outside of traditional teacher–student conferences. The first way was "popping in" to the students' Google Docs frequently to offer quick reminders or comments. Additionally, using Google Docs as a tool for teacher feedback opened up waves of communication, as Participant E was not the only one leaving messages. Participant E shared,

> But also I'll get a kid, they'll message me and say, "Can you look at this?" and then they're not coming up to me. It keeps it very confidential between just us. And some kids really feel more comfortable about that.

Interestingly, of the high school teachers interviewed, Participant E was the only one to mention using a digital tool to provide students with feedback. Of course, this observation is not to say these tools were not used by the other high school teachers, but they were absent from the conversation. Another means of teacher feedback that Participant E offered was holistic reading of drafts to determine universal feedback needs. After collecting drafts, Participant E did not provide individualized comments on each student's draft because she felt as if then she would be making the corrections for the students. Instead, she would identify the five to 10 things students in the class as a whole needed the most help with and used this list to guide her revision instruction, walking through errors and examples of how to fix these errors with students. She then assessed students' final drafts based on these specific components. She argued that this

strategy was incredibly beneficial for the students because "instead of [her] just telling them what to fix and them doing it and not getting it, they have to think about what they're fixing." This reported practice demonstrates how teachers communicate expectations to students and how teachers then hold students accountable.

For the college professors interviewed, two of the five stressed the value of the more traditional teacher–student conference. At Participant G's institution, there was a program requirement that teachers conference with students individually at least once a semester. Participant G chose to meet this requirement during the first writing assignment, a literacy narrative. Participant G found this conference to be important for success later in her class because these conferences were "a good way to build rapport with the students," as well as a forum to discuss structure and organization. Participant H stated that he relied on individual student conferences at this point in his career, though he did not do them when he first started. Currently, he held five student conferences throughout the semester. With four classes of 25 students per class, Participant H explained, "That's a lot of time. So I do cancel class that week of conferences." The concerns of time expressed by the high school teachers were reiterated here, but Participant H's ability to cancel class to make time for a strategy he valued highlights a substantial difference in scheduling flexibility at the high school and college levels.

Two of the other professors, Participant F and Participant I, discussed the teacher feedback they gave through endnotes and comments on rough drafts. For Participant I, despite the fact that giving feedback on rough drafts was a "huge time sink," she chose to give feedback this way so she could compare the draft to the final version "side by side" to determine whether students were applying the feedback. This feedback helped to

document the students' process for the instructor, allowing her to see what students were correcting and how, which she prioritized as more important than the time she lost in the practice. Providing students with feedback helped these professors clearly communicate their expectations for writing and their writing knowledge.

All of the high school teachers interviewed stated they used peer review in their classrooms. Of the three who elaborated, two described peer review as a collaborative space to bounce ideas off of each other and really think through the writing at all stages of the writing processes, suggesting the expectation was that writing is a collaborative process. Participant E, for example, physically organized her classroom in a way that allowed for this kind of constant collaboration with peers. She described this setup:

> That's why I keep them in tables of four. So it'll be—share with your table the sentence you're most proud of, or if you're struggling, read your table the sentence and see how you can make it make sense, or just have them read a small section and let them help you out . . . You have readers right around you. Let them give you some input. You don't have to take it, but it can't hurt.

Participant E highlighted here a range of purposes for peer review, such as assistance when struggling but also celebration of work students wanted to share. For Participant A, peer review was an essential part of the brainstorming process, which she argued was the most challenging part of the writing process for her students. She deliberately built in time for talk at the start of each writing unit, providing student partnerships with questions to pose to the writer designed to prod thinking and prepare students to write a draft. Yet, Participant C described peer review from an editing perspective, focusing on editing a final draft's grammar and clarity. She opened student conversation around

corrections with the question, “I know you know what you want it to say, but if someone else reads it, can they understand what it means?” Therefore, though all of the high school teachers used the term peer review in their interviews, there was variability in exactly what each teacher meant by peer review, as was evidenced by the varying examples the teachers provided. There was a wide range of how peer review was used in the writing process (i.e., brainstorming, drafting, editing) and the overall function of the peer work (i.e., to bounce ideas off of each other, to correct each other’s grammar, to celebrate work).

The college professors interviewed also reported relying on peer review as a strategy for writing instruction, though two professors suggested they did less peer review in the last year because of COVID restrictions. Universally, these five professors reported they used peer review for purposes beyond grammatical editing. Participant J, for example, broke all writing assignments into multiple parts, aligning with the steps of the writing process. Students in her class used peer review with each section of the assignment so they were discussing their work throughout its development. Participant G noted she modeled for peer groups how to critique beyond surface-level mistakes because she found that when students came to her class, “their default when they’re critiquing each other tends to be fix the grammar.” Participant H described a program he used to guide peer review, a website called Eli Review, where students provide each other with feedback to teacher-created prompts, reflect on the feedback, and make a clear plan for revision, allowing for the peer feedback process to be tangible for students. Again, the range of what was emphasized in peer review was broad (e.g., peer review for all parts of the process, peer review for feedback beyond the grammatical, peer review for

reflection). Collectively, this high school and college commentary on peer review communicated the expectation that writing is collaborative and peer dialogue can afford opportunities for apprenticeships where peers externalized writing processes and offer opportunities for students to join in the class discourse (Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Forman & Cazden, 1985). Through peer dialogue, teachers create communities of practice where students come to share in the writing expectations of that community (Englert et al., 2006; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The high school and college professors interviewed also discussed their reliance on studying mentor texts and modeling writing to engage students in writing and make clear the expectations. Of the five high school educators interviewed, two spoke to their use of these techniques. Participant C used published texts to make visible for students the internal decisions writers make and to allow students to imitate the style of established authors. Participant C described the conversations and work centering on a Margaret Atwood mentor essay:

> And we looked at this piece, and we looked at how it was broken down into different parts. Each part did something slightly different, but they all came together to kind of reveal the same idea. I asked my students to write something similar that imitated her style, and it really helped them to understand why she made the choices that she made.

Participant C worked from published mentor texts, whereas Participant D used student models of essays and asked students to score these essays alongside a common rubric. Through conversation about why students were giving certain essays certain scores, Participant D was able to show her students samples of the successful implementation of

complex writing moves, such as synthesis. For each of these teachers, the mentor texts served as a springboard for conversation about writing craft techniques, providing students with tangible examples, though there was variability in how the teachers reported using mentor texts. Only two of the teachers interviewed described using mentor texts, suggesting that though the examination of mentor texts may be a beneficial way to illustrate writing expectations, it may not be widely used at the high school level.

These same two teachers also reported modeling writing for students. Participant D spoke about modeling when describing how she helped students who could not grasp the concept of creating a counterclaim for an argument writing assignment about whether or not the police should be defunded. Participant D described writing an example to show the students but using the primary argument that dogs are better than cats and creating a counterclaim to describe the benefits of cats that should still be considered. Participant C also reported modeling writing for students. Like Participant D, she used examples that were different than the actual assignment. She stated, "I do like to model writing. But my number one rule when I model writing is that I will not model on the topics that they're supposed to be writing about, because then they will simply regurgitate." In the example she provided, Participant C's students were asked to write an essay about a theme in *The Great Gatsby*. To prepare students for this assignment, the class read a short story with similar themes and then collaboratively drafted a model essay. Participant C stated, "So then, when they had to turn around and look at Gatsby, they knew what to do, and they had a model, but it wasn't done for them." Both of the high school teachers provided models of exactly what they were looking for in student work, drawing on different material, but one teacher wrote this model independently and the other teacher took a

more collaborative approach with students. The act of modeling writing provides insight into the internal thinking needed to meet class writing expectations, but again, because only two teachers reported using this practice, how widely it is used at the high school level is unclear.

The college professors interviewed also emphasized the use of mentor texts, with three of the five professors describing their use of past student work as models. Each of these professors used the models of past student work to define "good" writing and encourage conversation regarding the expectations. Participant J began this work in the brainstorming stages, sharing models of prior students' topic selection in relationship to their major for a major-related research paper so that as a class, they could evaluate what topics they thought would work well and what would not. Additionally, Participant H, Participant I, and Participant J discussed providing students with previous students' final products to highlight expectations and possible directions. Participant H did say that he explicitly told students, "And I say very directly, I don't want their response in your paper, I want your own response. But here's how they came up with their response." He echoed here a concern expressed by the high school teachers when modeling writing for students: a fear that the models will simply be regurgitated. Beyond student samples, college professors also used professional texts as mentors. Participant H shared, "We read a lot of good writing . . . and we talked about why it's a good writing." Thus, Participant H used mentor texts to help students define what "good" writing looks like. Participant J also drew on mentor texts at the sentence level for imitation exercises. She would give students a few different types of thesis statements, for example, and then have students write each type as a way to explore options as a writer. Therefore, the college professors

interviewed highlighted a wide range of ways in which they used mentor texts to reveal expectations (i.e., to show the kind of ideas needed for a project, to show what makes a piece of writing "good," and to provide models for imitation).

Though most of the college professors interviewed described the need to show students the messiness and nonlinear nature of the writing process, as described above under Theme 2, only one spoke directly to modeling the specific writing assignments for students. Participant G also spoke about her deliberate decision to not use papers from other students as a means of modeling, as students would be "brutal" in the critique. Instead, she chose to bring in her own work so students could have a chance to "interact with a writer," "think critically," and "go beyond the surface." Participant G used her own writing to model the process for students, but to also enhance the peer review and revision work for students. She pointed out here that using student samples did not work to improve the writing of her students, suggesting not every strategy works in every setting. Due to the highly contextualized nature of each classroom, what works in one room may not work in another. As Participant H stated, when thinking about writing instruction, "Like it isn't really a scientific based thing. It's just sort of what can you get to work? . . . And then how can that work for individual students?" This quote helps to explain the wide range and application of teacher feedback, peer review, mentor texts, and model writing, for though all these practices were used across level and across teachers, the ways in which they were used and the primary function of their uses varied.

In summary, throughout the interviews, teachers across levels cited using a wide range of communal practices to teach writing, with the most frequently cited practices including teacher feedback, peer review, examination of mentor texts, and model writing.

For teacher feedback at the high school level, this feedback ranged from traditional teacher conferences to holistic class feedback and comments in Google Docs. At the college level, this feedback included traditional teacher conferences as well as endnotes and comments on rough drafts. Peer review was used in a variety of ways and for a variety of purposes. At the high school level, peer review was used in different parts of the writing process (i.e., brainstorming, drafting, editing) and for a range of overall functions (i.e., to bounce ideas off of each other, to correct each other's grammar, to celebrate work). At the college level, professors spoke of peer review using a digital website to prompt discussion, the importance of peer review beyond editing, and community building through peer review. Educators at both levels also reported using mentor texts. High school teachers used mentor texts in the form of published authors and other students' work to spark conversations about writing craft techniques and provide students with examples of expectations. High school teachers also modeled writing for students to show students how to write specific assignments, but they drew on different material. The college professors also cited using mentor texts of past student work to provide models of possibilities, as well as models at the sentence level to allow students to explore writing options. The college professors also modeled their own writing for students but spoke of this modeling more in terms of the need to model the messiness and nonlinear nature of the writing process, as opposed to the need to model a specific writing assignment. These communal interactions are how educators, either directly or indirectly, communicate writing expectations to students.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: What are the differences in writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators? In this section, I examine the quantitative survey data and the qualitative interview data that address this question. For the quantitative data, I conducted a series of *t* tests and multiple regression analyses to examine differences for Parts 4–6 of the survey and then a series of logistical regression analyses to examine differences in Part 7 of the survey. For the qualitative data, I discuss three major themes I identified as I analyzed the interview transcripts.

Quantitative

First, I created scales for my inferential statistics. Then, I used a series of *t* tests to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in the means of the scales for the two levels of educators. Next, I used the same scales to conduct a series of multiple regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of each scale score, when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education. Last, I conducted a series of logistical regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of whether an educator selected each of the elements of good writing descriptors.

Scale Creation. Before I examined any inferential statistics, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis to examine possible scales, which generated 12 different components with eigenvalues greater than 1. I then examined the rotated component matrix, looking specifically for where questions were highly correlated (values greater than .4) for each of the generated components. I found that of these 12 components, three were directly related to specific subsections of the survey (utilized writing practices –

Part 4, use of digital technologies – Part 5, and research practices – Part 6), and all of the items in each of these subsections hung well together. However, for the genre, length, timeframe, and audience survey items, each subsection had one or more items that did not hang well with the others in the same subsection, thus spreading correlation for a particular subsection over two or three components. Additionally, if these particular items were eliminated from the factor analysis, I was able to create fewer factors that were more highly correlated, but then the Cronbach's alphas for these new scales were low. Therefore, I decided to eliminate the genre, length, timeframe, and audience survey items (Part 2 and Part 3 of the survey) from the scale creation and instead created three scales titled Utilized Writing Activities, Use of Digital Technologies, and Research Practices, which aligned with Parts 4–6 of the survey. I examined the exploratory factor analysis scree plot as well, and this analysis reiterated that three factors was logical based on the graph elbow. I then did a confirmatory factor analysis, forcing a three-factor solution for the survey items in Parts 4–6. There were a handful of items that were correlated with more than one component, so I decided to keep them together based on survey subsection because this decision was mathematically supported and theoretically logical. For further confirmation, I forced a one-factor solution for each subsection to confirm that everything in the subsection hung well together.

The first scale, Utilized Writing Activities, included 14 of the 15 items from Part 4 of the survey, excluding the "Teach Grammar" descriptor, as it did not hang well with the other items. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .868. The second scale, Use of Digital Technologies, included all six items from Part 5 of the survey. The Cronbach's

alpha for this scale was .740. The third scale, Research Practices, contained all six items included in Part 6 of the survey. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .847.

After each of these scales were created, I then conducted another confirmatory factor analysis to see all survey items in Parts 4–6 of the survey (excluding the Teach Grammar descriptor) could load onto a single factor. These 26 items were all highly correlated, so I created another more inclusive scale, which I titled "Overall Writing Expectations." This scale included items from the three original scales and helped with broader comparisons. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .904.

Independent *t* Tests. I conducted four *t* tests to compare the group means of the following scales: Utilized Writing Activities, Use of Digital Technologies, Research Practices, and Overall Writing Expectations. For each *t* test, I hypothesized that there would not be a statistically significant difference in the means for the two groups.

Utilized Writing Activities. I conducted an independent sample *t* test to determine whether there was a difference in the utilized writing activities reported by high school teachers and college professors. For the Utilized Writing Activities Scale, there were 100 high school English teacher participants and 96 college composition teacher participants. The utilized writing activities were reported occurring more frequently by the high school teachers (M = 31.5193, SD = 8.52639) than by the college professors (M = 31.0506, SD = 7.93585). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (p = .575). The high school teacher mean Utilized Writing Activities score was .47, 95% CI [-1.85 to 2.79], higher than the college mean Utilized Writing Activities score. There was not a statistically significant difference between the means of these two scores, $t(194) = .398$, $p = .691$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Use of Digital Technologies. I conducted an independent sample *t* test to determine whether there was a difference in the use of digital technologies reported by high school teachers and college professors. For the Use of Digital Technologies Scale, there were 99 high school English teacher participants and 100 college composition teacher participants. The use of digital technologies was reported occurring more frequently by college professors ($M = 11.7517$, $SD = 3.47942$) than by the high school teachers ($M = 10.8401$, $SD = 3.44383$). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .988$). The high school teacher mean Use of Digital Technologies score was .91, 95% CI [-1.88 to .06], lower than the college mean Use of Digital Technology score. There was not a statistically significant difference between the means of these two scores, $t(197) = -1.857$, $p = .065$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Research Practices. I conducted an independent sample *t* test to determine whether there was a difference in research practices reported by high school teachers and college professors. For the Research Practices Scale, there were 98 high school English teacher participants and 99 college composition teacher participants. The use of research practices was reported occurring more frequently by college professors ($M = 12.1667$, $SD = 4.00198$) than by the high school teachers ($M = 10.3656$, $SD = 3.86066$). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .602$). The high school teacher mean Research Practices score was 1.80, 95% CI [-2.91 to -.70], lower than the college mean Research Practices score. There was a statistically significant difference between the means of these two scores, $t(195) = -3.214$, $p = .002$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. To determine whether this statistical

significance then held any practical significance, I calculated Cohen's $d = 0.49$, which would be considered a medium strength practical significance.

Overall Writing Expectations. I conducted an independent sample *t* test to determine whether there was a difference in overall writing expectations reported by high school teachers and college professors. For the Overall Writing Expectations Scale, there were 97 high school English teacher participants and 95 college composition teacher participants. The Overall Writing Expectations Scale indicates these writing practices were used more frequently by college professors ($M = 58.2081$, $SD = 13.73204$) than by the high school teachers ($M = 56.2534$, $SD = 13.78779$). There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .745$). The high school teacher mean Overall Writing Expectations score was 1.95, 95% CI [-5.87 to 1.96], lower than the college mean Overall Writing Expectations score. There was not a statistically significant difference between the means of these two scores $t(190) = -.984$, $p = .326$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Multiple Linear Regressions. I conducted four multiple linear regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of each of the four scale scores when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education. For each regression, I hypothesized that none of the predictor variables would have a statistically significant relationship with the response variable.

Utilized Writing Activities. I conducted a multiple linear regression to understand the effect of level taught on the Utilized Writing Activities Scale scores when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education (see Table 13 for findings). Because highest decree was split in six possible categorical responses, I first collapsed the six

down to three, combining bachelor's degree with bachelor's degree plus additional credits, master's degree with master's degree plus additional credits, and doctoral degree with doctoral degree plus additional credits. Then, I created three dummy variables from these collapsed variables: Degree Collapsed Bachelor's, Degree Collapsed Master's, and Degree Collapsed Doctoral. I used the Degree Collapsed Doctoral as my reference variable. None of these findings were statistically significant. The combination of these independent variables explained 3.6% of the variance in Utilized Writing Activities Scale scores (R^2= .036).

Table 13

Multiple Regression Analysis Examining Level as Predictor of Utilized Writing Practices Scale Score, When Controlling for Years Teaching and Highest Degree

Predictor	Coefficient	SE	*p* value
Level (0=high school, 1= college)	-1.891	1.396	.177
Years teaching	.104	.079	.190
Degree: Bachelor's	-4.501	2.536	.078
Degree: Master's	-1.334	1.707	.436

Note. N = 194; R^2=.036.
* $p < 0.05$.

Use of Digital Technologies. I conducted a multiple linear regression to understand the effect of level taught on the Use of Digital Technologies Scale scores when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education (see Table 14 for findings). Of these findings, only the number of years teaching was statistically significant (p = .031, p < .05). Every increase by 1 year of teaching experience predicted a .071-point increase in the scale score. The combination of these independent variables explained 5.1% of the variance in Use of Digital Technologies Scale scores (R^2= .051).

Table 14

Multiple Regression Analysis Examining Level as Predictor of Use of Digital Technologies Scale Score, When Controlling for Years Teaching and Highest Degree

Predictor	Coefficient	SE	*p* value
Level (0=high school, 1= college)	.602	.585	.305
Years teaching	.071	.033	.031*
Degree: Bachelor's	-.412	1.059	.697
Degree: Master's	-.631	.705	.372

Note. $N = 197$; $R^2 = .051$.
* $p < 0.05$.

Research Practices. I conducted a multiple linear regression to understand the effect of level taught on the Research Practices Scale scores when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education (see Table 15 for findings). None of these findings were statistically significant. The combination of these independent variables explained 7% of the variance in Research Practices Scale scores ($R^2 = .07$).

Table 15

Multiple Regression Analysis Examining Level as Predictor of Research Practices Scale Score, When Controlling for Years Teaching and Highest Degree

Predictor	Coefficient	SE	*p* value
Level (0=high school, 1= college)	1.269	.675	.061
Years teaching	.046	.038	.228
Degree: Bachelor's	-1.280	1.225	.297
Degree: Master's	-1.026	.813	.208

Note. $N = 195$; $R^2 = .070$.
* $p < 0.05$.

Overall Writing Expectations. I conducted a multiple linear regression to understand the effect of level taught on the Overall Writing Expectations Scale scores when controlling for years taught and highest degree of education (see Table 16 for

findings). None of these findings were statistically significant. The combination of these independent variables explained 3.9% of the variance in Overall Writing Expectations Scale scores (R^2= .039).

Table 16

Multiple Regression Analysis Examining Level as Predictor of Overall Writing Expectations Scale Score, When Controlling for Years Teaching and Highest Degree

Predictor	Coefficient	SE	*p* value
Level (0=high school, 1= college)	-.394	2.361	.868
Years teaching	.203	.134	.132
Degree: Bachelor's	-6.602	4.282	.125
Degree: Master's	-3.649	2.872	.206

Note. N = 190; R^2=.039.
* $p < 0.05$.

Binary Logistical Regressions. I conducted a series of binary logistical regressions to determine whether level taught was a statistically significant predictor of whether an educator selected each of the elements of good writing descriptors (see Table 17 for results of all binary logistical regressions). For each binary logistical regression, I hypothesized that there would not be a statistically significant relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable. There was not a statistically significant relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable for develop a main idea; use paragraphs appropriately; use supporting evidence appropriately; analyze data/ideas/arguments; synthesize information from multiple sources; appropriately use, cite, and document sources; and record data and/or use detail.

Through the binary logistical regression, I found that the college professors were more likely to select write appropriately for different purposes and write appropriately for different audiences than were the high school teachers. Level taught was a statistically

significant predictor of the likelihood that a participant selected writing appropriate for different audiences ($N = 200$, $p = .001$, $p < .05$) and writing appropriate for different purposes ($N = 200$, $p = .001$, $p < .05$). The college professors were 216.2% more likely than the high school teachers to select "Write appropriately for different audiences" and 201.9% more likely than the high school teachers to select "Write appropriately for different purposes."

Additionally, I found the college professors were less likely to select employ correct mechanics, use correct grammar and syntax, quote and paragraph appropriately, and organized ideas logically than the high school teachers. Level taught was a statistically significant predictor of the likelihood that a participant selected organize ideas logically ($N = 200$, $p = .020$, $p < .05$), quote and paraphrase appropriately ($N = 200$, $p = .031$, $p < .05$), use correct grammar and syntax (N=200, p=.001, p<.05), and employ correct mechanics ($N = 200$, $p = .029$, $p < .05$). The college professors were 55.6% less likely than the high school teachers to select "Organize ideas logically," 60.4% less likely than the high school teachers to select "Quote and paraphrase appropriately," 71.2% less likely than the high school teachers to select "Use Correct Grammar and Syntax," and 66.5% less likely than the high school teachers to select "Employ correct mechanics."

Table 17

Binary Logistical Regression Analyses Examining if Level Taught Increases the Likelihood the Participant Selected Each Descriptor of Good Writing

Predictor variable	Coefficient	SE	*p* value	OR
Good Writing 1: Write Appropriately for Different Audiences				
Level	1.151	.295	<.001*	3.162
Good Writing 2: Write Appropriately for Different Purposes				
Level	1.105	.300	<.001*	3.019
Good Writing 3: Organize Ideas Logically				
Level	-.811	.349	.020*	.444
Good Writing 4: Develop a Main Idea				
Level	-.294	.290	.312	.746
Good Writing 5: Use Paragraphs Appropriately				
Level	-.433	.420	.303	.649
Good Writing 6: Use Supporting Evidence Appropriately				
Level	.129	.294	.660	1.138
Good Writing 7: Analyze Data/Ideas/Arguments				
Level	-.216	.294	.463	.806
Good Writing 8: Synthesize Information from Multiple Sources				
Level	.082	.286	.775	1.085
Good Writing 9: Appropriately Use, Cite, and Document Sources				
Level	.214	.327	.514	1.238
Good Writing 10: Quote and Paraphrase Appropriately				
Level	-.927	.430	.031*	.396

Predictor variable	Coefficient	SE	*p* value	OR
Good Writing 11: Record Data and/or Use Detail				
Level	.000	.649	1.000	1.000
Good Writing 12: Use Correct Grammar and Syntax				
Level	-1.245	.348	<.001*	.288
Good Writing 13: Employ Correct Mechanics				
Level	-1.093	.502	.029*	.335

Note. $N = 200$; OR = odds ratio.
* $p < 0.05$.
Level: 0 = high school, 1 = college.

Summary. In summary, some of the inferential statistics revealed statistically significant differences between the two groups of educators. An independent *t* test revealed a statistically significant difference between the Research Practices Scale score means, indicating high school educators used research practices less frequently compared to college composition professors. Additionally, the binary logistical regressions revealed level taught was a statistically significant predictor of whether an educator selected the following qualities of good writing: write appropriately for difference audiences, write appropriately for different purposes, organize ideas logically, quote and paraphrase appropriately, use correct grammar and syntax, and employ correct mechanics. Though it has been well-documented that "good" writing is difficult to define (Addison & McGee, 2010; Appleman & Green, 1993; Brockman et al., 2010; Melzer, 2009), it is clear that certain characteristics align more with the different levels.

Qualitative

In analyzing the interview responses from the high school English teachers and college composition professors, I identified three major themes that addressed the research question: What are the differences in writing expectations of secondary and

postsecondary educators? These themes included (a) high school English teachers and college composition professors express different levels of *autonomy* in terms of curriculum; (b) high school English teachers and college composition professors prioritize different *genres*; and (c) high school teachers place greater emphasis on *grammar and structure* than do college professors, who prioritize *rhetorical awareness*, *ideas*, and *risk taking*. The first noted theme may help to explain the differences found in the following two themes.

Difference in Autonomy. Educator testimonies revealed a difference in curriculum autonomy for the different levels. Four of the five interviewed high school teachers described autonomy to create curriculum for their classes. One teacher commented that she saw this autonomy as a "blessing," whereas another teacher noted frustration with having to "invent everything based on the state standards," saying that even the textbooks they had were from the year 2004. The one teacher who cited a lack of autonomy worked for the State of Louisiana, which has a state curriculum and then specific curriculum for each parish. Generally, the teachers found the administration was understanding that each teacher teaches differently.

Though two teachers spoke to the importance of the state standards in designing curriculum, every single teacher interviewed reiterated the controlling presence of state testing in curriculum design. Participant A, a veteran teacher of 18 years, spoke to how shifts in testing led to shifts in curriculum, for as the State of North Carolina took the writing specific test away, "they took most of the writing instruction away," suggesting the extent to which writing instruction was provided was directly related to the expectations on the state exams. She went on to say that because writing was not

prioritized on the state test, she felt she could not prioritize time for writing in her classroom when she instead needed to focus on teaching skills for multiple choice style reading comprehension questions, and as such, she was limited in what she could do.

Other teachers mentioned that the genres and standards emphasized on the state tests controlled class time and class priorities, though these teachers did also note a concern with which of these writing skills students would need again in the future. For example, Participant E said:

> But the state testing is huge in what's taught. I try to vary it as much as possible. I try to also consider what they're going to need to be able to do without just focusing on the test, you know. We have a narrative portion on the test, but you're not going to write that many narratives. So that's less. Argument, more. Informational, somewhere in the middle.

Participant E tried to prioritize genres based on what she believed students would need most beyond the exam.

Participant D echoed similar concerns, arguing that she "teach[es] the standards that will help the kids pass through the 11th grade Regents Exams." Participant D highlighted a concern regarding the applicability of writing tasks prioritized by standardized testing for future writing, but expressed feeling as if there was "no other way to go about it." Together, Participant E and D demonstrated an understanding that the control of the state testing was limiting their ability to teach writing in the way that they felt would best serve students as writers.

Along the same vein, three of the teachers noted they did not believe students were prepared for college-level writing and stated they wished they had more time to dedicate to writing instruction and to writing beyond what was valued on the state exams.

Drawing on her experience as a mother of a college student and a high school teacher, Participant A knew there was a gap in what was being taught, but because of the pressures of the state testing on the teachers and the district, a cycle of unpreparedness existed because of an overemphasis on multiple choice style tests and a lack of writing instruction. Participant C noted,

> It causes a lot of frustration for me because I look at what I'm expected to teach, and I look at where I want my college kids to be. And I'm like, there's a way huge gap here that needs to be fixed.

The concept of this gap or divide between high school and college appears to be exacerbated by the pressures of testing, which teachers reported dictated the kinds of writing they could afford to spend time on in the classroom. Thus, the presence of the state exams directly affects writing expectations at the secondary level, highlighting the influence of external pressures (Beach et al., 2016; Hillocks, 2008).

This tension was recognized by some of the college professors. Participant C, who worked as a high school English teacher but started her career as a composition professor, noted, "There's been increasingly more frustration with these students coming into college unprepared and without the writing skills they need . . . but I also know that the high school teachers really are trying." Participant C's frustration was palpable here, and though the need for remediation at the college level is well-documented (Xu, 2016), this quote also highlights the frustration felt from the perspective of the high school instructors, as they knew there were things that could be done differently.

In addition, Participant J, one of the college professors who previously taught middle school, spoke to this tension and perhaps lack of understanding between high school teachers and college professors:

> I was a middle school teacher first. And I sort of said earlier, I really left that profession because I felt like it was too structured and very focused on standardized writing tests . . . And I felt like that was doing a big disservice to students. But I also find, like, paradoxically, that college writing instructors like to criticize seven to 12 teachers for doing exactly what I just said, teaching to that test, without understanding why teachers do that, and the pressure that's on them to do that.

Participant J, though frustrated with the emphasis on standardized testing, so much so that she left her teaching position because of it, noted here the pressure placed on high school English teachers. Taken together with the testimonies of the high school teachers, the controlling impact of standardized testing and its impact of writing instruction and expectations were palpable. Though the high school teachers reported having the ability to craft their own curriculum, they did not feel they had the true freedom and flexibility of curriculum to bridge the gap because of the pressures of the state exams. The commentary from the high school teachers reflected that the gap between high school and college writing expectations is not just something that is recognized at the college level, after students have crossed the threshold, but instead is recognized before students even leave high school.

At the college level, the overall impression from the five professors interviewed was that there was autonomy in the curriculum and that the factors that influenced

curriculum design varied. At the big picture level, one professor noted the influence of the WPA *Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition* as providing broad, non-institution specific goals. Another professor referenced a statewide equivalency program in the State of Oklahoma that provided the stated outcomes for the college's composition courses. Beyond these two comments, all other noted curriculum influences were at the departmental level. Participant F and Participant I explained how their departments provided a list of student learning outcomes. Participant G and Participant I also noted that their departments created common assignments. Participant J, Participant I, and Participant G spoke of common page requirements. Unlike the high school teachers, who commented on the curriculum constraints they felt as a result of the state testing, the language surrounding these departmental requirements by the college professors included words such as "flexibility," "varied," and "freedom." The concerns about curricular influences in terms of time, appropriateness, and applicability to future writing needs found in the interviews with the high school teachers were absent from the conversations with the college professors.

In summary, the high school and college educators expressed a difference in autonomy over the curriculum. At the high school level, all of the teachers spoke of the controlling presence of the state exams and the exams' influence over curriculum decisions, a reality that was frustrating for many of these educators. The high school educators feared students were not prepared for writing in college or beyond but felt limited in what they could do because of the testing pressures. At the college level, educators overall felt as if there was autonomy in the curriculum. They noted most of the requirements came from a departmental level within their programs, but generally

speaking, the college professors felt as if they had the "freedom" to create the curriculum that was most applicable. Issues of autonomy are directly linked to teacher expectations, and the differences in autonomy level found in these interviews serve as a possible explanation for why the differences in genres and emphasized writing elements (as described in the next two themes) exist.

Difference in Genres. The high school and college educators prioritized different genres in class assignments. When defining good writing, each of the high school teachers referenced the importance of using textual evidence to support a claim. It was not surprising then that the overwhelming majority of the writing projects described were arguments rooted in class texts, most of which were fiction (e.g., whether or not the police should be defunded based on *The Hate You Give*, who is to blame for the most deaths in *The Crucible*, is Nick from *The Great Gatsby* a trustworthy character). Many teachers spoke to why they chose to emphasize argument. Participant E said, "So typically, that's why I focus on the argument. If you can write an argument, you can write an informational. Just leave out the counterargument and you're still okay." Participant D stated, "The argumentative essays, definitely, I feel as though foster the best growth. Again, partially because it's a skill that you can go beyond the Regents." These two illustrative comments reflect sentiments found throughout the high school interviews: beyond just being in the standards, teachers emphasize argument writing because argument reflects complex writing that can then be modified to create an informational piece and because argument is a genre needed beyond the standardized tests. Though the high school teachers reported being constrained by the state testing, they still made evaluative decisions within their institutional frameworks that influenced expectations.

It is important to note here that though all the college professors spoke about argument writing, it was framed as a "researched argument" where students were expected to create and explore an argument. None of the college professors interviewed reported having students write arguments based on whole class fiction novels. Participant H, a high school English teacher turned college professor, directly noted what he considered to be the limitations of the kind of argument work students typically do in high school, arguing that high school argument assignments typically present students with the argument at hand and ask students to support the argument with three reasons, which contrasts with the more "generic questions" that demand "inventing or coming up with an idea" that are expected in college. Though Participant H was the only professor to speak directly to the difference in expectations for argument, each of the college professors described the argument work occurring in their classrooms as open-ended, broad, and self-directed. Three of the five professors reported encouraging students to write about their majors for their researched arguments, whether it be asking students to examine how professionals in a given field think or to research current events in a field of interest. The type of writing the high school teachers most frequently reported, coupled with the different ways in which argument is used in the college classroom, highlights a clear difference in expectations. Though the difference in what students are writing about is evident (fiction class-texts compared to student-driven research), it is also imperative to note the differences between how the writing prompts are structured and the range of open-endedness. This broad range of "argument" highlights another possible point of tension as students cross contexts because the conventions of the genre shift (Bazerman,

2016). Unless this is made explicit, it is logical to assume that this could be a source of confusion for students.

With researched arguments serving as the most frequently reported writing project for college students, it is logical that the college professors emphasized research and various research practices. To support students in their researched arguments, the interviewed professors noted a range of activities (e.g., creating a research proposal to help students think through the design of their research project and receive early feedback, using annotated bibliographies to help students organize sources, and crafting a literature review to strengthen research skills and help students "synthesize" and "critique" information). More specifically, Participant I noted here the importance creating opportunities for students to critically engage with the sources so they could synthesize the information, going on to stress that it is important for students to see themselves as "knowledge creators" and not just the "receivers of information." These reported activities demonstrate the kinds of research practices the college professors valued, with collaboration, sourcing, and synthesis deemed as important.

Though research was prioritized at the college level, in stark contrast, four of the five high school teachers mentioned that little research writing occurred in these high school classrooms. Concerns of time related to research are shown in the following quote from Participant E, who reported using short research assignments for terms students may be unfamiliar with in class novels. She stated:

> There's not as much [research] partly because we don't have time on the semester block. We don't have much time. I may do short research things, where they do

very brief writing, especially with honors . . . So I try to pull it in in short doses. Because time is a huge factor.

When speaking about a 12th-grade research paper on inequality where students were given the majority of the sources, Participant D echoed concerns of time, stating, "We had so little time it kind of felt rushed." Most high school teachers in the interviews reported spending around one-quarter to one-third of class time on writing or writing instruction. The teachers described that of that time, research writing occurred far less frequently than class text-based argument writing, echoing the limited time spent on research writing.

The general trend was that schools assigned one major research paper junior year of high school, yet these teachers highlighted that for various reasons, research writing posed difficulty in the curriculum. For Participant C, time restrictions resulting from COVID scheduling changes prevented her from completing the research unit this year, and though she was the only teacher who noted that research specifically was cut, the idea that there was less time for writing this year because of COVID was prevalent. Beyond COVID, the junior year major research paper was problematic in Participant A's school because students were not expected to conduct any lengthy research until 11th grade and then the students would become overwhelmed by the enormity of the project. After enough people complained, the district "did away with the paper" because "there was no equity in it." In her description, Participant A highlighted that student confidence and preparation levels (and how these concepts are perceived by others) limited the use of research writing in the classroom. Last, Participant C noted that her students "don't really understand the whole concept of research" and "lack the ability to research beyond

Google." She partially attributed this lack of understanding to the expense of resources, arguing that high schools do not have the money to provide students with access to digital journal resources and, as such, high school teachers have a difficult time teaching students how to find information on their own. The threats to exposing students to research writing expressed here were numerous, and they highlight the broader institutional factors that affect teacher expectations for writing.

In summary, high school teachers prioritized argument but often focused on argument in relationship to fiction class texts. In contrast, the college professors focused on researched argument, where students were expected to create and explore their own arguments. It is logical then that the college professors described various research practices, ranging from research proposals to literature reviews to annotated bibliographies. At the high school level, however, most of the teachers noted how little research writing occurred in their classrooms because of time and budget restrictions. These findings point to a specific source of tension for students as they cross from one context to the next, providing possible insight into a tangible gap in expectations.

Differences in What Writing Elements Educators Emphasize. High school teachers placed greater emphasis on grammar and structure than did college professors, who emphasized rhetorical awareness, voice, and risk taking. A major difference I observed in the interviews was that the high school teachers noted valuing grammar, whereas the college professors explicitly noted downplaying the role of grammar to instead focus on complexity of ideas and rhetorical awareness. Each of the high school teachers referenced the importance of grammar. Participant C stated, "With my regular students, I was having to incorporate a lot of lessons on just basic sentence structure and

grammar. And in that case, it was really about teaching them the rules of writing." Similarly, Participant B said, "I like to focus specifically on grammar comp, just because I'm dealing with freshmen this year." Inherent in both of these comments is the idea that students must have an understanding of grammar at the most basic level before they are able to move on to more sophisticated writing concepts. Two other teachers noted increasing frustration that on the state exams, they were unable to take off points for grammar, with Participant D noting, "I had to learn how to look past that." These particular teachers valued grammar as important.

Conversely, the college professors commented on the relative unimportance of grammar compared to unique ideas and rhetorical understanding. Participant G, for example, said she did not want to be considered a "stickler for grammar" and that her feedback was not "traditional red pen nitpicky" but instead focused on how what was written helped the reader understand what was trying to be communicated. Participant H said, "We're not talking about grammar . . . I want you to have an idea." Similarly, Participant I stated she wanted to see students "think in complex ways" more than focus on any grammar feature. She mentioned that she had seen papers that met all the minimal grammar expectations that really did not accomplish the purpose of the writing piece, where others that were shaky on some of the grammar articulated really clever ideas. For these professors, the emphasis was not on grammatical correctness, but instead on the complexity of ideas and the ability to communicate clearly, with college professors downplaying what the high school teachers valued most. At the college level, this emphasis on ideas and communication related directly to the concept of rhetorical awareness.

The term rhetorical was used only once in the high school interviews, as a teacher was listing the different types of writing students could do. At the college level, four of the five professors interviewed spoke of the importance of rhetorical awareness and rhetorical analysis. Similarly, two of the high school teachers mentioned writer's purpose and one of those two discussed the impact of audience, yet these terms were used in passing and were not expounded upon. At the college level, all of the professors spoke of the importance of purpose, and four of the five college professors discussed the importance of audience. Participant F, who had a master's in applied linguistics, argued that she did not emphasize the mechanics of writing in her classes, but instead, she reported, "I am much more focused on the rhetorical situation and audience and purpose. And when I think about language, I'm thinking about the effectiveness of language in relation to audience and purpose." Participant G also noted she used the concept of audience and purpose to show students that even if they did not feel as if they were strong academic writers, they were still effective at communicating, referencing how students may text with their friends. She stated, "Let's take the good and bad writer out of the equation and look at effectiveness for audience and purpose." The college professors all placed value on rhetorical awareness and analysis, using the concepts of purpose and audience to define "good" writing and to assess student writing. This emphasis was not documented in the interviews with the high school teachers, indicating high school teachers' expectations of writing may not prepare students for the emphasis on rhetorical awareness expected in college.

A second major difference in the elements of writing valued at the different levels was that the high school teachers stressed the value of structure, whereas the college

professors highlighted risk taking and uniqueness of voice. At the high school level, each teacher noted the importance of structure and organization, and each of these teachers noted using graphic organizers and acronym prompts to guide student development in these areas. Participant B, for example, began her interview by stating she tried to convey to students that writing is not a mystery. She said:

> We're just like math. We have formulas. If you learn the formulas, comp is so much easier . . . But I let them know: here are the formulas, I'm teaching the formula, let me show you that you can master the formulas, apply the formulas.

Participant B used the word formula six times in a matter of a few sentences to really highlight how she approached teaching students to write. Participant A also noted using what she termed "formula writing" because she was trying to get students to "understand the process." She felt as if after students mastered the formulas, then they could have the freedom to "get their own style." Inherent in these comments is the idea that students must have a strong command of structure before they can explore more, what the teachers considered, sophisticated writing moves. It is important to note that both Participant B and Participant A reported working with lower-level students who had not previously received extensive writing instruction.

Though these were the only two teachers who explicitly used the language of "formula writing," all of the teachers interviewed spoke of graphic organizers and acronym prompts, which take a formulaic approach to writing. Each of the graphic organizers described prompted students to follow a specific structure with specific language. Language included:

> And in my sentence outlines, I always give a prompt so you know where it says topic sentence, evidence 123, transition, I put beside the topic sentence examples. So it's like all they're having to do is really mirror using their own words or evidence.
>
> And I even would give them like, for their body paragraph, I have an outline. And it's like, okay, this is supposed to be this, this, make sure you include all that stuff.
>
> I have some graphic organizers for the structure . . . especially to get the right number of sentences and right things in them. Okay, body paragraphs, sentence number one is your topic sentence. Sentence number two has to include a quote. Sentence three, explanation sentence for another quote.

These illustrative quotes demonstrate the level of structural assistance teachers provided through their graphic organizers. This level of structural assistance reflects a prescriptive approach to writing structure and organization, in that each sentence of each paragraph must follow a particular order. If this is the expectation at the high school level, students may struggle when such heavily imposed structures are removed in college.

In addition to the outlines, two of the five teachers reported using acronym prompts. These teachers described using the acronym approach for the state exams, which is logical because a structured outline approach would not be plausible to use during the state testing. Both Participant A and Participant E noted using the ACE format (Answer the question, Cite the best evidence, Explain your examples to prove your answer). Participant E modified this acronym as PACE, adding a planning step.

Participant A called this type of writing "scripted" but commented that if students repeated this format on the state exams, then they would be successful, suggesting success hinges on organization. Additionally, Participant A reported using RAFT (Role, Audience, Format, Topic) as a way to teach students how to break down a prompt on a standardized exam. These teachers reported relying on these acronyms as a way to increase student success on standardized writing exams, and, similar to the graphic organizers, this revealed a formulaic approach. The relationship between standardized testing and these approaches is palpable.

The reliance on graphic organizers and on acronym prompts was absent from the interviews with the college professors, with the exception of one who said she offered a graphic organizer support only to students who were really struggling on one particular course assignment. The other professors either explicitly said they did not use graphic organizers or just never brought them up in the interviews, despite specific questions regarding student supports. Yet, of particular interest for this study, two educators who had taught at both levels (Participant C, who was currently teaching high school, and Participant J, who was currently teaching college) commented explicitly on the high school expectations for structure and their relationship to college writing. Participant C stated:

> You always hear college professors say that everything that kids were taught in high school and before about writing is wrong. But . . . instead we should be taking what they've learned and teaching them that they need to grow and expand. So the five-paragraph essay was great, but it's just a guideline. And the real guideline is that good writing has an intro, a body and a conclusion.

Here, Participant C saw the high school emphasis on the five-paragraph essay structure not as a limitation, though she admitted it was perceived that way by others, but instead as an opportunity for college professors to teach students how to build off what they already knew how to do well.

Participant J similarly addressed the emphasis on structure as a strength that might not always be recognized by others:

> [College professors] like to write off formulaic writing as something that is useless when their students have benefited from that instruction, more than I think many collegiate instructors realize . . . I know that students don't naturally organize ideas around paragraphs . . . so although to a college professor it may seem trite to teach that skill . . . it is actually important in some ways.

Participant J, as someone who taught middle school prior to teaching college writing, offered a unique perspective on writing development. She suggested that perhaps college professors do not recognize the benefits of the high school emphasis on structure, as students generally come to college able to organize ideas. Instead of minimizing the high school expectations for structure, this participant saw value as it was part of students' developmental processes (Graham, 2019).

In the interviews, the college professors did note concerns with the emphasis on structure and the extent of student supports provided at the high school level. Primarily, these concerns were related to a lack of risk taking and a lack of student voice. Participant H, as mentioned previously, argued that college students need the most help with generating unique ideas because, in his opinion, much of the writing assignments at the high school level tell students exactly what to write about and how to write about it.

Similarly, Participant F noted she needed to "encourage [students] to be creative beyond for what a lot of them in high school has just been responding to an AP exam or writing a five-paragraph essay about *Romeo and Juliet*," suggesting students are perhaps stifled by such heavily structured, formulaic writing. Participant I noted students at the college level were reluctant to "take risks" and were "insistent on playing it safe," suggesting they really struggled with finding their own voice. For Participant I, most students adopted what she termed a "school voice," which was "stilted" at best. Yet, despite these concerns, Participant I did also state that students typically did not struggle with organization or structure, which really echoed the paradox Participant J illuminated.

In summary, the high school teachers explicitly stated valuing grammar. In contrast, the college professors noted they downplayed the importance of grammar to instead focus on uniqueness of ideas and rhetorical understanding. The college professors emphasized voice and audience, whereas these concepts were rarely mentioned by high school teachers. Additionally, the high school teachers stressed the importance of structure (typically through a reliance on heavily scripted graphic organizers or acronym prompts), whereas the college professors spoke directly to the need for risk taking and uniqueness of voice that can be stinted in an overly structured paper. These findings reflect different emphases at the different levels, which, if not explicitly explained, may serve as a source of confusion for students as they cross contexts.

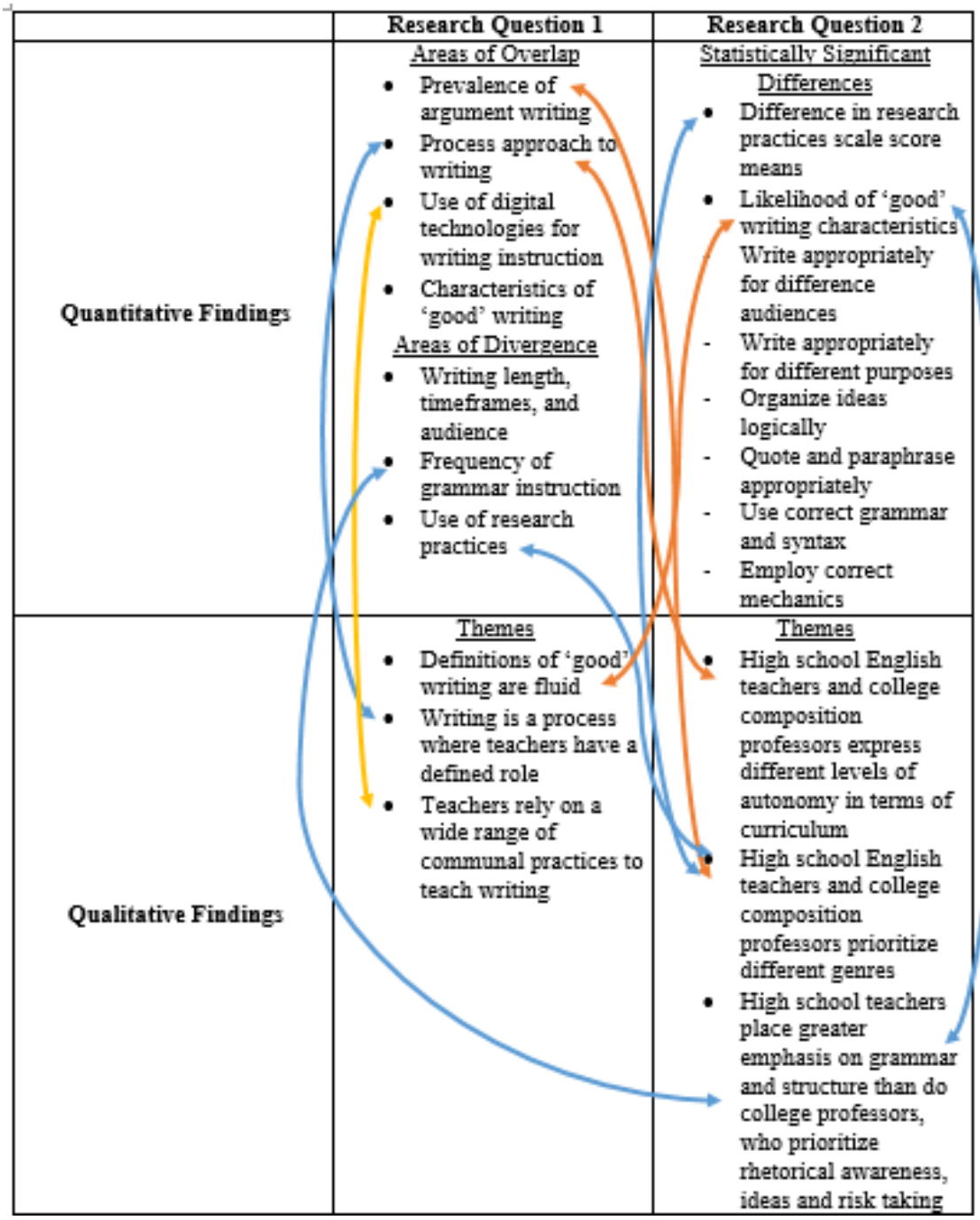
Quantitative and Qualitative Merging

In this section, I discuss the major findings of this study, focusing on the trends I identified by examining the intersection of the qualitative and quantitative data related to the writing expectations of high school and college educators and then the differences in

these expectations (see Figure 2 for joint display matrix). Because this study was exploratory in nature and unlike previous research, the mixed methods approach allowed me to expand and strengthen my study's conclusions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). I root this discussion in the sociocultural tenets of writing instruction, as the findings of this study reiterate that writing expectations are highly contextualized. The findings of this research align with the idea that writing development occurs through enculturation and socialization of a writer into the norms of a specific community and that as writers move from one community to another, what counts as knowledge changes (Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013; Ketter & Hunter, 2002). As mentioned in the literature review, Appleman and Green (1993) described the shift from high school to college writing as a "boundary that is real, if undefinable" (p. 191). In the discussion portion of this chapter, I hope to help define this boundary by examining some of the concrete differences in expectations. I center this discussion on four major themes: (a) educators believe writing is a process, but there are differences in autonomy that result in differences in how the process approach is enacted in the classroom; (b) educators rely on a range of similar practices to teach writing, but the extent to which digital technologies are used is unclear; (c) argument is the dominant purpose at both levels, but the kinds of argument writing vary by level, with clear discrepancies regarding the emphasis on research; and (d) definitions of good writing are fluid, but there are differences in what educators at each level value. I then use these differences to frame later discussions on the implications of this research for policymakers and educators.

Figure 4

Joint Display Demonstrating Simultaneous Bidirectional Framework for Merging



Note. Merging is color coded (Blue= Confirmation, Red = Expansion, Yellow= Discordance).

Theme 1: The Process(es)

When examining the intersection of the qualitative and quantitative findings, the first major theme I identified is that educators believe writing is a process, but there are differences in autonomy that result in differences in how the process approach is enacted in the classroom. In this section, I reflect on the process approaches and tensions with the application of the process approach. Then, I relate these findings to the lack of teacher autonomy at the high school level, suggesting this factor is a possible reason for the variation at the different levels.

Process Versus Processes. The survey data of this research revealed the overwhelming majority of high school and college educators reported frequently using a process approach to writing instruction, with more than three-quarters of educators in both groups reporting using this approach at least monthly. The interviews reiterated this process approach, as all of the interviewed participants either directly stated or implied a process approach to writing instruction and defined their role as a teacher accordingly. The conversations with the educators shed light on nuances beyond what could be provided by the survey data alone. Primarily, for high school teachers the emphasis was on the importance of students understanding that writing is a process and that writing is not expected to be perfect when it is first written. Like the high school teachers, the college composition professors spoke to how they highlighted the process approach, valued drafts, and broke assignments down into gradable parts, but in contrast, they also focused on the individualistic nature, messiness, and difficulties of the writing processes, which was absent from the conversations with high school teachers. This difference is interesting because one of the aspects proponents of the CCSS most celebrate is that the

Production and Distribution portion of the standards place a greater emphasis on the writing process than previous state standards (Troia & Olinghouse, 2013), yet one of the aspects critics of the standards emphasize is that the standards lack awareness of variability in the writing process (Graham, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2013). Though the process approach was clearly valued here at both levels, there was definite inconsistency in how that process was presented, which, through a sociocultural lens, will affect student writing because one way teachers are co-authors of student writing is that they structure the process(es) used (Prior, 2006). Drawing on a singular writing process implicitly teaches students that writing is linear, whereas focusing on the individual nature of writing processes and the messiness of such processes implicitly teaches that writing is nonlinear (Gee, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Lave & Wenger, 1991). This finding indicates one potential tension that "boundary crossing" from secondary to postsecondary writing contexts may present is a difference in understanding process approaches to writing (Beach et al., 2016, p. 91).

Tensions With the Process Approach. The interviews complicated the survey statistics about how often teachers use the process approach for writing instruction and subsequent strategies in highlighting tensions with the process approach for high school teachers. High school teachers expressed feeling limited in their ability to use a process approach because of students' resistance to writing, documenting students' lack of comfort with writing and lack of interest in writing as threats to implementing a process approach. Additionally, high school teachers noted the limitations of time. Each of the high school teachers stated there was a lack of time for writing instruction in the existing curriculum, which they found had been exacerbated by COVID changes. These tensions

can help explain the difference in writing timeframes found in the survey data, as high school teachers asked students to compose a piece of writing in a single setting more often than the college professors, and college professors asked students to compose over a month timeframe more frequently than the high school teachers. The focus on a lack of time, coupled with the frequency with which high school students are engaging in extended writing timeframes, echoes previous sentiments that since NCLB, there has been less time for writing instruction (e.g., McCarthey, 2008), and indicates that despite the call for increased attention on writing instruction (ACT, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2003) and the emphasis placed on writing in the CCSS (e.g., Graham & Harris, 2013), one of the greatest limiting factors to effective writing instruction at the high school level continues to be time (Graham, 2019). This noted lack of time exemplifies the sociocultural principle that though students' enculturation with writing is shaped by the ideologies of their teachers (Alvermann, 2003; Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013), teachers are influenced by larger institutional contexts (Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Hillocks, 2008).

Differences in Teacher Autonomy. It follows that the differences in how the writing processes were enacted can be at least partially attributed to the differences in teacher autonomy across levels. The interviews revealed clear differences in terms of teacher autonomy to craft instruction and curriculum. At the high school level, two of the five interviewed teachers mentioned the role of the standards in developing curriculum, yet all five articulated the controlling presence of the state testing in the curriculum design. The state tests dictated how time and content were prioritized. Some teachers spoke to feeling as if they could not prioritize time for writing because writing was not

prioritized on the state tests. These teachers collectively stated concerns regarding the lack of time spent on writing instruction, noting they did not believe students were prepared for college-level writing. Some teachers also commented and expressed concern that the curriculum was controlled by the genres and standards emphasized on the state exam, limiting the kinds of writing knowledge students carried with them to college. The interviewed high school teachers were from five different states across the United States, yet the pressure on these teachers to teach to the requirements of their particular state tests was palpable. In the interviews, the college professors expressed greater autonomy overall, attributing curriculum influences to a wide range of factors, including the WPA Outcome Statement, statewide equivalency programs, and departmental common requirements. Though these factors acted as curriculum guides, college educators generally used language such as "flexibility," "varied," and "freedom" to describe these factors and never commented on concerns of time, appropriateness of writing tasks, or applicability to students' future writing needs.

This finding regarding differences in autonomy is interesting for a few reasons. First, at the high school level, the interviews revealed the controlling presence of the state exams, but not necessarily the state standards. Though two teachers did speak to the standards, all of the teachers noted their curriculum decisions were influenced by the standardized testing. This difference indicates that though the standards may be important in guiding curriculum, the greater emphasis is placed on the content and skills valued by the exams. It has been previously documented that an emphasis on standardized testing has led to a narrowing of the curriculum, altering the structure of writing instruction at the cost of best practices (e.g., Au, 2013; Sampson et al., 2016). Because students are

shaped by the ideologies of their teachers in terms of what is taught, how it is taught, and how value is assigned (Alvermann, 2003; Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013), the influence of state testing on teacher practices is significant. Second, this discrepancy in autonomy could explain some of the possible misunderstandings between these two groups of educators, echoing Fanetti et al.'s (2010) findings that a notable tension between high school and college educators is that high school teachers, despite frequently mentioning the power of the writing process, feel as if curricular restraints surrounding the state exams prevent their ability to use this practice, whereas the college professors wished that students would unlearn the five-paragraph essay rules they learned in high school to pass the state exams. The current research extends Fanetti et al.'s (2010) findings because it revealed similar sentiments after the implementation of the CCSS. Though many hope the standards will bridge the gap between high school and college (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Perin, 2013; Troia et al., 2016), this bridging may be impossible if standardized tests continue to control the curriculum.

Theme 2: Common Practices

A second theme I identified when converging the results was that the educators relied on a range of similar practices to teach writing, but the extent to which they used digital technologies was unclear. Common practices included teacher feedback, peer review, and the study of models.

Communities of Practice. The survey data in this research provided some insight into teacher–student interactions during the writing process. Across levels, the survey data revealed that establishing specific writing goals for students, providing students with verbal praise when they wrote, and using direct instruction methods were some of the

most frequently reported writing practices. Though these topics did not come up often in the interview data, I did identify teacher feedback as one of the most frequently cited practices used by both high school and college educators in the qualitative portion of the study. Some educators at each level reported using teacher–student conferences, and others described using holistic feedback practices and commentary on drafts. The interviewees tended to focus on how they provided meaningful teacher–student interactions, whereas the survey data focused on what kind of teacher–student interaction occurred. Taken together, the combined data offer a glimpse into the possible ways in which teachers and students interact during the writing process. Though there was variability in precisely how teachers went about providing feedback, similar methods were documented across levels.

Aside from teacher feedback, educators also reported having students study and emulate models of good writing, with the majority of high school and college educators reporting that they used this activity monthly or weekly. High school teachers reported using this technique more frequently than did college professors. Though prior research revealed a discrepancy at the high school level regarding the use of models (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Kiuhara et al., 2009), the current research indicates high school teachers and college professors alike drew on this practice for myriad purposes, as was revealed in the interview data. Mentor texts from published authors and past students were used to engage students in writing, highlight expectations, and provide opportunities for imitation. Additionally, teachers modeled writing for students, working collaboratively with students to vocalize writing decisions, apply strategies, and support peer review work. The wide range of ways in which modeling was used reiterates the highly

contextualized nature of writing instruction, for what worked in some classrooms did not work in others.

Peer interactions were also documented in the survey and interviews. On the survey, educators reported having students be collaborative when writing, with the majority of the college professors reporting they used this activity weekly and the majority of high school teachers reporting weekly. Educators did use peer feedback less frequently than direct instruction methods and the writing process strategies described previously. The survey data from this research compare with previous research on the topic. They align with existing research in that peer collaboration occurs less frequently that direct instruction and strategy instruction practices at the high school level (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Kiuhara et al., 2009). However, they contrast with Addison and McGee's (2010) finding that college professors were significantly less likely than high school teachers to provide peer review opportunities. The interview data allowed for a more complete understanding of how peer review was used, highlighting that most educators used peer review not just for the editing stages, but for all parts of the writing process. At the college level, educators emphasized the need to really scaffold peer review exercises and teach students how to use peer review in meaningful ways. These aspects were absent from conversations with the high school teachers. Of interest, though critics of the CCSS argue that the standards lack evidence-based writing practices such as peer feedback, the study of models, and goal setting (Troia et al., 2016), educators at both levels reported using these practices often.

The use of practices that encourage teacher–student and peer interactions are important in the study of writing expectations because at the center of writing

development is the dialogue between teachers and students where they can construct meaning together (Gould, 1996). Because learning is embedded in practice, much of what students learn occurs through participation in practice (Gee, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Teacher feedback and modeling, as well as peer review, are ways in which students have an opportunity to participate in the literacy community. In each of these cases, the expert, through modeling and explanations, can share expertise on how to write (Englert et al., 2006; Gee, 2013). Through this cognitive apprenticeship model, dialogue can externalize covert processes and all students can join the discourse of the literacy community (Beach et al., 2016; Englert et al., 2006; Forman & Cazden, 1985). It was evident in this research that there are differences between high school and college in terms of the kinds of writing these two groups ask students to do and what they value most for writing (as discussed in the next two sections), but it is also evident that educators at both levels are drawing on common methods of building community knowledge. Therefore, though the exact knowledge may be different across contexts, when thinking about transferring from high school to college, an emphasis by educators and students on common social practices may help increase successful boundary crossing and context negotiation (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011). This conclusion reiterates the well-documented need for flexibility and metacognition as writers move across contexts (Beach et al., 2016; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011).

But What About Digital Technologies? There was commonality in terms of practices related to the use of digital technologies for writing in the survey data. The most frequently reported practices across levels included completing writing assignments using word processing software, researching information online, and editing or revising one's

own work using word processing software, which shows an increase in the frequency of these activities when compared with earlier large-scale studies (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Purcell et al., 2013). An increase in technology use is logical as technology has become more accessible in schools in recent years and perhaps reflective of the influence of the CCSS's emphasis on the use of digital technologies to support 21st century writing goals. Yet, the frequency of these practices when compared with the others on the current survey shows that digital technologies may be used in perfunctory ways, replicating traditional academic literacies (Hicks, 2018; Howell et al., 2017; Hutchison & Colwell, 2014). Less frequently reported activities included digitally sharing work to a larger audience and producing multimodal texts. The limited use of multimodality reiterates the earlier findings of Applebee and Langer (2011) and Purcell et al. (2013).

It is difficult to determine from this research the extent to which digital technologies were used in writing instruction at both the high school and the college level, as well as the differences in their application across levels. In the survey data, there was no statistically significant difference in the means of the use of digital technologies reported by high school teachers and college professors, and level taught was not a statistically significant predictor of the digital technologies total scale score. Yet, it is difficult to contextualize any of the survey data because the discussion of digital writing practices was overwhelmingly absent in the interviews, despite questions directly related to practices related to the writing process and tools used to improve student writing. All comments regarding digital technologies were made in passing and occurred rarely (i.e., two of the 10 teachers mentioned giving feedback in Google Docs and one college professor mentioned that students did a multimodal component of one of their writing

pieces). Because conversations regarding the application of digital technologies were mostly nonexistent, it is difficult to determine whether the lack of frequency of multimodal text creations or sharing digitally with wider audiences is a result of teachers' beliefs about technology, access to technology for instructional purposes, limited professional development opportunities (Williams & Beam, 2019), external pressures, concerns about conventional writing practices, students' lack of relevant experience, (Howell et al., 2017), the challenge of engaging students in meaningful participation, logistical issues (Galvin & Greenhow, 2020), constraints of standardized curricula and assessments (Jensen & Shaughnessy, 2021), or time (L. L. Johnson, 2016), all of which have been documented as potential barriers to implementing digital technologies in writing instruction.

The application of digital technologies in the writing process is a topic worthy of further investigation, as writing is deeply influenced by the technologies available, and technologies can change the production, design, form, and social circulation of writing (Bazerman, 2016). As new technologies shift (or do not shift) writing expectations, it will be important to determine whether expectations will change across levels or if new norms will occur at one level but not the other. The findings of this dissertation project support that school continues to be a "profoundly laminate institution" (Prior, 2006, p. 62) that honors a narrow view of what counts as academic writing (Alvermann, 2003; Freedman et al., 2016; Gee & Hayes, 2011; Graham & Perin, 2007; Kwok et al., 2016; Street, 2009).

Theme 3: Differences in Argument

A third noteworthy theme that I identified in the converging of the results was that argument was the dominant purpose at both levels, but the kinds of argument writing varied by level, with clear discrepancies regarding the emphasis on research. This finding indicates that setting common purposes for writing (i.e., argument) is not enough to ensure vertical alignment.

Argument Across Levels. In the survey research, I found argument was the dominant purpose reported by high school and college educators alike. The emphasis on argument contradicts previous research, which indicated narrative is the primary purpose used at the high school level (Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014) and informative is the primary purpose used at the college level (Melzer, 2009). Some of this shift, at least at the high school level, may be attributed to the CCSS's emphasis on argument (Addison & McGee, 2016; Perin, 2013). The interviews complicated the survey data by highlighting a significant difference in the kinds of argument writing expected at both levels. The high school teachers, in line with the survey responses, valued argument writing, which supports that a focus on argument allows for the most student growth and applicability to future writing, while also aligning with the demands of the state tests. The examples of argument writing assignments were arguments rooted in class texts, the majority of which were fictional, and asking students to write to very specific prompts. The college professors also spoke about the importance and dominance of argument but framed their commentary around the importance of crafting a "researched argument," argument work that is open-ended, broad, and self-directed.

Thus, though the survey data reflected alignment between the two levels, there was great variability in expectations for argument. The highly structured, class novel-based argument assignments described by the high school teachers were different than the research-based and student-driven assignments described by the college professors, suggesting Rejan (2017) was correct in his assessment that despite the fact that the CCSS emphasize argument, these standards alone will not help to bridge the gap between the K-12 and college curriculum because the standards and subsequent exemplars narrowly define argument through Toulmin's formulaic, structural approach whereas at the college level, argument is seen as an event that leads to the exploration of ideas and the progression of knowledge. Sociocultural theorists believe that in order for students to be effective writers, they must have an understanding of genre that will allow them to create writing that is most appropriate for a given situation. It is expected that the norms of the different learning communities would be contextual, but because there is such variety in how argument is defined and what is expected across the two levels, it is logical that student writers may have difficulty adjusting to the differences, as the knowledge, reasoning, action, and evaluation criteria valued by the different communities demand that writing be adjusted (Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013; Ketter & Hunter, 2002).

Differences in Research Expectations. One of the greatest, most tangible differences in expectations between high school and college educators related to research practices. The survey and interview data both triangulated these differences. On the survey, college professors reported asking students to engage in research activities, gather relevant information from multiple authoritative digital sources, assess the strengths and limitations of sources, integrate their own ideas with the ideas of others, and follow a

standard format for citations more often than did the high school teachers. Additionally, there was a statistically significant difference in the means of the research practices reported by both groups of educators. These results aligned with the commentary from the high school instructors, which revealed a lack of research writing due to time, student preparation levels, and lack of resources, as well as the commentary from the college instructors, which revealed the importance of sourcing and synthesis in research. This very clear gap is not surprising given the existing literature. It is well-cited in earlier studies that research writing occurs rarely at the high school level (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Wilcox & Jeffery, 2014). Though the CCSS do have a portion dedicated to research, the Research to Build and Present Knowledge Standards, the effect of these standards is unclear, as the present research showed research writing continues to be used infrequently in high school. The present research aligns with previous research of research writing at the college level (Addison & McGee, 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Melzer, 2009), indicating research writing continues to be the "gold standard" of writing assignments for first-year college students (Yancey, 2009a, p. 265). Though it is clear that research is prioritized at the college level, it is expected that there is great variability in research expectations across the college level, as Melzer (2009) suggested with his categorization of "modernist" and "alternative" research papers, but examination of these distinctions was beyond the scope of the current research.

Though this research showed that argument (creating a claim and supporting that claim with evidence) was a critical writing purpose across levels, the difference in research expectations highlighted a major source of tension. Yancey (2009a) named sourcing and evaluation of information as one of the five major themes associated with

postsecondary literacy success, and the need for college students to be able to critically identify, evaluate, and synthesize sources is prevalent throughout the literature (Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Donham, 2014). Each of these practices is valued in the CCSS, yet the application of these practices in the high school classroom continues to differ from the application at the college level. As discussed, high school teachers continually referenced the controlling presence of standardized testing in curriculum design. The standards that are emphasized in high school are those that are assessed on the standardized testing. As such, until the tests are eliminated or redesigned or until teachers are provided with more time in the English classroom, it is likely that the discrepancy in research practices and tensions for students as they cross contexts will continue.

Theme 4: "Good" Writing "Depends"

The final theme I drew from the intersection of the results is that definitions of good writing were fluid, but there were differences in what educators most valued at each level value. These differences were well-supported in both the survey and interview data, suggesting a concrete area of tension as students shift contexts.

Good Writing is Contextual. The survey responses regarding the most important characteristics of good writing highlighted the range of "good" writing characteristics, as all of the 13 provided characteristics were selected and five high school teachers and 15 college professors chose to write in additional characteristics. This range of responses aligned with the interview findings that "good" writing "depends." At the high school level, teachers reported "good" writing depends on grade level, time of year, ability of students, and tasks at hand, whereas for college professors it depends on the rhetorical

situation. This fluidity again aligns with the sociocultural perspective that learning to write is highly contextual. Yet, ideas of correctness and goodness seem to hold particular weight when considering the influence of context. Educators act as sponsors who provide emergent writers with the resources, strategies, and practices they need to learn how to write. In turn, writers tend to conform to the ideologies of their sponsors (Alvermann, 2003; Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013). Because learners internalize the evaluation criteria valued by particular communities so they can participate in such communities (Bazerman, 2016; Gee, 2013; Ketter & Hunter, 2002), student frustration can occur when students apply strategies for "good" writing in new contexts, only to have these efforts unacknowledged or criticized. The variability in defining "good" writing is not unique to this study but is well-documented in studies that examined this topic at the college level (Addison & McGee, 2010; Appleman & Green, 1993; Brockman et al., 2010). Knowing this variability and the possible frustrations resulting from it, students would benefit from frank conversations regarding the subjectivity of writing feedback and the fact that "good" writing in one context (or at a point in time in one context) will not consistently be the standard for "good" writing.

Though the general trend in the data was that "good" writing "depends," an analysis of inferential survey statistics and the interview data reflected a divide between high school and college educators. When examining the survey data, at first glance it appeared as if there was not great variability in the characteristics of "good" writing between the groups because although they appeared in a different order, four of the top five most selected characteristics for both groups overlapped: organize ideas logically, develop a main idea, use supporting evidence appropriately, and write appropriately for

different purposes. Yet, further analyses aligned more with the findings of the interview data, in that high school educators placed a greater emphasis on grammar and structure, whereas college professors placed greater emphasis on rhetorical awareness and complexity of ideas.

High School Emphasis: Grammar and Structure. Level taught was a statistically significant predictor of the likelihood that a participant selected "Use correct grammar and syntax" and "Employ correct mechanics," with high school teachers being more likely to select these characteristics than college professors. This finding aligns with the survey data regarding practices related to grammar, with high school teachers reporting they taught grammar and sentence combining procedures more frequently than did college professors. In the interviews, the high school teachers revealed they believed students must have an understanding of grammar before they will be able to move on to more sophisticated writing techniques. They reported emphasizing correctness, despite the fact that grammar was not a skill that was evaluated on state exams, which highlights a tension between what the teachers value and what is valued on the state tests that have a controlling presence on the curriculum. In the college interviews, it was not that the educators just prioritized other characteristics of "good" writing, but rather they explicitly noted they did not emphasize grammar and correctness, standing in stark contrast to the secondary level reports.

Similarly, level taught was a statistically significant predictor of the likelihood that a participant would select "Organize ideas logically" and "Quote and paraphrase appropriately," with high school teachers being more likely than college professors to select these characteristics. Again, the interviews aligned with conversations heavily

rooted in formulaic approaches to writing, drawing on graphic organizers, acronyms to prompt order, and specific requirements for quoting and explaining textual evidence. Embedded in these conversations were notions of correctness (i.e., the correct location of a topic sentence, the correct number of sentences, the correct amount of evidence). Like the way grammar was described, these teachers believed a heavy emphasis on structure needed to come first, and once the structure was mastered, there would be greater room for creativity. For the high school teachers, structure was paramount, indicating teachers at this level may value a very prescriptive approach to writing. It has been well-documented that high school teachers do not feel prepared to teach writing (Gillespie et al., 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009), and based on the current findings, I wonder whether high school teachers rely heavily on grammar and structure instruction, more tangible and concrete writing elements, because they do not feel equipped to teach more abstract elements or whether this concentration on grammar and structure can be attributed to other factors such as student resistance to writing or that developmentally students are not yet ready for more abstract instruction. Further research could explore this topic further.

College Emphasis: Rhetoric and Uniqueness of Ideas. For the college professors, a major characteristic of "good" writing was rhetorical awareness. Level taught was a statistically significant predictor of the likelihood that a participant selected "Write appropriately for different audiences" and "Write appropriately for different purposes" with college professors over 200% more likely to select these characteristics than high school teachers. Additionally, professors who chose to write in a characteristic spoke of rhetorical fluency and rhetorical decision making. These findings aligned with the interview analysis, where each of the interviewed college-level participants spoke to

the importance of purpose and audience, using these rhetorical elements to define "good" writing and to assess student writing. The concept of rhetorical awareness was absent in the conversations with the high school teachers, indicating this concept was not emphasized to the same extent as at the college level. Of interest, Rives and Olsen (2015) cited that one of their greatest concerns with the CCSS is the absence of rhetorical awareness. That absence was clear in the testimonies of the high school teachers.

In addition to rhetorical awareness, the interviews with college professors noted that "good" writing takes risks, though this concept was absent from the survey responses. The college professors expressed concerns with the emphasis on structure valued at the high school level, attributing a lack of risk taking and stilted voice to an overemphasis on the importance of structure. For the college professors, it was more abstract writing qualities, which are tied to critical thinking, that were prioritized. The tendency of some of the college educators was to point blame at high school teachers for emphasizing formulaic structures that limit writers when they get to the college level, but the issue at hand is more complicated. One of the interviewed college professors, who previously taught at the secondary level, argued that college professors do not need to spend a ton of time on structure (and following the same argument, grammar) because these are skills students learned well at the secondary level. By this logic, because students have relative control over these aspects of "good" writing, college professors are then able to focus on more abstract concepts such as rhetorical awareness and risk taking. This belief aligns with the sociocultural concept that writing development occurs as students pass through multiple experiences (Bazerman, 2016), with writers being shaped by participation in each community. Thus, educators should not discount students'

previous experiences, but rather should share how those previous experiences may align or misalign with the cultural norms of the present community to allow for a smoother enculturation process.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

In this dissertation research, I explored the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators as a means of better understanding the documented writing gap that exists between high school and college (Achieve, Inc., 2005; ACT, 2005; Appleman & Green, 1993; Brockman et al., 2010; Brockman et al., 2011). Prior to the present research, there have been no comprehensive studies that directly compared the writing expectations of high school and college educators after the implementation of the CCSS, a policy measure created with the intention of better preparing high school students for college-level work (Addison & McGee, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2013; Perin, 2013; Troia et al., 2016). Though previous research maintained that the gap existed because of reports that students were not prepared for the demands of college-level writing (e.g., National Center for Education Statistics, 2012; Xu, 2016), the gap has been described as "undefinable" (Appleman & Green, 1993, p. 191). Yet, inherent in the findings of this study is that there are concrete, tangible similarities and differences in expectations, and it is an understanding of these similarities and differences, not just a set of standards, that can help students to better cross this threshold.

The most noteworthy finding regarding the overlap of expectations is that educators across contexts draw on a wide range of common communal practices to communicate expectations to students. In this study, there were documented findings and rich discussion of common practices, including teacher feedback, peer feedback, and modeling across levels. By drawing on these common approaches, educators demonstrate that they communicate expectations both explicitly and implicitly through the kinds of interactions they foster in their classrooms (Gee, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Lave &

Wenger, 1991). Though the exact genre conventions or most-valued characteristics of "good" writing may vary, the ways in which students are expected to learn the writing norms in the different communities are similar. This similarity is significant if made explicit for students, as understanding that students will learn to write in college through similar methods of how they learned to write in high school can help with context negotiation (Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011). In the discussion of the differences that follow, it will be helpful to root conversations about how to address these differences in this established common ground.

The differences in writing expectations found in this research fall into two different categories: evolving definitions of writing concepts and a clear gap in research expectations. There were tangible differences in how argument is defined (a claim with three supporting ideas rooted in a class text compared to a researched exploration of a topic of interest), how the writing process is defined (writing is done in stages compared to writing that is nonlinear, messy, and individualistic), and how "good" writing is defined ("good" writing is grammatically correct and well-organized compared to "good" writing that demonstrates rhetorical awareness, uniqueness of ideas, and risk taking). Yet, these differences are not irreconcilable, but rather they demonstrate a need for flexibility in thinking and expansion of understanding based on prior knowledge. Instead of viewing these differences as negative, they should be seen as a reiteration of what is already documented—that writing development occurs across a person's lifespan and is shaped by participation in various communities (Graham, 2019) and, as such, it is important for writers to pass through multiple experiences for writing development to occur (Bazerman, 2016). The work at the high school level regarding argument, the writing

process, and "good" writing lays a development framework for the more complex expectations at the college level. Across-level conversations, as called for by previous research (e.g., ACT, 2005; Graham & Perin, 2007; National Commission on Writing, 2003), should focus on how common writing concepts evolve so educators can work together to help students build bridges. The key to a successful transition may include specific instruction for students that writing is not a static construct and that in order to be successful, students must transform their knowledge from their previous experiences to adjust their writing in new contexts (Bazerman, 2016).

However, beyond the evolving definitions of common writing concepts, another key finding of this study was the clear gap in research expectations. Despite the presence of research practices in the CCSS, high school teachers reported infrequent opportunities related to research writing, resulting from a range of factors (i.e., lack of time, lack of student confidence, lack of administration support, lack of available resources). Taken together with the strong emphasis placed on research by the college professors, found both in this research and in prior research (Addison & McGee, 2010; Brockman et al., 2011; Melzer, 2009; Yancey, 2009a), this difference signifies an area where students may be unprepared for college expectations, not due to more expansive definitions, but instead due to a fundamental lack of prior knowledge.

The implication of this finding regarding the lack of research at the high school level is that the CCSS alone will not be enough to bridge the gap between high school and college, for research is prioritized in the standards but not in the high school classroom. The creators of the CCSS were explicit in stating the standards provide the benchmarks for students, but teachers are free to use their "professional judgment and

experience" in terms of how these goals are actualized (Common Core State Standards Initiative, n.d., para. 4.). Though this study did reveal shifts in high school writing practices that may be attributed to the CCSS (i.e., increased attention to argument, increased attention to citing textual evidence), it was clear that at the high school level, it is not the CCSS that are dictating curriculum decisions, but rather the corresponding state assessments. The genres and purposes assessed on these exams dominate the curriculum, perhaps offering insight as to why research writing is not given sufficient time in the high school classroom. The same is likely also true for multimodal texts, though this is less relevant for the current exploration, as this was minimally reported at the college level as well. With the controlling presence of the state exams, high school teachers' ability to use their professional judgment is limited. Until these exams are eliminated or reconfigured, it is likely safe to assume that time dedicated to research writing will continue to be minimal.

Implications

This work was rooted in a pragmatic worldview, as in this dissertation research I aimed to better understand a problem and use the research to guide potential solutions. I used a mixed methods design to draw on pluralistic approaches to gain knowledge about the similarities and differences in expectations at the secondary and postsecondary levels for writing (Creswell, 2015; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Because prior existing research failed to concurrently examine high school and college-level writing expectations after the implementation of the CCSS, I can use the findings of this research to advise future practices. Although large-scale replication is needed, the findings from this study can inform the decision making of both policymakers and practitioners. As I understand that

the findings from this study are not generalizable, I cautiously make the following recommendations.

Policymakers

Policymakers can look to the findings of this study to consider the effects of the CCSS, which are important as state departments of education decide whether or not to continue to use the standards, how to revise the standards, how to educate teachers on the standards, and how to assess the standards. If the goal of the CCSS is to better prepare students for college and career readiness, this examination of teacher expectations provides insight on how the standards are (and are not) affecting instruction. At the federal level, I recommend that policymakers consider adding a rhetorical awareness aspect to the CCSS, as college professors in this research stressed this element of "good" writing, though high school teachers did not. If the standards are meant to better prepare students for college and career readiness, then it would be logical to consider adding a section of the standards dedicated to rhetoric as a means to better help bridge the gap for students.

At the state level, I recommend that policymakers reconsider what the standardized testing assesses. Currently, there are standards that address research and multimodal writing practices, yet they are used far less frequently than the practices associated with the other standards. I hypothesize, based on the findings of this study, that this discrepancy is related to the fact that research and multimodality are not assessed on the state exams. Creating authentic assessments that prioritize these practices would likely increase the frequency of use at the high school level, in turn better preparing students for the college research requirements and multimodality beyond school. The

need for greater attention to multimodal writing practices is relevant for policymakers at the college level as well.

Related to this call for more authentic assessments is the need for policymakers to make research a priority at the high school level. This dissertation research showed the gap in writing expectations for research is wide. At the district level, policymakers should aim to encourage research in high schools with a particular focus on making research resources accessible to students and reconsidering the emphasis on the junior year research paper to better support student research development across the high school years.

Educators

High school teachers and college professors alike can use the findings of this study to better develop their own curricula and understandings of students. First, I recommend that educators reflect on the commonalities between the groups found in this research and then help students make explicit the connections between the two communities. This research showed teachers draw on common ideologies (i.e., writing is a process), common practices (i.e., peer feedback, mentor texts), common purposes (i.e., argument), and common characteristics of "good" writing (i.e., organization, attention to purpose). Educators across levels should be explicit about these commonalities as a way to foster the metacognition necessary to help students successfully transfer contexts. Second, I recommend that educators make their expectations explicit and communicate with students that there is not a singular definition of "good" writing or how it is crafted. This research revealed differences in how the process approach is enacted, how argument is defined, how often research is expected, and the most important characteristics of

"good" writing. Educators should teach students that writing is contextual and, as such, requires openness and flexibility. Clear expectations on the part of educators can help students learn the demands of the particular community.

Third, secondary and postsecondary educators need to communicate with one another. The call for communication and greater vertical alignment is found throughout the literature (i.e., Addison & McGee, 2010; Tremmel, 2001), but this research can serve as a catalyst for such conversation as it provided a snapshot of what teachers are doing at each level and noted possible areas of tension. Secondary–postsecondary partnerships and mentoring programs could allow educators at both levels to better understand the contextual factors shaping curriculum decisions, spark conversations about how to better ease transitions for students, and identify further commonalities and differences to help make shifting expectations more explicit for students. In these collaborative conversations, educators should discuss the future of writing instruction. Technology is shifting the way students are writing outside of school, yet results of this study show we still do not know the extent to which these technological shifts are affecting classroom practices. Collaborative conversations will allow educators across levels to consider these shifts together. As current standards demand consideration of digital technologies to enhance writing instruction, secondary and postsecondary partnerships can enable educators to engage in open dialogue to define new writing practices together.

Limitations

Though this study provided important descriptive information that is not currently available, there were limitations. This research was limited in the sampling methods used,

the wide range of the comparison groups, the survey time breakdowns, and the reliance on self-reported data.

The Sampling Methods

This research was limited by the focus on the self-reported ideas of a relatively small number of educators who were recruited using convenience and snowball sampling. For the survey respondents, I targeted professional development Facebook groups with large numbers of members. I cannot assume teachers who are active members of professional development groups are representative of U.S. educators as a whole, which limits the generalizability of the results. It is my hope that this research can later be replicated on a larger scale, drawing from a randomized population. In terms of the interview component, I recruited interview participants from the survey participants and made the intentional decision to interview the first five volunteers in each group because I wanted to expedite the data collection process and capitalize on the opportunity to interview those who were interested. Though selecting participants this way did end up leading to a diverse group of participants who shared interesting and relevant experiences, none of the high school teachers interviewed taught at the 12th-grade level. Because I am interested in the writing gap that exists between high school and college, I believe future research should look specifically at 12th-grade teachers, as they are the teachers who influence students' perceptions of writing expectations just before they go to college.

Comparison Groups

In this research, because of its exploratory nature, I used high school and college educators as the two groups of comparison. Yet, I know there are many subgroups that

may provide further insights into the perceived writing gap and differences in writing expectations. At the high school level, the interviews from this research revealed ninth-grade writing expectations were different than 12th-grade writing expectations and the remedial course expectations were different than advanced placement courses. Similarly, I expect that 2-year college expectations may look different than the expectations at a 4-year institution (Toth et al., 2019), and the academic tiers of the schools may also reflect different expectations. In future research, I could look more specifically at the subgroups that exist, as I believe examining the subgroups may help to explain some of the variance in writing expectations.

Survey Time Breakdown

I worked to create a time scale for the survey questions that would be comparable for both high school and college educators. Because they operate on different schedules (i.e., full year compared to semester/meeting daily compared to meeting multiple days per week), this breakdown was not perfect. In particular, two college professors noted their classes only met once a week, so there was no distinction between weekly and daily for them, and another professor noted theirs was an online class, so it was difficult to gauge the frequency with which students were engaging with certain practices. These teacher comments provided insight into some of the logistical issues associated with comparing groups on different schedules, so timeframes should be reconsidered if this study were to be replicated on a larger scale.

Self-Reported Data

This research also drew on self-reported data and the assumption that teachers were able to accurately report their teaching practices. In particular, the survey items

were not accompanied by descriptions and there was no way to know whether the survey items were interpreted the same way by each group of teachers. The possibility of variability was highlighted by the wide range of ways in which "argument" was defined in the interviews, a complexity that was definitely not represented in the corresponding survey item. Next steps should also include data beyond self-reported information. Such data could include observational work at both the high school and college level, as well as analysis of assignments, rubrics, and student writing.

Future Research

This dissertation research provided insight into some potential areas of commonality and areas of tension regarding the general writing expectations of high school English teachers and college composition professors. To determine whether the results can be generalized to educators across the United States, this research should be replicated on a larger scale, drawing from random sampling measures and considering subgroups by region, type of institution, and level taught. This repeated research would offer a fuller picture than the existing study and could confirm some of the themes that I identified.

More narrowly, additional research is needed to explore some of the more nuanced findings of this study. First, I found there was an increase in reported frequency of using some digital technologies to assist in writing instruction when compared with earlier studies (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Purcell et al., 2013), but a limited use of multimodality. Because the interviewed teachers did not expand upon their use of digital technologies, it is difficult from this research to determine the extent to which digital technologies are influencing writing instruction. Further research should include specific

interview questions asking about the applicability of specific digital tools and how they are influencing writing instruction, as well as include classroom observations for verification.

Second, the 10 interviewees in this research revealed that high school and college educators draw on different definitions of and expectations for argument writing. Because these differences in expectations could be an area of potential tension as students cross from one community to the next, this topic is worthy of additional attention. It is logical that the present research revealed an increase in argument writing when compared to earlier comprehensive studies of high school because of the implementation of the CCSS. Yet, if the expectations for argument are drastically different, then the increase in frequency at the high school level will not necessarily relate to increased preparedness for college. A content analysis of high school and college writing assignments, as well as samples of student work, could be used to explore this concept further.

Last, the CCSS were created to increase college readiness. Though the standards include portions on research-based writing and the use of multimodality, these concepts were described as largely ignored at the high school level. This study showed the standards emphasized in the classroom are those that appear on the standardized tests for each state. It would be interesting to explore teacher autonomy in relation to curriculum building by comparing the curriculum decisions of high school teachers who are required to prepare students for a state exam to the decisions of those who are not.

Closing Comments

The findings of this study reveal that secondary and postsecondary educators draw on common ideologies, practices, purposes, and characteristics of "good" writing.

Despite these commonalities, there are clear differences in how argument is defined, how the writing process is defined, which characteristics of "good" writing are most valued, and how often research writing occurs across levels. It should be noted here that not all of these differences should be considered negative, but instead reflect a developmental approach to writing that spirals in complexity. Yet, because of these cited differences, a major takeaway from this study is that the CCSS alone will not be enough to bridge the writing gap, for the way in which educators across levels define the terms used in the CCSS vary and the extent to which each standard is emphasized at the high school level appears to depend on its prevalence on the standardized state exams. Though the CCSS may serve as a starting point, the key to a successful transition from high school to college may include specific instruction for students that writing expectations shift as contexts shift and they must draw on the practices of flexibility and metacognition to transform their knowledge from their previous experiences to adjust their writing in new contexts.

APPENDIX A

IRB Approval

Federal Wide Assurance: FWA00009066

May 14, 2021 3:27:40 PM EDT

PI: Lauren Gibbons
CO-PI: Olivia Stewart
Education Specialties

Re: Expedited Review - Initial - IRB-FY2021-445 Secondary and Postsecondary Educators' Writing Expectations after the Implementation of the Common Core State Standards

Dear Lauren Gibbons:

The St John's University Institutional Review Board has rendered the decision below for Secondary and Postsecondary Educators' Writing Expectations after the Implementation of the Common Core State Standards. The approval is effective from May 13, 2021 through May 13, 2022.

Decision: Approved

PLEASE NOTE: If you have collected any data prior to this approval date, the data must be discarded.

Selected Category: 2b. Collection of blood samples by finger stick, heel stick, ear stick, or venipuncture from other adults and children, considering the age, weight, and health of the subjects, the collection procedure, the amount of blood to be collected, and the frequency with which it will be collected. For these subjects, the amount drawn may not exceed the lesser of 50 ml or 3 ml per kg in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week.
Sincerely,

Raymond DiGiuseppe, PhD, ABPP
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Professor of Psychology

Marie Nitopi, Ed.D.
IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX B

Recruitment Post

Hi! My name is Lauren Gibbons, and I'm a doctoral student at St. John's University. If you are a high school English teacher or a college composition professor, please consider filling out this quick, ten minute survey on writing expectations. Please share with colleagues as well!

Survey Link: https://stjohnssoe.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_9sgOOKl67WN74LY

APPENDIX C

Survey Consent Form

Survey Consent Form

Dear Participant:

You have been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators. This study will be conducted by Lauren Gibbons, Department of Education Specialties, St. John's University, as part of her doctoral dissertation. Her faculty sponsor is Dr. Olivia Stewart, Department of Education Specialties. If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey to help the researcher understand the range of writing that occurs in your classroom, how often you utilize different writing activities for instruction, how often your students engage in different writing activities, and how you define the characteristics of good writing. Participation in this study will take approximately ten minutes of your time.

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those associated with everyday life. Federal regulations require that all subjects be informed of the availability of medical treatment or financial compensation in the event of physical injury resulting from participation in the research. St. John's University cannot provide either medical treatment or financial compensation for any physical injury resulting from your participation in this research project. Inquiries regarding this policy may be made to the principal investigator or, alternatively, the Human Subjects Review Board (718-990-1440).

Participation in this research may help the investigator understand the writing norms created through teachers' expectations at the secondary and postsecondary levels. Each participant will be entered to win one $50 Amazon gift card. All names will be entered into a random name generator, and one participant will be selected. The gift card will be emailed to the selected participant at the conclusion of the data collection period.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained by replacing your name and any other identifiers with a survey number. All data will be kept secure in a password protected folder. Your responses will be kept confidential with the following exception: the researcher is required by law to report to the appropriate authorities, suspicion of harm to yourself, to children, or to others.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. You have the right to skip or not answer any questions you prefer not to answer.

If there is anything about the study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, if you have questions, or if you wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact Lauren Gibbons, lauren.gibbons18@my.stjohns.edu, (631)

592-8270, St. John's University, 8000 Utopia Parkway, Queens, NY, 11439 or the faculty sponsor, Dr. Olivia Stewart, stewarto@stjohns.edu, (718) 990-8098, St. John's University, 8000 Utopia Parkway, Sullivan Hall Rm 419, Queens, NY, 11439.

For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University's Institutional Review Board, St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, Chair digiuser@stjohns.edu 718-990-1955 or Marie Nitopi, IRB Coordinator, nitopim@stjohns.edu 718-990-1440.

If you desire, please print this consent form.

Agreement to Participate

By typing your name in the box below, you agree to participate in the research.

_____

APPENDIX D

Interview Consent

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY

Interview Consent Form

Dear Participant:

You have been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the writing expectations of secondary and postsecondary educators. This study will be conducted by Lauren Gibbons, Department of Education Specialties, St. John's University, as part of her doctoral dissertation. Her faculty sponsor is Dr. Olivia Stewart, Department of Education Specialties. If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to take part in a digital interview where you will discuss how you define your role as a co-author of student writing, the contextual factors that shape writing expectations, and how you use tools and strategies to support student writing. Your interviews will be recorded. The recordings will not be published but rather will be transcribed and analyzed. All recordings will be stored in a password protected file. The recordings will be destroyed after the completion of the study. Participation in this study will take approximately 30-60 minutes of your time.

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those associated with everyday life. Federal regulations require that all subjects be informed of the availability of medical treatment or financial compensation in the event of physical injury resulting from participation in the research. St. John's University cannot provide either medical treatment or financial compensation for any physical injury resulting from your participation in this research project. Inquiries regarding this policy may be made to the principal investigator or, alternatively, the Human Subjects Review Board (718-990-1440).

Participation in this research may help the investigator understand the writing norms created through teachers' expectations at the secondary and postsecondary levels. I will also share findings of the study once analysis is completed. At the completion of the interview, each participant will be emailed a $25 Amazon gift card.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained by replacing your name and any other identifiers with a pseudonym. A master list with real names and pseudonyms will be created and stored with this consent form in a password protected folder. Your responses will be kept confidential with the following exception: the researcher is required by law to report to the appropriate authorities, suspicion of harm to yourself, to children, or to others.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. You have the right to skip or not answer any questions you prefer not to answer.

If there is anything about the study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, if you have questions or if you wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact Lauren Gibbons, lauren.gibbons18@my.stjohns.edu, (631)

592-8270, St. John's University, 8000 Utopia Parkway, Queens, NY, 11439 or the faculty sponsor, Dr. Olivia Stewart, stewarto@stjohns.edu, (718) 990-8098, St. John's University, 8000 Utopia Parkway, Sullivan Hall Rm 419, Queens, NY, 11439.

For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University's Institutional Review Board, St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, Chair digiuser@stjohns.edu 718-990-1955 or Marie Nitopi, IRB Coordinator, nitopim@stjohns.edu 718-990-1440.

Please print a copy of the consent form for your records, if you desire.

Agreement to Participate

Yes, I agree to participate.

Date _____

Print Name

_____

Subject's Signature

_____

APPENDIX E

Survey

Part 1
Demographic Information

Level Taught
High School English
College English/Composition

How many years have you been teaching at this level?
(Fill in)

What is your highest degree?
Bachelor's Degree
Bachelor's Plus Additional Credits
Master's Degree
Master's Degree Plus Additional Credits
Doctoral Degree
Doctoral Degree Plus Additional Credits

In what state do you currently teach?
(Drop down selection)

Part 2
Please identify how often students in your class:
***Note: For this survey, a semester is defined as a four month period.**

Purpose	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Write arguments					
Write informative/ explanatory texts					
Write narratives					

Part 3a
Please identify how often students in your class:

Writing Activity	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Compose short pieces of ungraded writing					
Compose a 1-2 page graded writing assignment					

Compose a 3-4 page graded writing assignment					
Compose a 5-6 page graded writing assignment					
Compose a 7-8 page graded writing assignment					
Compose a 9-10 page graded writing assignment					
Compose an 11 + page graded writing assignment					

Part 3b

Please identify how often students in your class:

Writing Activity	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Compose a piece of writing in a single sitting					
Compose a piece of writing over a week timeframe					
Compose a piece of writing over a month timeframe					

Part 3c

Please identify how often students in your class:

Writing Activity	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is the instructor					
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is peers					
Compose a piece of writing where the intended audience is oneself					
Compose a piece of writing where the					

intended audience goes beyond that of the classroom					

Part 4
Please identify how often you:

Writing Activity	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Teach strategies for planning how or what to write					
Teach strategies for revising written material					
Teach strategies for editing written material					
Teach strategies for summarizing reading materials					
Establish specific goals for what students are to include in their written assignments					
Have students collaborate when writing (students work together to plan, draft, revise, and edit)					
Teach students how to write complex sentences using sentence combining procedures					
Have students engage in prewriting activities (i.e., reading and completing a graphic organizer) to help them gather and organize possible writing ideas.					

Use a process approach to writing instruction					
Have students study and emulate/imitate models of good writing					
Have students use writing as a tool for subject-matter learning					
Have students use self-monitoring strategies to monitor their writing performance and writing goals (i.e., rubrics or checklists)					
Provide students verbal phrase when they write					
Use direct instruction methods (modeling, guided practice, and review)					
Teach grammar					

Part 5

Please identify how often students in your class:

Student Activity	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Complete writing assignments using word processing software (i.e., Microsoft Word)					
Research information online					
Share their work to a larger audience (i.e., on a website, wiki, or blog)					
Edit or revise their own work using word processing software or collaborative web-					

based tool (i.e., Google Docs)					
Edit others' work or give others feedback using word processing software or collaborative web-based tool (i.e., Google Docs)					
Produce digital texts that utilize more than one mode (i.e., audio, image, video, and text)					

Part 6

Please identify how often students in your class:

Research Practice	Never	Once/Semester	Once/Month	Once/Week	Daily
Engage in inquiry/research writing activities					
Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support writing					
Gather relevant information from multiple authoritative digital sources					
Assess the strengths and limitations of each source					
Integrate own ideas with the ideas of others in writing					
Follow a standard format for citations					

Part 7

Please select what you consider to be the five most important characteristics of good writing.

Characteristics of Good Writing
Write appropriately for different audiences
Write appropriately for different purposes
Organize ideas logically

Develop a main idea
Use paragraphs appropriately
Use supporting evidence appropriately
Analyze data/ideas/arguments
Synthesize information from multiple sources
Appropriately use, cite, and document sources
Quote and paraphrase appropriately
Record data and/or use detail
Use correct grammar and syntax
Employ correct mechanics (e.g., spelling)
Other (please describe in space provided in next question)

Part 8
If desired, please use this space to explain any of your answers.
(Fill in)
Part 9
Please provide your email address to enter gift card drawing.
(Fill in)
Would you be interested in doing an interview on writing expectations? All selected interviewees will receive a $25 Amazon gift card.
Yes, please contact me.
No, thank you.

APPENDIX F

Survey Construction Matrix

Survey Part & Construct	Related CCSS	Related Research	Theoretical Principle
Part 1: Demographic Data Construct: Independent Variables of Interest	N/A	N/A	Role of Context
Part 2: Purposes Construct: Range of Writing	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.1 CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.2 CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.3	Gillespie et al. (2013) Kiuhara et al. (2009) Melzer (2009) Wilcox & Jeffery (2014)	Role of Context Teacher as Co-Author
Part 3: Ranges of Length, Time, and Audiences Construct: Range of Writing	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.10	Applebee & Langer (2011)	Role of Context Teacher as Co-Author
Part 4: Utilized Writing Activities Construct: Production and Distribution of Writing	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.5	Addison & McGee (2010) Applebee & Langer (2011) Kiuhara et al. (2009)	Teacher as Co-Author Cultural Tools Procedural Facilitators
Part 5: Use of Digital Technologies Construct: Production and Distribution of Writing	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.6	Applebee & Langer (2011) Kiuhara et al. (2009) Purcell et al. (2013)	Cultural Tools Procedural Facilitators
Part 6: Research Tasks Construct: Research to Build and Present Knowledge	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.7 CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.8	ACT (2020) Donham (2014) Yancey (2009a)	Teacher as Co-Author

	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.9		
Part 7: Defining Good Writing Construct: Production and Distribution of Writing	CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.11-12.4	Addison & McGee (2010) Brockman et al. (2010) Melzer (2009)	Teacher as Co-Author

APPENDIX G

Interview Questions

Ice Breaker: What courses do you currently teach? Roughly what percentage of your course time is spent on writing instruction?

Teacher as co-author:

How do you define "writing"?

How do you define your role as a writing teacher?

In your class, what makes a piece of student writing "good"?

Context:

What institutional factors do you feel most influence your curricular decisions for writing instruction?

How did you learn how to teach writing? Did you have any specific training in your own studies or through your current institution?

In your class, what is a writing project that you feel best fosters the growth of your students as writers? Why?

Tools/Procedural Facilitators:

What tools (such as graphic organizers, particular strategies, or a specific curriculum) do you use most often to help students with writing?

What aspects of the writing process do students need the most help with when entering your classroom?

How do you go about planning to support students in these areas?

APPENDIX H

Initial Values Codes

High School Data Initial Codes
Accommodations for Struggling Writers
Accommodations for Students Who Don't Do the Work
Acronyms as Supports for Format
Acronyms to Breakdown Prompt
Adjusts Curriculum Based on Abilities
Allocation of Class Time
AP PDs
Autonomy in How to Teach
Autonomy to Create Curriculum
Autonomy to Create Curriculum
Better Speakers Than Writers
Beyond 5 Paragraph Model
Beyond Summary
Brainstorming
Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts
Budget Limitations
Can't Use Strategies They Have
Changes to Conferences Due to COVID
Concerns About Being Prepared for College
Conference Check-Ins
Difficulty with Conferences
Difficulty with Counterclaim
Difficulty with Synthesis
Elaboration Strategies as Supports
Emphasis on Argument
Example of Process
Focus on Literature, Not Language
Formulas Before Freedom
Formulas to Increase Student Success
Freedom of Choice
Freedom of Choice
Frustrations as Bridge Crosser
Good Writing At Conclusion of Freshman Year
Good Writing Changes Across the Years
Good Writing Effectively Communicates
Good Writing Is Dependent on Context
Good Writing is Rooted in Textual Evidence
Google Doc Check-Ins
Holistic Feedback Check Ins
Importance of Breaking Down Assignment
Importance of Writing Outside of School

Increasing Student Comfort With Writing
Lack of Autonomy to Create Curriculum
Lack of Punctuation/Capitalization
Late Policies
Laziness with Writing
Learning to Teach Writing By Looking at What You Don't Want
Learning to Teach Writing from Course Text
Learning to Teach Writing in College
Learning to Write as A Child
Learning to Write for Fun
Learning to Write in College
Less Writing Time Due to COVID
Limitations of Tasks on Standardized Tests
Limitations of Texts on Standardized Tests
Limited Time for Teacher Conferences
Master Teachers as Mentors
Mastery of 5 Paragraph Model
Meets Students Where They Are
Mentor Texts
Model Writing
Need for Time
No Time for Research
Novel-Based Writing
Outlines and Sentence Stems as Supports
Outlines as Confidence Building
Paragraph Model
PDs from School
PDs on Own Time
Peer Review
PLCS
Positions Self As Student
Predictable Rubrics
Research Expectations
Resistance to Revision
Resistance to Writing
Revision Exercises
Selection of Engaging Texts
Shouldn't Emphasize Grammar
Standardized Testing Emphasis on Multiple Choice
Standards as Influence on Curriculum
State Testing as Influence on Curriculum
Strategies for Planning
Students Haven't Achieved Good Writing Yet
Students Struggle with Planning
Students Struggle with Starting
Teacher as Authority

Teacher as Chef
Teacher as Encourager
Teacher as Guide
Teacher as Mover
Teacher as Standards Keeper
Teacher Frustration Regarding Ignored Comments
Teachers As Unsure of How to Teach Writing
Writing as a Process
Writing as Communication
Writing as Contingent on Audience/Purpose
Writing as Dependent on Genre
Writing as Expression
Writing as Translating Talk
Writing Beyond School
Writing Comes Easy to Teacher
Writing Expectations on Standardized Tests
Writing Focus Dependent on Grade
Writing in One Sitting, Compared to Extended Writing Expectations
Writing Is Never Perfect

College Initial Codes
Adjusts Curriculum Based on Students
Autonomy in Curriculum
Autonomy in How to Teach
Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts
Challenge of Teaching Writing When Good Writer
Class Discussions
CLCs
Clear Expectations
Departmental Meetings
Departmental Requirements
Departmental Symposium
Desire to Create Common Expectations
Focus on rhetorical situation, audience, and purpose
Good Writing Achieves Purpose
Good Writing As Effective Communication
Good Writing as Readable
Good Writing Depends on Genre, Audience, Purpose
Good Writing is Controlled by a Unified Idea
Good Writing Makes Student Proud
Good Writing Shows Complexity in Thinking
Grammar in Context
Importance of Breaking Down the Assignment
Importance of Ideas
Importance of Modeling Writing Process for Students
Importance of Research Skills

Importance of Teaching Transferrable Skills Needed Beyond Comp
Lack of Training for Adjuncts
Lack of Transfer Across Comp 1 and Comp 2
Learning to Teach Through Scoring AP Tests
Learning to Teach Writing as a Secondary Teacher
Learning to Teach Writing as a TA
Learning to Teach Writing As Fulbright Fellow
Learning to Teach Writing in Apprenticeship Program (like T.A)
Learning to Teach Writing in Writing Centers
Learning to Teach Writing Through College
Learning to Teach Writing Through Practice
Limitations of HS Focus on Timed Writing
Limited Use of Templates
LMS
Meets Students Where They Are
Mentors Texts
Modeling for Students that Process is Difficult
Paradox Resulting From Standardized Testing Model in Secondary Schools
PDs on Own
Peer Review
Portfolio of Writing Process
Practice Exercises
Process as Highly Individualistic
Process As Not Perfectly Linear
Range of Student Choice
Reflects on Own Experiences as Writer
Research Practices
Rhetorical Analysis Website
Shell Course
Slack Correspondence
Statewide Learning Outcomes
Strategies for Revision
Student Learning Objectives
Students Struggle Finding Own Voice
Students Struggle With Forming Ideas
Students Struggle with Revision
Students Struggle with Starting
Students Struggle with Topic Selection
Teacher as ‘Demystifier’
Teacher as Coach
Teacher as Experience Friend
Teacher as Sherpa
Teacher Conferences
Teacher Directed Supports
Teacher feedback
Tension: Process Approach Isn’t Valued Outside of Comp

Time Allocation Based on Weaknesses
Too Many Students to Teach Well
Variability from Teacher to Teacher
Wide Range of Faculty Prior Training
WPA Outcomes Statement
Writing as Communicating
Writing as Documentation
Writing as Idea Sharing
Writing as Inventing ideas
Writing as Words in Readable Form
Writing Beyond Course
Writing Beyond School
Writing Process as Difficult

APPENDIX I

Codes Reorganized by Pattern

High School Codes by Pattern

1. **Expectation Variability Based off of Grade & Level**
    a. Fluid-Definition of Good Writing
        i. Good Writing Changes Across the Years
        ii. Good Writing Is Dependent on Context
        iii. Good Writing At Conclusion of Freshman Year
        iv. Good Writing Effectively Communicates
        v. Shouldn't Emphasize Grammar
        vi. Good Writing is Rooted in Textual Evidence
        vii. Students Haven't Achieved Good Writing Yet
        viii. Writing in One Sitting, Compared to Extended Writing Expectations
    b. Differences in Expectations for Rigor
        i. Writing Focus Dependent on Grade
    c. Range of Student Abilities
        i. Adjusts Curriculum Based on Abilities
        ii. Freedom of Choice
        iii. Meets Students Where They Are
        iv. Accommodations for Struggling Writers
2. **Limited Time & Freedom**
    a. Time Limitations
        i. Allocation of Class Time
        ii. Less Writing Time Due to COVID
        iii. Focus on Literature, Not Language
    b. Issues of Autonomy
        i. Autonomy to Create Curriculum
        ii. Lack of Autonomy to Create Curriculum
        iii. Autonomy in How to Teach
    c. Influence of State Testing
        i. State Testing as Influence on Curriculum
        ii. Writing Expectations on Standardized Tests
        iii. Standardized Testing Emphasis on Multiple Choice
        iv. Limitations of Texts on Standardized Tests
        v. Limitations of Tasks on Standardized Tests
    d. Influence of Standards
        i. Standards as Influence on Curriculum
    e. What Teachers Prioritize
        i. Autonomy to Create Curriculum
        ii. Novel-Based Writing
        iii. Selection of Engaging Texts

iv. Emphasis on Argument
v. Writing Beyond School

f. What Teachers Can't/Don't Prioritize
i. Research Expectations
ii. No Time for Research
iii. Can't Use Strategies They Have
iv. Budget Limitations

g. Teacher Acknowledgement of Student Unpreparedness
i. Concerns About Being Prepared for College
ii. Importance of Writing Outside of School
iii. Need for Time
iv. Frustrations as Bridge Crosser

3. Writing as Process

a. Defining Writing
i. Writing as a Process
ii. Writing as Expression
iii. Writing as Communication
iv. Writing as Dependent on Genre
v. Writing as Contingent on Audience/Purpose

b. Teacher Role
i. Teacher as Authority
ii. Teacher as Chef
iii. Teacher as Encourager
iv. Teacher as Mover
v. Teacher as Standards Keeper
vi. Teacher as Guide
vii. Tensions with Concept of Mastery vs. Continuum
1. Writing Is Never Perfect
2. Mastery of 5 Paragraph Model

c. Student Resistance/Reliance on Talk
i. Increasing Student Comfort With Writing
ii. Writing as Translating Talk
iii. Better Speakers Than Writers
iv. Resistance to Writing
v. Laziness with Writing
vi. Lack of Punctuation/Capitalization
vii. Teacher Frustration Regarding Ignored Comments
viii. Accommodations for Students Who Don't Do the Work
ix. Late Policies

d. Breaking Down Assignments into Parts
i. Importance of Breaking Down Assignment
ii. Example of Process
iii. Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts

e. Difficulties in Writing Process
    i. Starting
        1. Students Struggle with Starting
        2. Students Struggle with Planning
        3. Strategies for Planning
        4. Freedom of Choice
    ii. Revising
        1. Resistance to Revision
        2. Revision Exercises
    iii. Critical Thinking
        1. Beyond Summary
        2. Difficulty with Counterclaim
        3. Difficulty with Synthesis

4. Teacher Supports

a. Scaffolds
    i. Brainstorming
    ii. Value of Formulas
        1. Formulas to Increase Student Success
        2. Formulas Before Freedom
    iii. Graphic Organizers/Sentence Stems
        1. Outlines and Sentence Stems as Supports
        2. Outlines as Confidence Building
    iv. Acronyms
        1. Acronyms as Supports for Format
        2. Acronyms to Breakdown Prompt
    v. Elaboration Strategies as Supports
    vi. 5 Paragraph Model
        1. Beyond 5 Paragraph Model

b. Interactive Practices
    i. Peer Review
    ii. Teacher Conferences
        1. Conference Check-Ins
        2. Google Doc Check-Ins
        3. Holistic Feedback Check Ins
        4. Changes to Conferences Due to COVID
        5. Limited Time for Teacher Conferences
        6. Difficulty with Conferences
    iii. Mentor Texts
    iv. Model Writing
    v. Predictable Rubrics

5. Nonlinear Ways of Learning to Teach Writing

a. Own Experiences As Writer
    i. Learning to Write as A Child

ii. Learning to Write in College
iii. Learning to Write for Fun
iv. Writing Comes Easy to Teacher

b. Specific Trainings
i. Learning to Teach Writing in College
ii. PDs on Own Time
iii. PDs from School
iv. AP PDs

c. Learning Through Experiences
i. Learning to Teach Writing By Looking at What You Don't Want
ii. Master Teachers as Mentors
iii. PLCS
iv. Positions Self As Student
v. Learning to Teach Writing from Course Text

d. Teacher Options of Writing
i. Teachers As Unsure of How to Teach Writing

College Codes Organized by Pattern

1) Fluid Definition of Good Writing

a) Definition of Good Writing
i) Good Writing Makes Student Proud
ii) Good Writing Achieves Purpose
iii) Good Writing is Controlled by a Unified Idea
iv) Good Writing Shows Complexity in Thinking
v) Good Writing As Effective Communication
vi) Good Writing Depends on Genre, Audience, Purpose
vii) Good Writing as Readable

b) Range of Student Abilities
i) Meets Students Where They Are
ii) Too Many Students to Teach Well
iii) Adjusts Curriculum Based on Students

2) Autonomy & Choice

a) What Guides Course
i) Student Learning Objectives
ii) Statewide Learning Outcomes
iii) WPA Outcomes Statement
iv) Departmental Requirements

b) Teaching Autonomy
i) Autonomy in Curriculum
ii) Autonomy in How to Teach
iii) Variability from Teacher to Teacher
iv) Lack of Transfer Across Comp 1 and Comp 2
v) Desire to Create Common Expectations

vi) Shell Course

c) What Teachers Prioritize
   i) Writing Beyond School
   ii) Writing Beyond Course
   iii) Importance of Teaching Transferrable Skills Needed Beyond Comp
   iv) Range of Student Choice
   v) Importance of Ideas
   vi) Research Practices
   vii) Importance of Research Skills
   viii) Paradox Resulting From Standardized Testing Model in Secondary Schools
   ix) Limitations of HS Focus on Timed Writing

3) Writing as Process

a) Defining Writing
   i) Writing as Documentation
   ii) Writing as Inventing ideas
   iii) Writing as Communicating
   iv) Writing as Idea Sharing
   v) Writing as Words in Readable Form
   vi) Portfolio of Writing Process

b) Teacher Role
   i) Teacher as Sherpa
   ii) Teacher as Coach
   iii) Teacher as Experience Friend

c) Modeling the Process
   i) Writing Process as Difficult
   ii) Teacher as 'Demystifier'
   iii) Importance of Modeling Writing Process for Students
   iv) Process As Not Perfectly Linear
   v) Tension: Process Approach Isn't Valued Outside of Comp
   vi) Process as Highly Individualistic
   vii) Modeling for Students that Process is Difficult

d) Breaking Down Assignment into Parts
   i) Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts
   ii) Importance of Breaking Down the Assignment

e) Code Switching
   i) Focus on rhetorical situation, audience, and purpose

f) Difficulties in Writing Process
   i) Students Struggle with Starting
   ii) Students Struggle with Topic Selection
   iii) Students Struggle With Forming Ideas
   iv) Students Struggle Finding Own Voice
   v) Students Struggle with Revision

vi) Strategies for Revision
vii) Time Allocation Based on Weaknesses

4) Teacher Supports

a) Scaffolds
   i) Limited Use of Templates
b) Interactive Practices
   i) Teacher Directed Supports
   (1) Teacher feedback
   (2) Teacher Conferences
   (3) Clear Expectations
   (4) LMS
   ii) Student Directed Supports
   (1) Peer Review
   (2) Class Discussions
   (3) Slack Correspondence
   iii) Mentors Texts
   iv) Practice Exercises
   v) Rhetorical Analysis Website
   vi) Grammar in Context

5) Nonlinear Ways of Learning to Teach Writing

a) Own Experiences as Writer
   i) Reflects on Own Experiences as Writer
   ii) Challenge of Teaching Writing When Good Writer
b) Specific Trainings
   i) Learning to Teach Writing as a TA
   ii) Learning to Teach Writing in Apprenticeship Program (like T.A)
   iii) Wide Range of Faculty Prior Training
   iv) Learning to Teach Writing Through College
   v) Lack of Training for Adjuncts
   vi) PDs on Own
c) Learning Through Experiences
   i) Learning to Teach Writing As Fulbright Fellow
   ii) Learning to Teach Writing in Writing Centers
   iii) CLCs
   iv) Departmental Meetings
   v) Departmental Symposium
   vi) Learning to Teach Through Scoring AP Tests
   vii) Learning to Teach Writing Through Practice
   viii) Learning to Teach Writing as a Secondary Teacher

APPENDIX J

Theme Matrix

Themes for Research Question 1

Expectations Theme 1: Definitions of good writing are fluid.

High School Codebook

Writing as Process

- e. Defining Writing
  - i. Writing as a Process
  - ii. Writing as Expression
  - iii. Writing as Communication
  - iv. Writing as Dependent on Genre
  - v. Writing as Contingent on Audience/Purpose

Expectation Variability Based off of Grade & Level

- a. Fluid-Definition of Good Writing
  - i. Good Writing Changes Across the Years
  - ii. Good Writing Is Dependent on Context
  - iii. Good Writing At Conclusion of Freshman Year
  - iv. Good Writing Effectively Communicates
  - v. Shouldn't Emphasize Grammar
  - vi. Good Writing is Rooted in Textual Evidence
  - vii. Students Haven't Achieved Good Writing Yet
  - viii. Writing in One Sitting, Compared to Extended Writing Expectations
- b. Differences in Expectations for Rigor
  - i. Writing Focus Dependent on Grade
- c. Range of Student Abilities
  - i. Adjusts Curriculum Based on Abilities
  - ii. Freedom of Choice

College Codebook

Writing as Process

- d) Defining Writing
  - i) Writing as Documentation
  - ii) Writing as Inventing ideas
  - iii) Writing as Communicating
  - iv) Writing as Idea Sharing
  - v) Writing as Words in Readable Form
  - vi) Portfolio of Writing Process

Fluid Definition of Good Writing

- a. Definition of Good Writing
  - i. Good Writing Makes Student Proud
  - ii. Good Writing Achieves Purpose
  - iii. Good Writing is Controlled by a Unified Idea
  - iv. Good Writing Shows Complexity in Thinking
  - v. Good Writing As Effective Communication
  - vi. Good Writing Depends on Genre, Audience, Purpose
  - vii. Good Writing as Readable
- b. Range of Student Abilities
  - i. Meets Students Where They Are
  - ii. Too Many Students to Teach Well
  - iii. Adjusts Curriculum Based on Students

iii. Meets Students Where They Are
iv. Accommodations for Struggling Writers

Expectations Theme 2: Writing is a process where the teacher has a defined role.

High School Codebook
Writing as Process

a. Defining Writing
   i. Writing as a Process
   ii. Writing as Expression
   iii. Writing as Communication
   iv. Writing as Dependent on Genre
   v. Writing as Contingent on Audience/Purpose
b. Teacher Role
   i. Teacher as Authority
   ii. Teacher as Chef
   iii. Teacher as Encourager
   iv. Teacher as Mover
   v. Teacher as Standards Keeper
   vi. Teacher as Guide
   vii. Tensions with Concept of Mastery vs. Continuum
      1. Writing Is Never Perfect
      2. Mastery of 5 Paragraph Model
c. Student Resistance/Reliance on Talk
   i. Increasing Student Comfort With Writing
   ii. Writing as Translating Talk
   iii. Better Speakers Than Writers
   iv. Resistance to Writing
   v. Laziness with Writing
   vi. Lack of Punctuation/Capitalization
   vii. Teacher Frustration Regarding Ignored Comments
   viii. Accommodations for Students Who Don't Do the Work
   ix. Late Policies

College Codebook
Writing as Process

a. Defining Writing
   i. Writing as Documentation
   ii. Writing as Inventing ideas
   iii. Writing as Communicating
   iv. Writing as Idea Sharing
   v. Writing as Words in Readable Form
   vi. Portfolio of Writing Process
b. Teacher Role
   i. Teacher as Sherpa
   ii. Teacher as Coach
   iii. Teacher as Experience Friend
c. Modeling the Process
   i. Writing Process as Difficult
   ii. Teacher as 'Demystifier'
   iii. Importance of Modeling Writing Process for Students
   iv. Process As Not Perfectly Linear
   v. Tension: Process Approach Isn't Valued Outside of Comp
   vi. Process as Highly Individualistic
   vii. Modeling for Students that Process is Difficult
d. Breaking Down Assignment into Parts
   i. Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts

d. Breaking Down Assignments into Parts
    i. Importance of Breaking Down Assignment
    ii. Example of Process
    iii. Breaking Assignments into Gradable Parts
e. Difficulties in Writing Process
    i. Starting
        1. Students Struggle with Starting
        2. Students Struggle with Planning
        3. Strategies for Planning
        4. Freedom of Choice
    ii. Revising
        1. Resistance to Revision
        2. Revision Exercises
    iii. Critical Thinking
        1. Beyond Summary
        2. Difficulty with Counterclaim
        3. Difficulty with Synthesis
    ii. Importance of Breaking Down the Assignment
e. Code Switching
    i. Focus on rhetorical situation, audience, and purpose
f. Difficulties in Writing Process
    i. Students Struggle with Starting
    ii. Students Struggle with Topic Selection
    iii. Students Struggle With Forming Ideas
    iv. Students Struggle Finding Own Voice
    v. Students Struggle with Revision
    vi. Strategies for Revision
    vii. Time Allocation Based on Weaknesses

Expectations Theme 3: Teachers rely on a wide range of tools and strategies to teach writing.

High School Codebook
Teacher Supports

a. Scaffolds
    i. Brainstorming
    ii. Value of Formulas
        1. Formulas to Increase Student Success
        2. Formulas Before Freedom

College Codebook
Teacher Supports

a) Scaffolds
    i) Limited Use of Templates
b) Interactive Practices
    i) Teacher Directed Supports
        (1) Teacher feedback
        (2) Teacher Conferences

iii. Graphic Organizers/Sentence Stems
    1. Outlines and Sentence Stems as Supports
    2. Outlines as Confidence Building
iv. Acronyms
    1. Acronyms as Supports for Format
    2. Acronyms to Breakdown Prompt
v. Elaboration Strategies as Supports
vi. 5 Paragraph Model
    1. Beyond 5 Paragraph Model
    2. Beyond 5 Paragraph Model

b. Interactive Practices
    i. Peer Review
    ii. Teacher Conferences
        1. Conference Check-Ins
        2. Google Doc Check-Ins
        3. Holistic Feedback Check Ins
        4. Changes to Conferences Due to COVID
        5. Limited Time for Teacher Conferences
            (3) Clear Expectations
            (4) LMS
    ii) Student Directed Supports
        (1) Peer Review
        (2) Class Discussions
        (3) Slack Correspondence
    iii) Mentors Texts
    iv) Practice Exercises
    v) Rhetorical Analysis Website
    vi) Grammar in Context

6. Difficulty with Conferences
iii. Mentor Texts
iv. Model Writing
v. Predictable Rubrics

Themes for Research Question 2

Differences Theme 1: High school teachers place greater emphasis on grammar and structure than do college professors, who prioritize ideas and risk taking.

High School Codebook
Teacher Supports
a. Scaffolds
i. Brainstorming
ii. Value of Formulas
1. Formulas to Increase Student Success
2. Formulas Before Freedom
iii. Graphic Organizers/Sentence Stems
1. Outlines and Sentence Stems as Supports
2. Outlines as Confidence Building
iv. Acronyms
1. Acronyms as Supports for Format
2. Acronyms to Breakdown Prompt
v. Elaboration Strategies as Supports
vi. 5 Paragraph Model
1. Beyond 5 Paragraph Model

College Codebook
Teacher Supports
a. Scaffolds
i. Limited Use of Templates

Autonomy & Choice
a. What Teachers Prioritize

vii. Paradox Resulting From Standardized Testing Model in Secondary Schools
viii. Limitations of HS Focus on Timed Writing

Writing as Process

a. Difficulties in Writing Process
ix. Students Struggle Finding Own Voice

Differences Theme 2: High school English teachers and college composition professors express different levels of autonomy in terms of curriculum.

High School Codebook

Limited Time & Freedom

a. Time Limitations
i. Allocation of Class Time
ii. Less Writing Time Due to COVID
iii. Focus on Literature, Not Language
b. Issues of Autonomy
i. Autonomy to Create Curriculum
ii. Lack of Autonomy to Create Curriculum
iii. Autonomy in How to Teach
c. Influence of State Testing
i. State Testing as Influence on Curriculum
ii. Writing Expectations on Standardized Tests
iii. Standardized Testing Emphasis on Multiple Choice
iv. Limitations of Texts on Standardized Tests
v. Limitations of Tasks on Standardized Tests
d. Influence of Standards
i. Standards as Influence on Curriculum
e. Teacher Acknowledgement of Student Unpreparedness

College Codebook

Autonomy & Choice

a. What Guides Course
i. Student Learning Objectives
ii. Statewide Learning Outcomes
iii. WPA Outcomes Statement
iv. Departmental Requirements
b. Teaching Autonomy
i. Autonomy in Curriculum
ii. Autonomy in How to Teach
iii. Variability from Teacher to Teacher
iv. Lack of Transfer Across Comp 1 and Comp 2
v. Desire to Create Common Expectations
vi. Shell Course

i. Concerns About Being Prepared for College
ii. Need for Time
iii. Frustrations as Bridge Crosser

Differences Theme 3: High school English teachers and college composition professors prioritize different genres.

High School Codebook
Limited Time & Freedom

a. What Teachers Prioritize
   i. Autonomy to Create Curriculum
   ii. Novel-Based Writing
   iii. Selection of Engaging Texts
   iv. Emphasis on Argument
   v. Writing Beyond School
b. What Teachers Can't/Don't Prioritize
   i. Research Expectations
   ii. No Time for Research
   iii. Can't Use Strategies They Have
   iv. Budget Limitations
c. Teacher Acknowledgement of Student Unpreparedness
   i. Concerns About Being Prepared for College
   ii. Importance of Writing Outside of School
   iii. Need for Time
   iv. Frustrations as Bridge Crosser

College Codebook
Autonomy & Choice

a. What Guides Course
   i. Student Learning Objectives
   ii. Statewide Learning Outcomes
   iii. WPA Outcomes Statement
   iv. Departmental Requirements
b. Teaching Autonomy
   v. Autonomy in Curriculum
   vi. Autonomy in How to Teach
   vii. Variability from Teacher to Teacher
   viii. Lack of Transfer Across Comp 1 and Comp 2
   ix. Desire to Create Common Expectations
   x. Shell Course
c. What Teachers Prioritize
   xi. Writing Beyond School
   xii. Writing Beyond Course
   xiii. Importance of Teaching Transferrable Skills Needed Beyond Comp
   xiv. Range of Student Choice
   xv. Importance of Ideas
   xvi. Research Practices
   xvii. Importance of Research Skills
   xviii. Paradox Resulting From Standardized Testing Model in Secondary Schools

xix. Limitations of HS Focus on Timed Writing

APPENDIX K

Coding Sample

Short Description: Good Writing Depends on Context (From High School Data Corpus)
Detailed Description/Inclusion Criteria: To merit this code, a teacher would speak directly about contextual factors that affected the teacher's definition of "good" writing (i.e., student or class makeup). Data with this code often spoke to the range of student abilities and how that affected teacher expectations.
Typical Examples:

- "As far as good writing, per se, now outside of my classroom, that's a whole different conversation. Does that make sense?"
- "Well, because like next year, I'll be teaching AP, AP lit. Right. Right. Good writing is a whole different standard, then what I'm asking my students to do, right now."
- "In some cases, depends on the class, depends on the writing. Like if it is a co-taught class, then it might be that they've done their complete sentences, they've got the idea. It's understandable."
- "I mean, my higher students, it's more working on blending sources and combining ideas. But for my lower kids, it's just get the evidence and explain it to me first. Then we'll worry about blending things together and that stuff. Then style for my honors classes. We do work with style, improving diction, working with some parallel structure, trying some appeals in argumentative, trying some figurative language."

Non-Example:

- "The first day of school is not what I would consider what is good the last day of school. For the first day of school, I'm literally, I'm specifically looking to see if you can write by freshman year, coming in freshman year, a clear and concise sentence. That is really what I'm looking for."

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