USING ENGAGEMENT WITH INSTRUCTOR FEEDBACK TO NURTURE FIRST-YEAR WRITING STUDENTS' SELF-EFFICACY

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USING ENGAGEMENT WITH INSTRUCTOR FEEDBACK TO NURTURE FIRST-YEAR WRITING STUDENTS' SELF-EFFICACY

by

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To Doug, you have "been my strength and stay all these years" (Queen Elizabeth II), and for that, I am eternally grateful

To Ali, Charlie and Ben, for the love, support, and joy that you bring me every day

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Laura Beth Gabrion

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Many students enter college with low self-perceptions about their writing skills. Research indicates that first-year writing instructors typically rely on the semi-self-regulated steps of the writing process to help students develop positive feelings about their writing. First-year composition courses employ instructor-provided feedback, whether oral or written or both, as a process for helping students improve their writing skills; therefore, an important consideration for teachers of first-year writing is how to engage students in the feedback provided. One way to make instructor feedback useful and meaningful to students is to create opportunities for conversation between student and instructor in advance of the revision stage. By combining instructor feedback with student-composed revision plans, instructors and students can participate in dialogic feedback that encourages both critical thinking and critical revision (Berzsenyi, 2001; Muldoon, 2009). Dialogic feedback diminishes students' misinterpretations of instructors' comments and gives students a better understanding of their writing and which skills to work on as they progress. This study investigated students' interaction with instructional feedback as a method for impacting students' self-efficacy in first-year composition. Results suggest that active engagement with instructor feedback has the

ability to raise students' confidence, persistence, and performance and should be considered, consequently, as an integral part of the feedback process.

Keywords: first-year writing, instructor feedback, revision, self-efficacy

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GLOSSARY

Dialogic feedback: for the purposes of this study, dialogic feedback, whether oral or written, will be complemented by student-devised revision plans. While instructor feedback should motivate student response and interaction, in order to encourage conversation, the student must prepare in advance by enumerating his or her own areas of concern and instructor comments should be given in a timely manner that facilitates student discussions about them (Berzsenyi, 2001; Sommers, 1982)

First-year experience: this term, coined in the 1980s, refers to the unique set of circumstances college students face during their first academic year

First-year composition: in their first year, most students are required to take Composition I and Composition II. At the site of this research study, Composition I (WRT 150) introduces students to rhetorical terminology and concepts, advances writing skills by incorporating writing process assignments, and extends writing and rhetoric to multiple genres and media; Composition II (WRT 160) introduces primary and secondary research methods, requires ethical consideration of topic, purpose, and audience, and advances students' application of proper documentation

Self-efficacy: self-efficacy is "personal confidence in the ability to successfully perform tasks at a given level" (Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989)

Student-devised revision plans: a form students fill out prior to receiving feedback on their drafts that prioritizes five revision goals, devises a plan for addressing each goal, considers the rhetorical benefit of making the specified changes, and guides the oral feedback session between instructor and student (see Appendix A)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"[…] our most important job is to cultivate the student-writer's awareness of processes and resources that will promote her writerly success in both college and beyond."
(Schmidt & Alexander, 2012)

Longitudinal research on self-efficacy and writing provides a lens for understanding students' self-perceived inadequacies in first-year writing (Clayton, 2007; Jones, 2008; McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Schmidt & Alexander, 2012). Writing is an activity that often challenges students' self-efficacy, or the belief that they can perform a particular action or skill (Bandura, 1977). Since self-efficacy is also essential for achievement due to its effect on persistence and adaptability (Pajares, 2003), investigating, documenting, and implementing classroom practices that nurture self-efficacy is important to first-year writing instructors. One approach to increasing students' self-efficacy is dialogic feedback that encourages conversations between students and instructors about students' writing and revision because dialogic feedback can appeal to the four "sources of information" (Bandura, 1977, p. 195) that influence self-efficacy.

Many first-year writing instructors who aim to strengthen students' self-efficacy as writers have done so by approaching writing as a process (i.e., inventing, drafting, rewriting) (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Graham & Sandmel, 2011) and have employed

aspects of Vygotsky's social constructivism (Everson, 1991), particularly in the feedback-to-draft stage. Further development of students' writing skills necessitates revision, though, and while issues with feedback and revision are not new, it is important to look at them in relationship to first-year composition students and their need for growth as confident writers. This study proposed a method of dialogic feedback that combines students' preassembled revision plans (see Appendix A) with instructor feedback, whether written and asynchronous or oral and synchronous, as a technique to raise their self-efficacy in first-year writing.

Significance of the Research

The Problem

Cox (2004) found that students enter college with the belief that their writing skills are inadequate for college; however, longitudinal research has confirmed that students need to develop positive associations to college through successful and reaffirming experiences (Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, Kinzie, & Gonyea, 2008; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2011; Tinto & Goodsell, 1994; Upcraft & Gardner, 1989), such as course aptitude (Hunter, 2006). According to Barefoot (2000), "[increasing] faculty-to-student interaction" (p. 14) is one essential component of a successful first-year experience, and in this way, first-year writing can become an important "transition *to* college" (Sommers & Saltz, 2004, p. 127) by targeting activities that allow students to regularly interact with their instructors. Instructor feedback on students' writing naturally creates an opportunity for important and necessary communication between students and faculty.

Instructors provide feedback on students' writing to guide them in developing useful skills and techniques (Martin, 2011; Wolsey, 2008). However, some students grapple with feedback comments and are uncertain about how to use the feedback to make changes to their essays (Clayton, 2007; Richardson, 2000; Zellermayer, 1989). Such students become frustrated, make safe changes, such as word choice or syntax (Parr & Timperley, 2010), and begin to question their abilities to become better writers. Because of this, first-year writing instructors should focus on ways to enhance students' writing self-efficacy as a way to successfully transition students to college level writing, but also to ease their acclimation to college (Bandura, 1977; Barefoot, 2000). Therefore, because a dialogic approach to providing feedback is aligned with Barefoot's objective, the inclusion of student-devised revision plans has the potential to build the relationship between instructors and students, which can aid in establishing students' connections with their institutions.

Significance of the Study

A dialogic approach to both feedback and revision increases the possibility for students to develop critical revision skills (Berzsenyi, 2001; Muldoon, 2009) and subsequently their confidence about writing. Given that self-efficacy "can be learned and developed over time" (Schmidt & Alexander, 2012), it is important to assess changes in students' self-efficacy and how this is related to pedagogy. First-year writing teachers have the ability to influence students' self-efficacy, but little attention has been paid to how and why fluctuations in self-efficacy occur throughout the first semester of first-year writing.

Instructor feedback is a natural component in first-year writing, and data analysis from the second pilot study (see Background and Context) revealed that instructor interventions must be met with student interaction to heighten students' beliefs about themselves as writers. Only then can students take part in their own writing and revision processes and access Bandura's "sources of information" that increase self-efficacy (1977, p. 195). Combining students' revision plans with instructor feedback presents an opportunity for students to engage in a conversation with their instructors, whether oral or written, about their writing and their strategies for revision. These conversations may also allow students to explain some of the decisions they have made when composing. While composition instructors will admit that providing feedback on students' work that is both supportive and directive is a physically and intellectually taxing endeavor, they will also admit to the importance of it in improving students' writing skills and strengthening their self-perceptions as writers (Stern & Solomon, 2006). Composition instructors provide feedback on many stages of the writing process (i.e., topic selection, outlines, drafts); adding another requirement, such as revision plans, may seem overwhelming to the average writing instructor who is teaching more than 50 students per semester (Haswell, 2015). Yet, by making revision an integral part of the conversation between students and instructors, feedback can be better understood, and students can make more informed decisions about how to proceed with their writing.

Theoretical Perspectives

Three theories frame this study: the writing process theory, Vygotsky's social constructivist theory, and Bandura's self-efficacy theory. Each theory contributes to the

proposed hypothesis that students' engagement with instructor feedback, through the implementation of student-devised revision plans, will improve students' use of instructor feedback to facilitate revision, which ultimately benefits their academic and psychological development.

Writing process theory has structured the pedagogical focus of writing instructors for the past nearly fifty years. Prior to that, composition instruction focused on modes, such as narration and exposition, through which students became proficient in constructing final-draft-only essays (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 85). A number of educational and social issues precipitated this shift in writing instruction, but the most significant contribution the process model has afforded students and instructors is its recursive set of strategies (i.e., inventing, drafting, revising, polishing) aimed at making writing purposeful (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Several important compositionists emerged as leaders of the writing process movement, such as Peter Elbow, Donald Murray, and Ken Macrorie (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 88), and these scholars encouraged writers to use techniques such as freewriting while drafting, with planned time for feedback and revision to follow. In essence, the writing process model released student writers from the constraints of the product model where they were compelled to get things right the first (and usually only) time around, and it moved the role of feedback from a summative to formative position that has opened the possibility of true growth in skills. In this study, the progression from draft to feedback to revision relies upon the structure of the writing process as an established guide to writing instruction.

Vygotsky's social constructivist theory provides a strong foundation for writing instructors because there is an "interaction [between] development and instruction" (1934/1986, p. 207). Relationships are key in this "social mode of action" (Prior, 2006, p. 58), specifically the teacher-student associations. According to Davydov and Kerr (1995), Vygotsky envisioned the social construction of knowledge in a learning situation where the teacher acted as guide rather than disseminator of information, a nurturing environment that fostered teacher-to-student collaboration. Elbow echoed these ideas when illustrating the teacher as "a kind of coach" (1983, p. 37). Vygotsky's belief that learning is socially constructed places importance upon dialogic feedback practices, even if such conversations are written and separated. In fact, socialization, according to Vygotksy, must occur before internalization (1934/1986); therefore, dialogue plays a significant role in all aspects of writing, and teachers who act as guides use feedback to engage students in a conversation about their writing. Thus, dialogic feedback can provide students with opportunities for individual growth, including the conceptualization and utilization of instructors' comments to further develop their writing skills and self-efficacy.

Matched with the work of Vygotsky is Bandura's social cognitive theory, which highlights the important concept of self-efficacy. Like Vygotsky, Bandura also believed that students need to be active participants in their learning, but his focus was on the interaction between "personal, behavioral, and environmental influences" (as cited in Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 35). A clear implication for writing instructors is to develop pedagogical practices that promote changes in writing behavior, primarily revision

techniques, by tapping into such influences. Since the cornerstone of Bandura's theory lies in the human ability to self-reflect, students should take time consider why revision is necessary in the writing process. The student-devised revision plans require students' justification for making changes to their essays, which reinforces Bandura's belief that only through self-reflection can behaviors be properly adjusted and internalized. Because of the link between students' confidence and their self-motivated actions, a greater emphasis must be placed upon improving students' self-efficacy in first-year composition. The development of writing self-confidence is an important condition of future success, and there is a reciprocal relationship between successful behaviors and the growth of self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1997), "those with high self-efficacy participate more readily, work harder, persist longer, show greater interest in learning, and achieve at higher levels" (as cited in Schunk & Pajares, 2009, p. 35). Thus, educational practices, such as dialogic feedback, that promote the development of students' writing self-efficacy provide direct benefits to first-year writing students. Once self-efficacy has been initiated, it is important to give students autonomous activities, such as revision of their drafts, that will further solidify and subsequently build their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, p. 201). These practices encourage students to rely upon themselves and their own self-beliefs to tackle writing challenges in the first year of college.

Background and Context

As a first-year writing instructor, my interest in understanding student-teacher interactions that improve students' self-confidence as writers has grown considerably.

Specifically, I am interested in how a dialogic approach to providing feedback on students' writing impacts their writing self-efficacy. Each semester, my students express their dislike of writing. When I press them, their answer is nearly universal: "I've always been a terrible writer." Students enter first-year writing with a self-belief that is difficult to reverse, but I have found that intensive interaction with students while engaged in feedback about their writing seems to raise their confidence. In experimenting over time with different feedback strategies, the method of dialogic feedback that appears to work best is when students develop revision plans prior to receiving feedback. If the feedback session is oral, we discuss their plans for revision along with any issues I've discovered while assessing their drafts. If the feedback is written, I use marginal comments throughout the draft to address each of their revision plan concerns and any other issues I have observed. In both cases, the conversations about their writing and revision have been richer and more productive, and they report greater satisfaction with their work in reflective essays at the end of the semester.

Instructors provide feedback on students' writing to help them improve their writing, but when students limit their revisions by addressing only lower-order issues, such as grammar and usage, feedback misses its desired effect. To make instructor feedback more useful and meaningful, students should be involved in the feedback process and articulate revision goals; both are crucial to the development of their skills and self-efficacy. In combining instructor feedback with student-developed revision plans, teachers and students can work together towards writing improvement, which in

turn will raise students' ability to confidently tackle writing-related obstacles in the future.

To investigate the impact of instructor feedback upon the development of students' writing self-efficacy, I conducted an informal pilot study in two WRT 160 courses during the Winter 2015 semester. The results of this quasi-experimental pretest/posttest design (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014) encouraged the inclusion of qualitative data to supplement statistical data. In an effort to better understand students' actions behind the reported variables, a second pilot study, conducted during the Fall 2015 semester, used a mixed methods design. The quantitative portion of the second pilot study employed a quasi-experimental pretest/posttest design, and the testing instruments included a Post-Secondary Writing Self-Efficacy Scale (Schmidt & Alexander, 2012) and a self-created writing prompt and scoring rubric to test students' writing skills. The pretests were administered to both experimental and control groups in the fifth week of the semester; the posttests were administered in the thirteenth week. The added qualitative aspects of the study included questionnaires presented to students in both groups and revision plans collected from the experimental group. The experimental group, after receiving instructor feedback on essay drafts, handwrote a revision plan that included five prioritized issues, concerns or problems based upon the instructor feedback, a plan for addressing the items, and the rhetorical benefits of making such changes in the draft. The control group received instructor feedback without the revision plans. The content analysis method was used to evaluate the results of the questionnaires and revision plans. In both cases, discovery of "emerging patterns or themes" (Pappas &

Tucker-Raymond, 2011) guided the data analysis process. Finally, triangulation was achieved by looking at the data from multiple perspectives, which is an inherent aspect of a mixed method study (Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun, 2014).

Data analysis from the second pilot study informed necessary changes to the subsequent dissertation study. The first change involved the assessment of writing skills. In the second pilot study, data analysis exhibited greatly diminished student effort at the end of the semester on the writing skills assessment. Reasons for reduced efforts could be attributed to fatigue, disinterest, defeat or frustration, among other issues plaguing students at the end of their first semester of college. Research on the assessment of writing also reports concerns with instrumentation. Assessments that are reliable, such as multiple choice questions found on standardized tests, are not valid; in other words, they do not measure the kinds of writing students do. Direct writing assessments, such as prompts, are often researcher-created and are therefore valid but unreliable (Huot, 2002; O'Neill, 2003). Therefore, I eliminated the problematic writing assessment instrument, given that issues with validity, reliability, and student interest prevented the acquisition of conclusive data. Another essential change to the proposed dissertation study centered on the assessement of self-efficacy in study participants. While increases in self-efficacy in the experimental group could be detected, they did not contribute to a larger understanding of how self-efficacy beliefs shifted over the course of the semester and why. Data analysis of the revision plans and the post-feedback questionnaires also refined my dissertation proposal; responses to each indicated that there are other measurable issues related to self-efficacy (i.e., motivation) that would provide useful data. The last

informed change to my dissertation study concerned the timing of the revision plans. Concurrent with the second pilot study was informal experimentation of my own, and I discovered that having students complete the revision plans prior to receiving oral feedback led to the most beneficial conversations about their writing. Thus, both pilot studies informed the development of this study, conducted during the fall semester of 2016.

Design of the Study

The current study was a mixed methods approach constructed to measure changes in first-semester, first-year writing students' self-efficacy using a quasi-experimental with non-equivalent control group design (Fife-Shaw, 2012; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014). Seventy-two first-year writing students were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group (*n*=39) completed revision plans (see Appendix A) prior to receiving instructor feedback on drafts; the control group (*n*=33) did not. Revision plans were collected, coded and categorized. All study participants were tested four times over the course of the semester using a merged assessment tool (see Appendix B) that measured self-efficacy and motivation, and all participants completed two post-project questionnaires (see Appendices C-D). Finally, faculty participated in post-study interviews (see Appendix E), and student participants had the option to partake in a post-study interview (see Appendix F). After careful consultation with the dissertation committee, it was determined that the data collected from the post-study interviews would be reserved as supplemental information.

To investigate this study's research questions, participants in the experimental group were encouraged to engage in a dialogue with their instructors about their plans for revision through the use of revision plans. These student-devised plans allowed participants in the experimental group to consider issues or problems within their drafts, their plan for addressing such issues, and the rhetorical benefits of making the changes. Coming to the instructor feedback stage with these predetermined goals created an opportunity for student-instructor dialogue about the drafts, the instructor feedback, and the plans for revision.

Participants were also tested using the Self-Efficacy and Motivation instrument, which combined the Post-Secondary Writing Self-Efficacy Scale (Schmidt & Alexander, 2012) with six subscales of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich et al., 1991). For the purposes of this study, however, only the two subscales of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire measuring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were used. Participants indicated the type of feedback received on the draft (written or oral), and identifying information (specifically the CRN, or course record number) revealed whether or not the participant had completed a revision plan (experimental versus control group).

Participants additionally completed a post-project questionnaire to further investigate the impact of external factors (i.e., grade on final project) on their motivation for revising, their actual revisions (as opposed to those described in the revision plans), and their self-reported interactions with their instructors regarding feedback to their essays. For the purposes of this study, only questions 3, 4, 8 and 9 (experimental group)

and questions 2, 3, 7 and 8 (control group) were used because they provided data on students' engagement with instructor feedback.

Additional data collected, such as the post-study interviews, the remaining four motivation subtests on the combined Self-efficacy and Motivation instrument, and the remaining questions on the post-project questionnaire, were set aside to be examined at a later date.

Research Questions

This study sought answers to the following questions:

RQ1. Does the intervention promote greater self-efficacy, and what is the general relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy?

RQ2. How does the intervention and type of feedback influence students' self-efficacy?

A. Written feedback with a student-developed revision plan

B. Oral feedback with a student-developed revision plan

C. Written feedback

D. Oral feedback

RQ3. What does a dialogic approach to instructor feedback, developed through student-devised revision plans, reveal about students' engagement with instructor feedback and revision in first-year composition?

Self-efficacy assumedly leads to improved skills; however, since raising students' self-efficacy in first-year writing courses is partially teacher dependent, I hypothesized that dialogic feedback strategies that combine instructor feedback with a student-

developed revision goals would further enhance students' engagement with instructor feedback and with their own revision practices. I also expected that analysis of oral feedback combined with revision plans would yield statistically significant results, thereby promoting this feedback practice over the other three. Finally, I anticipated that internal factors would play a greater role upon students' self-efficacy than external factors.

Summary

As students enter first-year writing courses, they need to discover, develop, and internalize strategies for success. The inclusion of student-devised revision plans places ownership in the hands of the students, and success is then dependent upon their engagement with the feedback. Ultimately, students with higher self-efficacy are more apt to see first-year writing as a challenge rather than as a threat. Students' self-beliefs are a vital part of their competency, and educators must spend time nurturing and developing students' self-efficacy for its far-reaching benefits. In order to reverse damaging self-perceptions in first-year writing classes, instructors must intervene through deliberate, positive, goal-setting engagements that shape students' attitudes about writing and the potential for success. Revision plans allow them to do so.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"If we can keep only one thing in mind—and I fail at this half the time—it is that we are teaching the writer and not the writing." (Calkins, 1994)

First-year college students have been prepped by their high school teachers to believe that college-level writing is not only different from the writing they have done but also more difficult. While degrees of difficulty will vary among colleges and instructors, some difficulty with college-level writing is established in understanding the differences in the purposes for writing, the intended audiences, and the genres that are common in first-year composition classrooms. Acclimating to such differences often disrupts students' confidence levels and rather than readjust to the new demands, some students will retreat into their established belief that they are not writers anyway and that they cannot become better writers. In addition, many first-year writing students find it difficult to understand instructors' comments, or, even when they do understand the comments, they lack the experience necessary to execute changes in their essays that demonstrate their instructors' suggestions. Such students become easily frustrated and therefore only make surface-level changes to their essays because they question their ability to improve their writing at a deeper level.

Challenging negative self-perceptions such as these is an essential part of first-year writing instruction because students' success and subsequent retention depends upon

it; at the same time, students need to take control of their learning at the college level and instructors must give their students opportunities to critically think about their writing. First-year composition instructors have consistently worked at effective feedback strategies, and over time, clear and appropriate methods have emerged. However, feedback cannot simply be delivered to students in a static, one-way manner; rather, instructor feedback needs to be more fluid, organic. Just as we encourage our students to enter that Burkean parlor when writing, so, too, should we encourage them to consider feedback comments as an invitation to a conversation.

Theoretical Frameworks

Collaboration between student and instructor in a first-year writing course can empower students and give them an opportunity to think intensely about their writing, and the success of this interactive student-instructor relationship rests upon three theories: writing process theory, social constructivism and social cognitivism. Writing process theory (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Graham & Sandmel, 2011) encompasses the recursive set of strategies that writers employ while writing, including stages such as prewriting, drafting, and revision. Social constructivism, or learning that is socially constructed, encourages dialogue between students and instructors and is closely associated with the work of Vygotsky (1934/1986), Davydov and Kerr (1995), Berger, Luckmann, and Zifonun (2002), and Gredler (2012). Social cognitivism, or learning through "behavior, cognition and other personal factors, and environmental influences" (Bandura, 1989), provides time for students to observe, reflect and apply. First-year composition instructors have consistently worked at effective feedback strategies, and,

over time, clear and appropriate methods have emerged. However, instructor feedback on student writing cannot simply be directive; it must be a conversation that promotes students' engagement, encourages thoughtful and focused revision, and raises students' self-beliefs about their ability to effectively communicate their ideas.

Writing Process Theory

In the first half of the 20th century, composition instruction was product-focused (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Students submitted final copies without an instructional emphasis on the steps used to produce the written piece. The most influential organization for college composition faculty, the Conference on College Composition and Communication [CCCC], began to question this pedagogical approach as enrollment increased throughout American colleges and universities, placing a greater number of students in first-year composition classes. According to Schreiner (1997), "as early as 1962, a CCCC panel discussed the [negative] impact of the linear model of writing ('first think, then write')" (p. 86) on writers. From here, the process model evolved, offering students and instructors a technique for writing and teaching writing that encouraged reflection and often repetition of its steps (i.e., inventing, planning, drafting). The writing process model, attributed to the early work of Janet Emig (Schreiner, 1997) and other leading researchers in the 1970s, evolved over time and can be subdivided into a chronological series of developmental stages.

Expressivism and cognitivism. The first stage was an expressivist approach to the writing process, led by compositionists including Elbow, Murray, and Macrorie (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). The benefits of this stage included writers using techniques

such as freewriting to get their thoughts out and onto the page, thereby releasing student writers from the restraints of accuracy and asserting the messy nature of composing. Elbow, one prominent follower, valued the "organic" nature of expressivist writing, as freewriting was his own personal preference (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 89). In fact, Elbow's approach significantly challenged the product model because he urged writers to simply start writing. Instead of thinking and then writing, which Elbow believed contributed to writer's block, he encouraged writers to write first, think later. For Elbow, the think-write approach was simply "backwards" (1973, p. 15).

Interestingly, as the use of the writing process model became more widespread, researchers studied writers' thoughts and actions while engaged in the process of writing, and thus the cognitive approach developed into the next stage, which brought together the work of Emig, Selfe, Sommers, and Shaughnessy, among others (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). In striving to connect their predecessors' work to an existing model, Flower and Hayes (1981) relied upon Piaget's theory of cognitive development; hence, they developed an intricate framework plotting writers' memories, environment, and the planning, drafting and revision of their written pieces. Their model (illustrated below) linked thinking with writing, but their more significant goal was to reiterate the fluid nature of the process (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

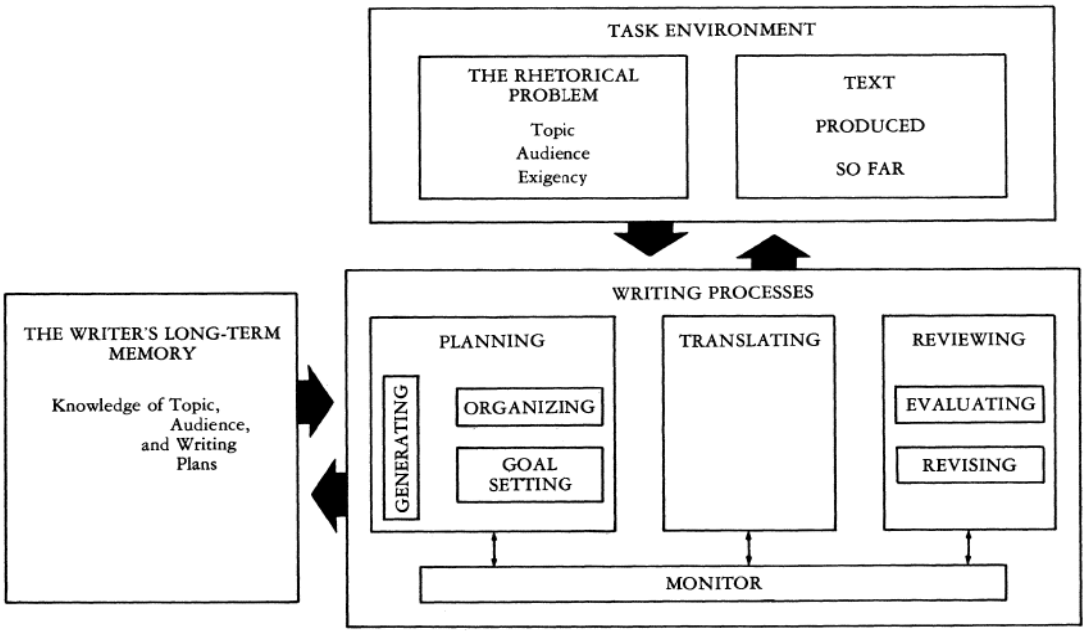


Figure 2.1. Flower and Hayes (1981) writing process model. This figure illustrates the elements included in the model as well as the recursive nature of the process. Copyright 1981 by the National Council of Teachers of English. Used with permission.

Ethnographic, sociolinguistic, and discourse community approaches. As the writing process model continued to evolve, researchers and educators began to investigate and incorporate the social component that comprises the student-teacher relationship. In order to better inform writing instruction, researchers studied writing from an ethnographic perspective. Prominently, Graves and Caulkins provided significant data that led to important contributions about writing in the classroom and how to better teach writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). This approach asserted that writing is an innate and desirable act. However, since students' writing is linked to social contexts, "the backgrounds of the writer and of the text [must] intersect" (Sinor & Huston, 2004, p. 372). The ethnographic approach placed the writer in the social setting that he or she was

writing about in order to move him or her beyond writing methods to their purposes, and Graves urged continued research about writers that "[included] longer and closer looks at [students] while they are writing" (1980, p. 101).

Another socially constructed way of looking at the writing process focused on the sociolinguistic aspects. From this lens, writing was studied from the situated perspective of language use and semiotics (i.e., home versus school) and how this contributes to the writing students do (Grabe & Kaplan, 1999). Halliday originated this line of thinking, and it since influenced the whole language movement, which purports that "writing is a functional extension of oral language" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 103).

The final socially-based approach to the writing process focused on college-level writers initially and paved the way for a "social-cognitive theory of writing" proposed by Flower that implies a codependence between writing's social and cognitive aspects (1994). Viewing writing from this multi-dimensional perspective had the potential to influence better teaching practices; as Flower (1989) noted, teachers "need an interactive vision of the writing process that can address the hurdles student writers often face, that can account for the cognitive and social sources of both success and failure" (p. 703). Such a vision prepares teachers to encourage students to position themselves within a particular context in order to create and maintain a meaningful written conversation with their audience.

The writing process theory has had a significant impact upon the teaching of writing, and most first-year writing instructors currently incorporate time for planning, drafting, peer review, instructor review, and production of a final copy. However, despite

an emphasis upon the social components of the writing process over the past thirty years, there is often an absence of instructor/student dialogue, especially between the instructor's review of the draft and the students' revision of the piece. If students are left to decipher and use instructor feedback in solitary, the chances for misunderstandings are magnified. Therefore, to make both instructor feedback and students' revision more productive, the feedback and revision stage must shift to a dialogic, socially constructed one.

Social Constructivism and Vygotskian Perspectives on the Teaching of Writing

While there are several benefits to the writing process model, the concerning aspects led to a framework "eclipsed by studies that attended to social, historical, and political contexts of writing" (Prior, 2006, p. 54). In turn, many composition instructors began to incorporate a social constructivist theory of writing, which can be directly attributed to the work of Lev Vygotsky (Everson, 1991). Vygotsky emphasized the social interactions that comprise the student-instructor relationship and compel individual growth (1934/1986) and "believed that learning results as a function of interacting with others" (Tracey & Morrow, 2012, p. 129). In fact, socialization, according to Vygotsky (1934/1986), must occur before internalization, and therefore, dialogue plays a significant role in all aspects of writing, even in the final product, which communicates a message to an audience.

Role of the teacher/guide. Vygotsky saw the teacher's role as one of a guide or coach (Davydov & Kerr, 1995) in a nurturing environment that fosters teacher-to-student

collaboration. Whether collaborator or coach (Elbow, 1983), teachers have the ability to bring students into Vygotsky's "zone of proximal development"; in other words, in pushing students to write in new and complex ways, first-year writing instructors will "utilize the zone of proximal development and […lead the student] to what he could not yet do" (Vygotksy, 1934/1986, p. 189). Reaching this zone takes students out of the confines of "actual development" and into the realm of infinite possibilites. In knowing and understanding the realm of possibilties, a teacher can shift instruction to fit the needs of the student, and the interactions within a classroom can provide opportunities for individual growth, conceptualization, and utilization. Teachers can also scaffold learning activities (Tracey & Morrow, 2012); by building upon smaller assignments and providing specific assistance along the way, teachers can help students reach their zone of proximal development. Finally, feedback on drafts, essays, and other assignments initiates a conversation with students about their writing. Vygotsky believed that "methods cannot be uniform" (Davydov & Kerr, 1995, p. 13). An effective teacher seeks occasions to understand the student, the context, and the potential. This is significant; teachers refrain from growing stagnant, and students feel valued for their individuality. The context of the classroom, then, fuels productive writing, and students feel as though growth is imminent.

Role of the student. Students engage in and benefit from social interactions in the classroom as well. Students can "become co-constructors of knowledge" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 131) by working with their instructors, and through one-on-one discussions, student can better understand "the teacher's goals and purposes for writing"

(Grabe & Kaplan, 1996, p. 243). The need to work with others is crucial; Vygotsky found that social situations helped his study subjects "adjust" their behavior in accordance to interactions with and observations of others (1934/1986, p. 233). For students in a writing class, dialogic feedback presents an interactive situation where students have the potential to "adjust" their writing, but more importantly, they can contribute their thoughts and ideas about the written piece, which establishes their valuable role in the collaborative processes of writing and revising. In other words, students feel as though their ideas matter, as they are simultaneously formed by the "systematic structure" of writing (Langer & Applebee, 1986, p. 172). This movement from socially constructed knowledge to the students' own use of the strategies introduced and practiced leaves them with a set of skills they can continue to pull from in comparable academic situations (Langer & Applebee, 1986).

Vygotsky's concepts relate solidly to writing instruction, and many teachers strive to create classrooms that encourage conversations, provide time for deep and reflective thought, produce an environment that nurtures composing via the writing process, and reassure students as they move delicately through the act of composing. Effective writing instruction depends upon the application of these concepts, and as students immerse themselves in the social, private and recursive acts of writing, they will undoubtedly progress in proficiency. In this study, revision plans inspire formative conversations between instructor and student, whether in an asynchronous or synchronous format. As students anticipate and respond to their instructors' comments, it allows them to reflect upon the types of revisions that they do and do not want to make. Revision behaviors, if

carried out over the course of the semester, have the potential to become internalized, especially if the instructor takes the role of coach (Elbow, 1983). Students have learned to invent, draft, edit and proofread throughout several years of writing instruction at the elementary and secondary level. It is fitting, then, that the post-secondary level is primed for dialogic feedback practices aimed at improving the revision stage; instructors can guide students through this process. Such personal instruction in writing has the potential to create a culture of revision practices that ultimately influence students' writing behaviors across genres and disciplines and can positively impact the growth of their self-efficacy.

Social Cognitivism and Self-efficacy Theory

Hidi and Boscolo (2006) explained that the researchers who pioneered the writing process theory led "the way for subsequent studies on writing self-efficacy" (p. 144), and "some social constructivism aspects have high motivational potentials" (p. 145). Studies of literacy have shown that theories cannot be isolated completely, and thus significant connections exist between approaches. According to Stanovich and Stanovich, "two observations are not mutually exclusive—one does not negate the other" (2013, p. 35). Consequently, by looking at writing and writing instruction through more than one lens, we are able to see that while some theories merge, new ideologies also emerge. Albert Bandura's self-efficacy theory can be viewed as a by-product of previous writing theories, but it is also the "missing element" of his own social cognitive theory (Pajares, 2002). It has been demonstrated over time to be a necessary framework that not only must work concurrently with the writing process and social constructivist methodologies,

but should also take the center stage in writing instruction in order produce successful writing behaviors upon which students can rely (Clayton, 2007; McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989).

Similar to Vygotsky, Bandura saw students as active participants in the learning process. Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy "theory is based on the principal assumption that psychological procedures, whatever their form, serve as means of creating and strengthening expectations of personal efficacy" (p. 193). Since efficacy is one's perceived belief that he or she can perform a particular action or skill, Bandura's theory asserts the idea that efficacy can be manipulated by "psychological procedures," and these include treatments or interventions to any one of a person's "four major sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states" (1977, p. 195). Self-efficacy results from one's evaluation of such information, often in combination with the context in which it is received. For example, if a student observes the positive negotiation of an adverse or challenging situation, he or she will process this, which will in turn contribute to his or her self-efficacy. A person's self-efficacy allows him or her to rise above the fear of failure and attempt seemingly difficult actions, and therefore, enhancing one's self-efficacy will provide him or her with confidence to accept and conquer various challenges. In application, Bandura's theory of self-efficacy encourages targeted intervention aimed at changing one's self-efficacy in order to enhance his or her ability to master particular skills.

Student-teacher relationship. One important component in building self-efficacy lies undoubtedly in the relationship between teacher and student. If students feel as though the teacher is a distant entity who simply dictates content and procedures, it is possible that their self-efficacy will remain low. DeVito's (1986) relational development model encourages a relationship between teacher and student. While it is true that previous experiences can have an influence on students' expectations entering a classroom, the opportunity to build an effective set of interactions exists. DeVito's "relationship skills for teachers" (1986, p. 55) include communication, and at the college level, this can mean both verbal and written communication. In addition, aspects of healthy communication encompass praise, a release of control, and positive use of disagreement (DeVito, 1986). By signifying the relationship between teacher and student as central to academic growth, it is clear that this relationship, based upon its mutuality, can also promote the positive emotions necessary for the growth of self-efficacy.

Writing instruction and self-efficacy. The instructor feedback/revision plan process contributes easily to Bandura's four "sources of information" (1977, p. 195) that aid in the growth of self-efficacy; revision plans are enactive, instructor feedback provides modeling, encouragement, and suggestions, and the combination of the two works to alleviate anxiety and stress related to the writing process. Ultimately, "what people do is often better predicted by their beliefs about their capabilities" (Pajares & Johnson, 1994, p. 313). When it comes to writing, there are a variety of issues that can impede the confidence necessary for student success at the college level. Reversing this lack of confidence is critical in first-year writing programs; as several studies (Bottomley,

Henk, & Melnick, 1998; Comfort, 2000; Olthouse, 2012) have uncovered, there is "a generalized interrelation between beliefs and performance for […] writing" (Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989). Thus, knowing how to help develop confident writers is an important aspect of teaching college students to write because students who have a strong sense of self-as-writer will persist in their writing pursuits and feel motivated to perform.

Undeniably, writing instruction has advanced greatly over the past half century, and the benefits of an emphasis upon writing as a process and as a social act have helped researchers and educators better understand the way that students write and how to employ tested strategies that will help them improve. Classroom activities currently espouse aspects of both ideologies, and through them a social cognitive approach (Bandura, 1986; Flower, 1994) to teaching writing has emerged. "Standing at the very core of social cognitive theory are self-efficacy beliefs" (Pajares & Valiante, 2006, p. 159) which ultimately allow students to rely upon themselves and their own self-perceptions to tackle writing challenges in the first year of college. Confidence building is an important condition of future success, and therefore, writing instructors should provide classroom practices that promote, nurture, and sustain the development of self-efficacy.

The Relationship between Self-efficacy and Writing

Many studies have positively correlated the effects of self-efficacy with student writing (Bottomley, Henk, & Melnick, 1998; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989; Schmidt & Alexander, 2012; Schunk & Swartz, 1993). In their study of thirty undergraduate students, Pajares and Johnson (1994) used a

pretest/posttest design to assess "writing self-efficacy, apprehension and performance" (p. 317) and found that self-efficacy in writing has a direct impact upon writing performance; part of writing performance is students' ability to interpret and apply instructor feedback. Similarly, Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1999) tested the revision practices of 84 female high school students and discovered that increased efforts to revise one's writing correlated with higher writing self-efficacy. Pajares (2003), in a comprehensive review of twenty years of research on self-efficacy and writing, noted that greater self-efficacy in writing contributes to writing behaviors that rely more consistently upon engagement, persistence and diligence. These studies have provided important information about the role self-efficacy plays in writing, interpretation and use of instructor feedback, and revision practices. It is important, especially at the college level, to encourage students to "[understand] how emotion and identity inform scholarly and career achievement" (Olthouse, 2012, p. 12). Development of a writerly self is an important aspect of teaching college students to write because it will aid in writing improvement.

Self-efficacy is one's "personal confidence in the ability to successfully perform tasks at a given level" (Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989, p. 91). However, there are a few issues that contribute to first-year writing students' low self-perceptions as writers (Cox, 2004). One issue is that students see first-year writing as something new; in other words, challenges to their self-efficacy are based upon a lack of comparison to previous experiences (Becker & Gable, 2009). Another issue preventing the formation of positive self-beliefs about writing lies in students' inability to fully understand and use instructor

feedback (Clayton, 2007) or to use other resources available to aid in the improvement of their writing (i.e., writing centers, tutors) (McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985). Additionally, stress has been shown to negatively impact one's self-efficacy (Zajacova, Lynch, & Espenshade, 2005), and failure to set appropriate goals, which is important when writing and revising, is another inhibitor to increased self-efficacy (Schunk, 1989). The self-regulatory nature of writing (Bruning, Dempsey, Kauffman, McKim, & Zumbrunn, 2013) can also impede self-efficacy growth due to first-year students' time management issues (Britton & Tesser, 1991). Since writing students with low self-efficacy can feel discouraged and defenseless, reversing these perceptions is necessary because students "with strong efficacy [are] better writers" (McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985, p. 469).

Bandura theorized that those with higher self-efficacy were more motivated to learn and more apt to exert additional effort (1977, p. 194). As Bandura and Schunk (1981) noted, intrinsic motivation is necessary to many human behaviors since "external inducements for [them] may be few and far between" (p. 586). The connection between intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy can be stimulated by a few factors, including explicit and proximal goals (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Giving students clear instructional tasks that are appropriately timed and directly related to their writing, then, can increase intrinsic interest and self-efficacy. In the long run, increased intrinsic motivation will sustain confident writing behaviors since, other than grades, there are few external motivators offered consistently to college-level writers. It has been further ascertained that students' self-efficacy contributes to their academic success and overall

emotional stability. Such traits are important for first-year writing students as they adjust to different expectations. Zimmerman (2000) also argued that self-perceptions can shift according to place, and it was Chemers, Hu and Garcia's (2001) primary contention that self-efficacy can aid "in an individual's successful negotiation of challenging life transitions" (p. 55). Self-efficacy's association with metacognition also makes it particularly important in new contexts, which can be seen in the "transfer of writing strategy use, skill and self-efficacy" brought forth by assignment objectives and instructor response (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006, p. 149).

As with any theory, though, there are limitations to this one and even Bandura saw motivation as being created by multiple means, not solely self-efficacy (Pajares & Johnson, 1994, p. 314). In addition, Pajares and Johnson noted that the relationship between self-efficacy and performance is affective and correlational, not causal (1994, p. 314). Despite these limitations, effective writing instruction depends upon the application of self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy has proved to be a better predictor of future performance and adjustment than prior grades or scores on standardized tests (Chemers et al., 2001; Zimmerman, 2000) because it puts students in control of their education. In first-year composition, students move from teacher-centered to student-centered learning. They must choose their own courses of action, persist when assignments become difficult, and maintain low levels of stress. Heightening students' self-efficacy is possible in the first-year composition classroom, and it is necessary because it provides them with a set of stable self-beliefs.

The Impact of the First-year Experience upon First-year Writing Students

The first year of college has, in recent years, been relabeled as the first-year experience. Colleges throughout the nation have studied the positive and negative aspects of college students' initial reaction to their particular universities because they have a direct correlation to retention among the student population. Thus, while faculty may lament the ill-preparedness of first-year students, administrators are heavily invested in capitalizing upon the positive aspects. Moreover, since college education has increased in importance over the past forty years, a great deal of research has been done in regards to what makes the first-year experience a successful one.

Universities throughout the United States depend upon general education requirements to create well-rounded and informed students who are able to contribute to a variety of discourse communities. First-year composition provides students with specific writing instruction that is geared towards their ability to successfully employ written communication in a variety of disciplines. To that end, writing instructors follow traditionally accepted modes of instruction, including the writing and research processes, to raise students' skills and confidence in their critical first year of college. The students themselves enter composition courses with a variety of attitudes. Some students see writing instruction as a waste of time; some embrace the opportunity to learn and practice new and old skills; still others feel inadequately prepared. The last set is most concerning to instructors and administrators.

Those students who begin the first year of college with self-perceived inadequacies are convinced that their writing skills are lacking (Cox, 2004). Three

decades of research assert that first-year students need to feel successful in order to develop favorable connections to college (Kuh, Cruce, Shoup, Kinzie, & Gonyea, 2008; Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, & Whitt, 2011; Tinto & Goodsell, 1994; Upcraft & Gardner, 1989), and one way is through course competency (Hunter, 2006). According to Barefoot (2000),

> Much of what now constitutes "the first-year experience" in U.S. higher education are programs and activities that have the following overall research-based objectives: […] Increasing faculty-to-student interaction, especially out of class […and increasing] academic expectations and levels of academic engagement. (p. 14)

Despite the goals of administrators and faculty, though, from the students' perspective, the first year of college is often a shock. First-year students struggle with autonomy, time management, and rigorous course work as they navigate many courses, including the long-standing requirement: first-year writing (Roehmer, Schultz, & Durst, 1999). Despite "the central role writing plays in helping students make the transition *to* college" (Sommers & Saltz, 2004, p. 127), students still struggle to write during their freshmen year, and as one student analogized: "she felt as if she were being asked 'to build a house without any tools'" (Sommers & Saltz, 2004, p. 131). One tool is instructor feedback.

In first-year writing, instructors need to challenge students' self-perceptions as writers because their successful adaptation to college, and college-level writing, depends upon it (Bandura, 1977; Barefoot, 2000). A dialogic approach to providing feedback satisfies Barefoot's objectives: "increasing faculty-to-student interaction […and increasing] academic expectations and levels of academic engagement" (2000, p. 14). For the under-prepared populations that undoubtedly exist in first-year composition classes

nationwide, emphasis upon and access to supplemental services need further implementation. Many colleges have tutoring or writing centers available, and some programs use embedded tutors or enrollment in concurrent courses that provide one-on-one assistance with additional writing faculty. As Barefoot (2000, p. 17) noted, "these initiatives make the essential difference" for students who desperately need them.

Ultimately, first-year composition courses have the power to appease all involved in the first-year experience, and the employment of revision plans as a solid construct of student engagement can form the necessary bridge from instructor to student and student to college. The current study has been conducted to answer two of Barefoot's closing questions: "What structures or techniques would we use in the transmission of knowledge? And how would learning be measured?" (2000, p. 18). Techniques that increase students' awareness of the rhetorical decisions they make can be measured by increased self-efficacy and enhanced performance and persistence, all of which have a lasting impact upon students as they become members of the academy.

Student Engagement with Instructor Feedback

Since the second half of the 20th century, college level composition courses have seen a shift in scope and purpose, and this shift has been accompanied by a change in the ways in which instructors can and do respond to their students' work. As composition courses became part of undergraduate general education requirements and, simultaneously, college enrollments dramatically increased, composition instructors were faced with large amounts of student papers to review. Suddenly, the focus upon revision became secondary as instructors sought ways to rapidly respond to students' drafts; thus,

their comments were often directed towards issues that were better addressed in the editing or proofreading stage.

In her seminal work on instructor response to writing, Sommers (1982) studied the comments made by instructors as well as students' reactions to and/or use of those comments; she found that the comments often relinquished any authority of the student writer, and students therefore only addressed the issues highlighted by their instructors. In fact, Sommers (1982) found that teacher comments on student drafts often stymied any motives or even desires to revise. Ten years later, Connors and Lunsford (1993) discovered, in their comprehensive analysis of 3,000 student papers, that while instructors had moved from local to global concerns, their comments minimally included praise (Daiker, 1989) and were often brief, leaving students to interpret the feedback. In fact, Gee's (1972) study found that providing students with no comments or negative comments "kill[ed] whatever it is that allows a student to believe in his ability to write" (p. 216). In addition, methods of feedback delivery can vary greatly (i.e., written, oral, screencast); thus, students are often unable to anticipate "when, how, and what kinds of responses to expect" (Cox, Black, Heney & Keith, 2015, p. 380). While Sterns and Solomon (2006) saw instructor comments as a "road map," current research supports the notion that students still have difficulty navigating the feedback despite instructors' efforts and intentions (Ackerman & Gross, 2010). Sommers' (1982) early work urged instructors to avoid making conversation-ending comments, such as "awkward" or "needs work," when the opportunity for authentic revision existed.

Student engagement with instructor feedback is a complex process. Instructor feedback is "one-on-one attention" aimed at improving students' writing, writing skills, (Martin, 2011; Wiltse, 2002; Wolsey, 2008) and self-efficacy as writers (Wiltse, 2002). In spite of these good intentions, students struggle with instructor feedback (Clayton, 2007), and many students overlook, misunderstand, and/or misuse teachers' comments on their drafts (Ackerman & Gross, 2010). Part of the problem may be that comments are seldom delivered in "real time" (Wolsey, 2008, p. 312). First-year writing students often receive comments on their drafts at the end of the class period or outside of the classroom. Without access to their instructor, some find it difficult to understand feedback comments, or, even when they do understand the comments, they are unsure of how to make the suggested changes to their essays (Richardson, 2000; Zellermayer, 1989). Subsequently, these students become easily frustrated, and as a result, they only make surface level changes (Parr & Timperley, 2010), such as corrections to grammar or usage. Feeling powerless and defeated, it is not unusual for students to question themselves as writers and their ability to apply their writing skills to improve their writing.

Moreover, despite instructors' efforts to improve their feedback comments, including a greater emphasis on global (i.e., organization, thesis development) versus local issues (i.e., grammar, punctuation) (Connors & Lunsford, 1993), some students are unsure about how to proceed with their writing and, in some cases, disheartened by comments that strip them of their authorial voice (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982). While praise would seem to assuage a student's vulnerability, overarching praise (i.e., nice job)

is ineffective (Wolsey, 2008). Stern and Solomon (2006) saw instructor comments as providing a specific set of guidelines that could help students move productively from draft to final copy, but students still struggle to understand, prioritize and use formative feedback (Ackerman & Gross, 2010; Martin, 2011) to revise. Many writing instructors will admit to negligence of monitoring, or even encouraging the revision practices of their students (Fitzgerald, 1987), most likely because of class size or time constraints (Haswell, 2015), but Wolsey's (2008) findings reinforced the value students place on interactive feedback. Therefore, using feedback as a "way to negotiate meaning" (Giberson, 2002) of students' texts should be the instructor's goal when encouraging opportunities for revision (Sommers, 1982).

In a first-year composition classroom, the relationship between instructor and student creates the potential for dialogue about students' writing. "Effective feedback may be the road to better writing, better writers, and better communication with students" (Stern & Solomon, 2006, p. 39). Fox's (1988) informal analysis of why students write clarified the need for authentic responses to their writing, which has become an important component of effective instructional delivery aimed at recurring formative assessment (NCTE, 2013). Giberson (2002) stressed the need to appropriately time such responses, as students need to be open to and prepared for comments that are meant to assist in their development as writers. One important goal in the feedback process, for instructors at least, is students' use of their comments. Berzsenyi (2001, p. 72) urged a "comment to comment" method based upon an "asynchronous, written collaboration" post-feedback through which she used feedback questions more than feedback statements. Such

questions prompted introspection and engagement with revision strategies, and since students replied to her comments, Berzsenyi viewed the simulated dialogue as an important step in building revision literacy among college-level writers; in other words, these written responses helped students understand and apply the "language of revision" (2001, p. 72).

It is crucial that students respond to instructors' comments on their written work because self-efficacy "is an internalized construct which can be learned and developed over time through a synthesis of consistent self-evaluation, coaching, and repeated practice" (Schmidt & Alexander, 2012, para. 4). Ultimately, first-year writing instructors have the power to positively affect students' self-efficacy through feedback that is supplemented by students' revision goals. The interaction between students and instructors encourages writing self-assessment and active revision practices. Most importantly, this dialogic approach to feedback and revision proposes an essential change and one that will hopefully alleviate students' indifference, misperceptions, frustration, and, sometimes, failure when it comes to writing.

Research on Student Revision Practices

In most first-year writing courses, students receive feedback from instructors in order to promote revision, yet a reluctance to revise one's writing is commonplace among writers (Muldoon, 2009). Studies on student revision reveal that better writers revise more than "novice" writers (Yagelski, 1995), but Sommers and Saltz labeled all first-year writers as "novices" (2004). The kinds of revision students do vary as well, as less-skilled student writers tend to concentrate only on lower order issues, especially without

instructor guidance, while more adept student writers will tackle global concerns (Hayes, Flower, Shriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987; Wallace, Hayes, Hatch, Miller, Moser, & Silk, 1996). Some writers feel defensive and are unwilling to, as Stephen King said, "kill [their] darlings" (2000). In other words, writers feel as though they did the work, and minimal cutting, if any at all, is necessary. Yagelski (1995) noted that context played a role; in other words, if students felt that they were writing to a teacher-audience, they revised their writing to appeal to what they felt their teacher would want their writing to be: "correct, well-organized and stylistically tight" (p. 231). In fact, since many students see the teacher as an expert, they resist making significant changes in their papers beyond what the teacher suggests (Berzsenyi, 2001). Fittingly, many students will confess that they barely look at feedback comments, or they will focus only on a surface error to address a quick fix. Some writers feel misunderstood by their instructor; they are convinced that the comments indicate problems with the instructor's reading of the piece, not with their own writing (Straub, 1997), so they resist making changes to their drafts. Still others feel unequipped to make changes or simply lack the time to do so. The end result, as Beach and Friedrich noted, is that "students engage in little substantive revision" (2006, p. 222).

What, then, does revision entail? Simply put, revision looks at the piece as a whole. It does not involve a micromanagement of minor aspects of the piece but instead employs the learning goals of the assignment. For example, if part of an assignment encouraged the use of scholarly sources as argumentative support, revision may include a student's reassessment of the sources, including an evaluation of the sources' credibility,

their contribution to the student's argument, and their synthesis with the student's ideas. In addition, true revision allows the student to take control of his or her writing. Students need to critically think about what needs to be changed rather than simply changing parts of the paper because someone (peer or instructor) told them to do so (Muldoon, 2009). Furthermore, in order to properly revise an essay, students need to be able to discuss potential changes, but first, they need a "conceptual vocabulary to 'talk' about writing" (Berzsenyi, 2001, p. 72). Such discussions can be synchronous or asynchronous, as either method provides students with an opportunity to think about and engage in the revision process. These conversations can also provide students with an opportunity to defend or explain rhetorical decisions they've made in their first drafts, which encourages the development of mature attitude about effective writing practices. This undoubtedly serves as a way to boost students' confidence as well. Thus, while instructor feedback is an important part of the writing process, challenging students to think about instructor comments is crucial to their skill development. Ultimately, it takes a self-regulated learner (Schiaffino, 2007) to first seek constructive criticism and then use it.

Revision demands reflection and reaction (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hayes, 2000; Sommers, 1980). For writers at all levels, revision is most often done alone, leaving writers with questions about organization, content, style, etc., all of which affect direction in their writing. While even writers with high writing self-efficacy struggle with the complexities of revision, writers with low self-efficacy are more reluctant to revise (Muldoon, 2009) because they doubt their ability to improve their writing effectively (McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985). The need for interaction at this stage of the writing

process is significant; it provides the opportunity for students to better comprehend instructor feedback, and it also creates occasions for writing success that increase self-efficacy (Wiltse, 2002). Martin's (2011) study, in which she explored eight types of comments that encouraged first-year writing students' revision, found that the most effective comments "make requests" of student writers (i.e., to elaborate or to develop). Involving students in instructor feedback comments resulted in "positive change in [students'] revision" (Martin, 2011, p. 26) practices, and encouraging student response to instructor comments makes them more knowledgeable about their texts and how those texts communicate with their intended audiences (Giberson, 2002). Studies have investigated the various reasons why students avoid comprehensive revision (Beach & Friedrich, 2006; Berzsenyi, 2001; Straub, 1997; Yagelski, 1995), but promoting revision can raise students' awareness of their writing skills and self-efficacy (Pajares & Johnson, 1994).

A Dialogic Approach: Guiding Instructor Feedback and Students' Revision

As writing instruction has become a foundation of college students' "first-year experience" (Barefoot, 2000; McInnis, 2001; Upcraft & Gardner, 1989), composition theorists and faculty have answered Sommers' call by studying feedback in an attempt to discover useful and productive methods. While it can be universally agreed that feedback to student writing is a vital component of composition instruction, it has also been established that students often rely on instructor feedback to improve their grade, but not necessarily their writing (Huot, 2002). Thus, since instructor feedback in first-year writing courses creates a basis for writing throughout and beyond a student's college

experience, it is imperative that instructors "[provide] effective feedback at every opportunity […] to encourage and promote learning" (Stern & Solomon, 2006, p. 38).

Feedback alone, however, cannot be sufficient for the development of students' skills and self-efficacy. For instructors, feedback takes a considerable amount of time and effort; Sommers' (1982) initial estimate was between 20 and 40 minutes per student paper, and recent research done at Oakland University in the Department of Writing and Rhetoric reported the same rough estimate of time devoted to commenting on students' essays (Hall, Gabrion, & Coon, 2014). Deep consideration of instructor feedback also takes time; students must consider and reflect upon instructors' comments. This interactive process heightens students' "levels of academic engagement" (Barefoot, 2000, p. 14) and compels them to not only learn the value of revision in all forms of communication but to actually apply it toward the improvement of their texts, regardless of mode. The investment of time, by instructor and student, will raise academic success and self-efficacy, thus making the first-year writing experience a more positive and useful one. As Johnson (2013) articulated, instructors want to "foster […] intellectual practices that enable students to succeed" (p. 537).

What does dialogic feedback look like? Most students desire directed feedback that guides them towards better habits and enhanced skills (Straub, 1997). Thus, instructors need to focus on comments that are encouraging (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Daiker, 1989; Gee, 1972); otherwise, students become dejected and unresponsive. Feedback comments should also be focused on the goals of the assignment, timely, personal, and minimally concerned with mechanics. Of course, many instructors strive to

perfect their own approach to feedback and work diligently to improve the nature of their feedback from semester to semester. However, Giberson (2002) acknowledged instructor response as individualistic; no two instructors respond in exactly the same way to students' writing. Despite this fact, students must read, react to, and use feedback; it is a "process of negotiation" (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982, p. 163) between students and instructors. As Sommers (1982) indicated, feedback comments "need to offer students revision tasks of a different order of complexity and sophistication from the ones that they themselves identify" (p. 154). In the first-year composition classroom, this missing step is one that should not be overlooked; there is a need for dialogue between student and instructor in order to challenge Beach and Friedrich's (2006) observations and promote "substantive revision." Surface corrections can be likened to spot exercises; neither will enhance the whole. Furthermore, instructors need to be cognizant of the particular course and the types of writers within it, which means that "revision dialogue" shifts in order to accommodate specific needs (Berzsenyi, 2001, p. 88).

Dialogic feedback rests on the tenets of formative assessment, and Chappuis (2005) enumerated its "necessary components." Formative assessment is necessary in the writing classroom because it allows instructors to provide instructive feedback during different aspects of the writing process. If instructors want to see productive use of their feedback, they not only need to provide it during early stages of the process, but they also need to allow students to take control of the way feedback will influence their final written products (Butler & Winne, 1995). Previous studies have lauded the benefits of formative assessment, but Chappuis (2005) produced several strategies that should

accompany it. Two are of particular interest to those teaching first-year composition. "*Strategy 4: Teach students to self-assess and set goals*" (Chappuis, 2005). Beyond feedback from their instructors, students need to consider what is working and what is not in their own writing. Such self-evaluation will help students consider how to increase the aspects of their compositions that are aligned with the goals of the assignment as well as eliminate or restructure those that are not. Chappuis (2005) also offers another strategy that is specifically useful in a college-level writing course: "*Strategy 6: Teach students focused revision.*" Like feedback, revision takes time and effort. However, if it is not built into the writing process schedule, students will neglect to thoughtfully and thoroughly revise their works.

Muldoon encouraged "revision opportunities […] governed by dialogic, not dialectic, practices" (2009, p. 69). In other words, the ability to convene needs to be embedded within the revision process; this is supported by DeVito's (1986) research on the requisite for an "interpersonal relationship" between teacher and learner (p. 51). Students should be urged to plan, to ask questions, to discuss, to go back to the piece, to make changes, and to plan again. As one student in the Sommer's *Beyond the Red Ink* stated, instructor comments need to "begin conversations, [not] end them" (2012). Even more telling, the same student wanted comments that "provoke." Muldoon (2009) supported this notion by insisting that dialogic revision is as much a part of critical thinking as is resistance. It takes students out of the role of passive receivers and provides them with decision-making control over their writing and their learning.

What, then, *should* student revision entail? Revision requires decision-making, flexibility, and time. Students need to critically think about what specifically in their writing needs to be revised rather than simply changing parts of a paper because someone of authority told them to do so (Muldoon, 2009). In order to effectively revise an essay, students must be able to envision and discuss potential changes, especially as they relate to the intended meaning of the written piece (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982). These conversations can provide students with an opportunity to think about, engage in, or defend decisions they've made in their first drafts, encouraging students to develop a mature attitude about their writing practices and promoting the important function conversations play in scholarship (Association of College & Research Libraries, 2016). The time spent revising undoubtedly serves as a way to boost students' confidence as well. Thus, while instructor feedback is an important part of the writing process, challenging students to use instructor comments is crucial to their skill development. As Sommers (1982) contended, "The process of revising always involves a risk" (p. 152). Revision is risky, but it advances the self-regulatory act of writing (Hidi & Boscolo, 2006) necessary for the growth of students' skills and self-efficacy (Butler & Winne, 1995).

Required revision plans provide the impetus students need to carefully consider a plan for revising, and discussing these goals allows instructors and students to develop an interpersonal relationship that has the potential to "[change] attitudes and behaviors" (DeVito, 1986). This echoes the *Framework for Success in Post-Secondary Writing*. In essence, the goal of first-year writing is to help students form successful "habits of mind"

that allow them to "approach learning from an active stance" (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011, p. 4). Through active learning, self-efficacy can increase, and students can develop revision skills that improve their writing. Furthermore, assigning revision plans will increase the likelihood that students will see revision as more than editing or proofreading. When writers engage in the revision stage, they often find the end product to be a more successful one in regards to accomplishing its goals. Therefore, while instructor feedback and student revision seem to be a process that students must navigate alone, it is one that needs to be dialogic. Instructor feedback becomes fundamentally more valuable to students who are encouraged to consider which aspects of their essays will benefit most from careful and critical revision.

Summary

It is clear that first-year students in a college-level writing course must develop self-efficacy in order to persist with their writing, but they must also see improvement in their skills in order to value their academic experiences. According to Vygotsky, teachers are better able to make an impact when students are developmentally prepared for a task (1934/1986). This idea can be applied directly to the writing activities conducted in a college-level classroom. Through individualized comments, instructors steer clear of the "rubber-stamped" feedback that Sommers (1982) admonished and positively influence students' writing behaviors. Colleges nationwide have tirelessly researched retention rates with an eye towards which practices impact students most, and intrusive techniques are considered to be highly effective. Providing feedback is an intrusive process, but can only become interactive when writers spend time considering their revision goals. These

goals, when presented to the instructor, initiate a dialogue between the instructor and student and encourage collaboration that ultimately becomes formative in nature. "Revision, then, is an important tool for improving one's writing skills and [through revision] students are encouraged and empowered to develop and hone their own writerly identities" (Muldoon, 2009). If student-driven revision plans pave the way for improved writing skills and self-efficacy, it seems logical, if not essential, that all first-year writing instructors should make a commitment to using them.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

"A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being [...]" (Bandura, 1994)

First-year composition is a required course, or set of courses, in most American post-secondary institutions. In their first year of college, students are confronted with complex issues such as self-regulation, time management, lack of confidence, difficulties with persistence, and more. Most first-year composition instructors are eager to ameliorate these difficulties as they pertain to writing, and they use feedback on students' drafts to do so. However, given that instructor feedback is difficult to standardize, and because students' interpretations and subsequent uses of feedback are even more problematic to pinpoint, it is challenging to know what type of feedback is working, when it is working, and how to replicate the process.

Furthermore, because self-efficacy is related directly to performance (Bandura, 1994), understanding the ebbs and flows of students' self-efficacy within the first semester of first-year composition allows instructors to investigate effective feedback practices. Looking at how instructor feedback impacts students' self-efficacy will allow instructors to be introspective about their instructional delivery, and it will encourage deliberate changes to the feedback process. This process cannot fall solely on the work of

the instructor, however, because self-efficacy is not developed by external factors alone. Instead, a combination of influences determines self-efficacy, and the student plays a role in the establishment and growth of this behavior. Therefore, while feedback has been historically considered the responsibility of the instructor, students must approach this aspect of the writing process as an opportunity for interaction. By taking an active role in the feedback process, students are then able to mine the "sources of self-efficacy": "mastery," "modeling," "social persuasion," and "mood" (Bandura, 1994).

Knowing that self-efficacy can be positively influenced by social interactions, this study analyzed the changes in students' self-efficacy over the course of one semester in two different settings: instructor feedback as an instructor-led process versus instructor feedback as an interactive process. Students' ability to actively prepare for and contribute to the feedback process should lead to greater mastery, feelings of success, and opportunities for "modeling" and "social persuasion" (Bandura, 1994).

Research Questions

This study sought answers to the following questions using a mixed method design:

RQ1. Does the intervention promote greater self-efficacy, and what is the general relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy?

RQ2. How does the intervention and type of feedback influence students' self-efficacy?

A. Written feedback with a student-developed revision plan

B. Oral feedback with a student-developed revision plan

C. Written feedback

D. Oral feedback

RQ3. What does a dialogic approach to instructor feedback, developed through student-devised revision plans, reveal about students' engagement with instructor feedback and revision in first-year composition?

Those with higher self-efficacy are known to perform better (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000); however, how to heighten self-efficacy is an intriguing concern for first-year writing instructors. Since the intervention of the revision plans has the potential to produce the "sources of information" (Bandura, 1977, p. 195) that raise one's self-efficacy, I expected greater growth in the experimental group's self-efficacy and that internal factors would have a greater relationship with students' self-efficacy than external factors. I also hypothesized that analysis of oral feedback combined with revision plans would yield statistically significant results, thereby promoting this feedback practice over the other three. Finally, given that raising students' self-efficacy in first-year writing courses is partially teacher dependent, I predicted that dialogic feedback strategies that combined instructor feedback with a student-developed revision plan would further enhance students' engagement with instructor feedback and with their own revision practices. Conclusively, if the scores on the Self-Efficacy and Motivation test yielded statistically significant gains in the experimental group over the course of one

fifteen (15) week semester, and if the qualitative data analyses supported these findings, it could be ascertained that student-devised revision plans, developed prior to receiving instructor feedback, are an effective intervention to the feedback and revision process in first-year composition.

Design of the Study

The current study employed a mixed methods research design. Mixed methods studies combine quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis and offer an acceptable approach to "[providing] an expanded understanding of research problems" (Creswell, 2009, p. 203). Using the concurrent triangulation strategy (Creswell, 2009), both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and compared. The quantitative portion of the study used a quasi-experimental with non-equivalent control group design (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014). Self-efficacy and motivation were measured four times throughout the Fall 2016 semester for participants in the experimental and control groups to assess changes in self-efficacy and motivation. Revision plans were collected from the experimental group, enumerating their concerns about their drafts, plans for addressing the concerns, and the rhetorical benefits of revising, and were analyzed for content. The control group did not complete the revision plans. Post-project questionnaires presented to students in both groups (control and experimental) provided qualitative data, and the content analysis method was used to evaluate the results. Additional qualitative data included optional end-of-semester interviews, transcribed and analyzed for related themes; however, this data was reserved and would be used only if it provided contributing and necessary information to the

previously described data. This study qualified as an acceptable mixed methods research design (Creswell, 2009), and triangulation, which is an integral aspect of a mixed method study (Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun, 2014), was achieved by looking at the data from multiple perspectives: students' self-efficacy and motivation; students' interpretation and use of instructor feedback; and students' plans for revision.

Procedures

Participant Selection

Initial contact with potential student participants was made in Week Three of the Fall 2016 semester. Four WRT 150 classes were approached individually and the nature of the study was described. After the distribution of consent forms, students had ample time for discussion about the study and participation in it, including their ability to withdraw, and measures were taken to protect their identities. Students were given a short period of time (approximately five minutes) to fill out the consent forms. Students choosing not to participate were instructed to leave their consent forms blank. All students turned their consent forms face down to protect their identity and decision prior to form collection. Students were assured that their participation in the study was entirely voluntary and their decision would not be revealed to their instructors nor would it have an impact upon their grade in the course. At the conclusion of the consent period, Self-efficacy and Motivation pretests were administered. Since the instructor was present in the classroom, all students received the pretest. Students were instructed to fill out the tests if they had consented and to leave them blank if they had not consented; all students

were instructed to turn the tests face down in order to protect the anonymity of consenting and non-consenting students, and this procedure was repeated for all testing done throughout the study. Overall, it was my desire to obtain and later disseminate data in an organized and precise manner (Rhodes & Weiss, 2013).

Participants

The participants in this study included seventy-two (72) first-year Writing and Rhetoric students at a small Midwestern university, divided into experimental (*n*=39) and control (*n*=33) groups. At this university, students are placed into writing courses based upon their ACT English composite scores; most students are assigned to WRT 150 Composition I in fall semester because their ACT English composite scores fall between 16-27 points. The participants in this study were enrolled in WRT 150.

Setting

The entire study was conducted at the participants' university, located in an affluent suburb in the Midwest. The picturesque campus houses over 20,000 students, the majority of whom commute. Most first-year students have an average ACT composite score (>21) and an above average (>3.0) GPA. The students come from a mix of ethnic backgrounds; while the students are predominantly white, the next largest groups represented are African Americans, Asian/Pacific Islanders, and Hispanics, respectively ("Diversity," n.d.). Furthermore, most current students are in-state residents. The college reports a student-faculty ratio of 21:1 ("Fast Facts," 2014) and boasts personal attention for students.

Throughout the study, contact with the student participants occurred most consistently in their WRT 150 classrooms. The Self-Efficacy and Motivation tests were conducted in the classrooms. The students included the last four digits of their student identification number on the tests to ensure the matching of test data to participants as well as to consent forms. The post-project questionnaires were also administered in the composition classrooms, and the students likewise included the last four digits of their student identification number to ensure matching data to participant as well as to consent. The revision plans included the last four digits of the student identification number, and they were collected by the instructors of students in the experimental group, made available to me in Moodle (the University's learning management system), and analyzed outside of the classroom. Finally, optional fifteen-minute post-study interviews were conducted in a campus office to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

Instrumentation

Self-efficacy and Motivation. Students' self-efficacy and motivation were assessed during Week Three, after two written drafts, and during Week Fourteen using the combined Post-Secondary Writing Self-Efficacy Instrument (PSWSES) [created and tested by Schmidt and Alexander (2012)] and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) [created and tested by Pintrich et al. (1991)] (see Appendix B). For the purpose of this study, self-efficacy has been defined as one's perceived belief that he or she can perform a particular action or skill; motivation has been defined as "the drive to [write] resulting from a comprehensive set of an individual's beliefs about, attitudes toward, and goals for [writing]" (Conradi, Jang, & McKenna, 2014, p. 154).

***PSWSES*.** The PSWSES was selected due to a few important considerations. First, the test is made for post-secondary writers. Other self-efficacy scales were reviewed, but because the intended users were younger (Bottomley, Henk, & Melnick, 1989) or the types of questions focused more on the mechanics of writing and writing tasks uncommon in first-year composition (Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989), the scales were ultimately rejected. As Pajares (2003) noted, "the relationship between self-efficacy and academic outcomes will be strongest when self-efficacy items are closely matched to the outcome under investigation." Therefore, since the PSWSES more closely matches the goals of writing in first-year composition, it more accurately assesses self-efficacy as it relates to undergraduate writing in a composition classroom. The PSWSES overall raw scores reveal self-efficacy level (below-average, average, above-average). While sub-scores can also be calculated for local and global writing process knowledge (beliefs about a student's writerly abilities to plan/draft/revise), physical reaction (stress/anxiety), and time and effort (a writer's management and motivation traits), sub-scores were not analyzed for this dissertation study. In tests of reliability and consistency, Schmidt and Alexander (2012) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of .931 and a split-half reliability of .864.

MSLQ. The decision to include portions of the MSLQ test were based upon information provided by participants in the second pilot study. A small percentage of students (6%) mentioned extrinsic motivators (i.e., improved grade on project) or intrinsic motivators (i.e., becoming a better writer) when asked to describe the rhetorical benefits of revising their work. While their answers were off-topic, they brought forth a

dimension to self-efficacy that the PSWSES fails to analyze but merits investigation. Furthermore, self-efficacy and motivation are interrelated; "strong self-efficacy beliefs and strong expectations for goal attainment […] enhance self-regulation" (Maddux, 2002). Thirty questions from the MSLQ were added to the PSWSES in order to better understand the following subcategories of motivation and learning: value components and resource management strategies (Pintrich et al., 1991). However, only two subtests were ultimately used for this dissertation study: the intrinsic goal orientation and extrinsic goal orientation subtests.

Intrinsic goal orientation "concerns the degree to which the student perceives herself to be participating in a task for reasons such as challenge, curiosity, mastery" (Pintrich et al., 1991, p. 9); a sample question from this subscale would be: The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible. Extrinsic goal orientation "concerns the degree to which the student perceives herself to be participating in a task for reasons such as grades, rewards, performance, evaluation by others, and competition" (Pintrich et al., 1991, p. 10). A question evaluating extrinsic goal orientation is: Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.

Data from the additional subtests, including task value motivation and four resource management strategies subtests, were collected. However, due to revisions to the three proposed research questions and data analyses procedures, this data was set aside and could be used in a future study.

Revision Plans. The revision plans (see Appendix A) were adapted from an online revision plan made available by the University of Michigan Sweetland Center for Writing (n.d.). The original version was in question/answer format. Putting the plan into table format provided better organization for students and for subsequent data analysis. The decision to include a column for students to identify the rhetorical benefits of their revision foci concurs with the goals of WRT 150, which are to introduce, analyze and apply the concepts of rhetoric ("First-year Writing," n.d.). Additionally, the revision plans allowed students to critically think about and actively plan for revision, which builds their "revision literacy" (Berzsenyi, 2001). Most importantly, the plans encouraged students and instructors to engage in a conversation about feedback and revision (Muldoon, 2009).

Questionnaires. The questionnaires were constructed based upon research of educational questionnaires, and these questionnaires were reviewed by Reading Language Arts faculty for feedback and revision purposes (see Appendix C). The questionnaires were used to probe students' beliefs after receiving a final grade on their projects to better understand the relationship between motivation, actions, and self-efficacy. As Gore, Leuwerke, & Turley noted, researchers have reported connections between "self-efficacy beliefs, performance, and persistence" (2005). Due to their direct connection to students' engagement with instructor feedback, only questions 2, 3, 7, and 8 (control group) and questions 3, 4, 8, and 9 (experimental group) were analyzed. Answers to the remaining questions were reserved and could be used at a later date, if desired.

Interviews. Interview questions were constructed based upon research of interviews in educational studies (Seidman, 2013), and the two sets of interview questions were reviewed by Reading Language Arts faculty for feedback and revision purposes (see Appendices D-E). It must be noted, however, that while the interview questions have been pre-formatted, responses could generate organic follow-up questions. In essence, this would allow the interviewees to tell a story (Pappas & Tucker-Raymond, 2011) about their feedback and revision experiences and how such experiences made them feel as a writer. After careful consideration of the applicability of the interview data to this study's research questions, it was determined that data from the interviews would be reserved and could be used at a later date, if desired.

Researcher's Role

In this study, my role as a researcher was to explain the nature and significance of the study, to administer tests and to gather qualitative data. In this capacity, very little researcher-student interaction occurred. However, as Creswell (2013) stated, in qualitative studies, the researcher is a "key instrument." Given that I designed the merged self-efficacy and motivation instrument, the questionnaires, the interview questions, and the revision plans, I ultimately played a key role, one more integral than simply collecting and analyzing data. Interacting with participants willing to partake in the post-study interviews also pushed my role to outside observer. Within these short interviews, I was able to ask questions and inquire further with follow-up questions. In these instances, I could observe body language, facial expressions, tone of voice and inflections, all of which would be more difficult to detect in the tests, revision plans and questionnaires.

Therefore, my role in this research reflected the dichotomous "insider/outsider" scenario (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009) as I was simultaneously student, instructor, and observer while collecting, analyzing, and interpreting this data.

Data Collection

The data in this study included raw scores on participants' Self-Efficacy and Motivation tests (see Appendix B); specifically, the twenty items of the Self-efficacy scale and the first eight items of the Motivation portion of the instrument were used. All participants, regardless of their placement in the experimental or control group, would complete this test four times over the course of the semester: Week Three, after two project drafts (one draft had received written feedback, and the other draft had received oral feedback), and Week Fourteen. In addition to raw scores on the self-efficacy scale, scores on sub-categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were recorded.

Data was also collected from the revision plans submitted by participants in the experimental group. The revision plans were distributed to the experimental group prior to receiving feedback on their drafts through Moodle and were completed outside of class. Instructors advised students to prioritize the top five issues/concerns/problems in their drafts. For example, if a student was concerned about his or her introductory paragraph, the student would write a word or phrase to indicate that in the appropriate box (i.e., Introductory paragraph). Instructors further advised students to include their plan for the revision of each issue and the rhetorical benefit of making these revisions to their essay. The instructors had the students upload the revision plans to Moodle before they provided feedback. Instructors used the revision plans to target their comments and

to guide the students into and through the revision process. In other words, instructors could validate and/or add to the students' revision plans during the feedback process. The goal of the revision plan was to initiate conversation about the instructor's feedback, whether the feedback was delivered orally or in writing. Participants in the control group received instructor feedback, whether orally delivered or written, but did not complete the revision plans.

In addition, data was collected from questionnaires, which were administered after students had received grades on final drafts. Since one of the final projects of the semester in WRT 150 is submitted on or after the last day of classes, these questionnaires were conducted twice in the participants' composition classrooms. One questionnaire was constructed for the experimental group, and an alternate questionnaire was constructed for the control group. Finally, data was collected from the required faculty and optional student interviews conducted post-study.

Data Analysis

To answer RQ1, changes in self-efficacy among and between the control and experimental group were examined by using three t-tests. Prior to conducting the t-tests, the two groups, control and experimental, were tested for independence. Next, preliminary statistical analyses of the raw scores of the self-efficacy portion of the Self-efficacy and Motivation test were conducted using SPSS software version 22. In addition, exploratory analyses were conducted using the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality to determine the assumption of normality and the Levene statistic to determine the homogeneity of variance. The t-tests were used to measure the growth of self-efficacy

over the course of one semester for both the experimental and control groups, and they further determined which group increased more in self-efficacy. The first t-test compared the pretest and posttest self-efficacy scores, using only the first 20 items of the Self-efficacy and Motivation Test (see Appendix B) of the control group, and the second t-test compared the pretest and posttest self-efficacy scores, again using only the first 20 items of the Self-efficacy and Motivation Test of the experimental group. The third t-test compared the gain scores in self-efficacy (gain score = SE posttest score – SE pretest score). The results of these tests indicated whether self-efficacy has the ability to grow in one semester as well as whether the intervention of the revision plans can impact that growth. To assess the general relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy, a test of correlation measured how much the degree of intrinsic motivation is related to self-efficacy. To run this test, a scale score of motivation was created using the first eight (8) items of the Motivation portion of the Self-efficacy and Motivation Test. The scale scores were determined by a ratio (intrinsic score – extrinsic score = degree of intrinsic motivation). The original scale ranging from -24 to 24 was converted to a scale ranging from 1 to 49. The correlation test was used to determine the relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy.

To answer RQ2, the influence of the intervention and type of feedback on students' self-efficacy were measured using a two-way repeated measures ANOVA to determine the main effect for the group (experimental - revision plans or control – no revision plans), the main effect for feedback type (oral or written), and the interaction

effect, or in other words, the combination of factors (revision plan/no revision plan and oral/written feedback) that yielded the highest self-efficacy score. See Figure 3.1.

	Revision Plans	No Revision Plans
Oral Feedback		
Written Feedback		

Figure 3.1. This figure illustrates the four conditions tested for effects on self-efficacy growth in participants.

Prior to conducting the two-way repeated measures ANOVA, the two groups, control and experimental, were tested for independence. Next, preliminary statistical analyses of the raw scores of the self-efficacy portion of the Self-efficacy and Motivation test were conducted using SPSS software version 22. In addition, exploratory analyses were conducted using the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality to determine the assumption of normality and the Levene statistic to determine the homogeneity of variance. The results of the two-way repeated measures ANOVA offered first-year writing instructors advice about feedback type and whether or not to include a revision plan when guiding students through the instructor feedback/revision process.

To answer RQ3, the analysis of qualitative data revealed information about students' engagement with instructor feedback and revision due to the use of a dialogic

approach to instructor feedback, developed through student-devised revision plans. Using a qualitative coding framework, the revision plans (three per participant/per semester) were analyzed specifically for changes in the issues selected for revision, the plans for revision, and the rhetorical benefits of revision over time. The analysis looked for growth in

- the kinds of issues students focus upon (i.e., a movement from local to global issues)
- the ways that students execute changes in their papers (i.e., a movement from formatting and correcting grammar/usage to researching, revising, adding, reevaluating)
- a deeper understanding of the rhetorical value of making such changes (i.e., a movement from non-rhetorical benefits [i.e., elevate a grade] to rhetorical benefits [i.e., establish ethos])

Qualitative data from the revision plans was also quantified using simple descriptive statistics (i.e., frequencies and percentages). In addition, questions 2, 3, 7, and 8 in the control group post-project questionnaire and questions 3, 4, 8, and 9 in the experimental group post-project questionnaire provided data on students' engagement with instructor feedback. Analysis of questions 2 and 7 (or 3 and 8, respectively) used simple descriptive statistics to determine students' perceptions of instructor feedback, particularly the types of issues targeted by their instructors (i.e., issues with grammar, issues with organization) and whether students engaged in a discussion with their instructors about the feedback provided. Analysis of question 3 (question 4 for the

experimental group) involved coding for the issues that the students chose to address, based on the answers in question 2. Question 8 (question 9 for the experimental group) was coded to gain a better understanding of why students chose to discuss feedback with their instructor prior to revising their drafts. Themes generated by these questions were further analyzed comparatively to discover differences between the control and experimental groups (Pappas & Tucker-Raymond, 2011).

Potential Limitations

There were four possible limitations to this study. First, the findings could not be fully generalized since the study did not include a randomized sample. Second, since instructor feedback cannot be standardized, it is also possible that an increase in self-efficacy would be dependent upon instructor feedback and the implementation of revision plans instead of dependent upon the intervention of the revision plans alone. Third, one semester may not provide enough significant data by which to measure growth in students' self-efficacy. Finally, repeated measures experiments do present limitations with testing effects (Fife-Shaw, 2012). However, steps would be taken to reduce the limitations of the study, and while each limitation presented a difficulty in generalizing the results of this study, the implication for including a revision plan concurrent with instructor feedback in first-year composition classes should be strong and therefore considered as an important developmental stage for emerging college-level writers.

Summary

According to Creswell (2009), using a concurrent triangulation strategy "can result in well-validated and substantiated findings" (p. 214). In collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data, research questions were more deeply explored, especially as they relate to the theoretical frameworks guiding this study. In assessing and analyzing self-efficacy and motivation, changes in self-efficacy over the course of the semester were measured, the relationship between self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation was assessed, and a better understanding of students' preferences for feedback mode was developed. The positioning of the revision plans, which produced qualitative data about students' writing concerns and plans for revisions, required the structure of Flower and Hayes' (1981) writing process model and promoted socially constructed learning guided by the instructor in the dialogic feedback process. This interaction between instructor and student also had the potential to raise students' self-efficacy, especially feedback that taps into the four "sources of information" that contribute to one's self-efficacy: "enactive, vicarious, exhortative, and emotive" (Bandura, 1977, p. 200). The results of the post-project questionnaires, which consisted of specifically chosen close-ended and open-ended questions, revealed aspects of students' engagement with instructor feedback that the revision plans alone did not. The post-project questionnaires also provided input from the control group about students' engagement with instructor feedback and their subsequent plans for revision. Thus, the use of a mixed methods design contributes to deeper comprehension (Creswell, 2009) of the issues with feedback, revision and self-

efficacy that confront first-year writing students, and the results should propose an intervention that could improve all three (Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

"…what people do is often better predicted by their beliefs about their capabilities"
(Pajares & Johnson, 1994)

Previous studies have argued the important role self-efficacy plays in student writing (Bottomley, Henk, & Melnick, 1998; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989; Schmidt & Alexander, 2012; Schunk & Swartz, 1993), particularly in building successful writing behaviors that students can use throughout their college courses and beyond. Since self-efficacy can be manipulated through interactions and activities that appeal to Bandura's targeted "four major sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states" (1977, p. 195), this study investigated one common interaction in first-year writing courses (instructor feedback on student drafts) and one writing process activity (students' revision of drafts) to better understand their impact upon the growth of students' self-efficacy over the course of one academic semester. In addition, sources of motivation were explored to determine whether a relationship exists between high intrinsic motivation and high self-efficacy. Seventy-two (72) first-year students in the department of Writing and Rhetoric enrolled in a Fall 2016 WRT 150 (Composition I) course participated in this mixed methods study.

The following three research questions will be addressed in this chapter:

RQ1. Does the intervention promote greater self-efficacy and what is the general relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy?

RQ2. How does the intervention and type of feedback influence students' self-efficacy?

A. Written feedback with a student-developed revision plan
B. Oral feedback with a student-developed revision plan
C. Written feedback
D. Oral feedback

RQ3. What does a dialogic approach to instructor feedback, developed through student-devised revision plans, reveal about students' engagement with instructor feedback and revision in first-year composition?

Using a mixed methods design, RQ1 and RQ2 employed quantitative analyses whereas RQ3 employed qualitative analyses. Results for RQ1 and RQ2 used the analyses of t-tests, correlation and a two-way repeated measures ANOVA. Results for RQ3 relied upon coding, descriptive statistics, and interpretive analyses.

Quantitative Results

To answer RQ1, a series of t-tests were conducted as well as a test of correlation. To better understand the results, RQ1 has been subdivided into four sub-questions. To answer RQ2, a two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted.

RQ1a

Is there a growth in self-efficacy over the course of the semester in the control group?

Descriptive statistics and statistical analysis. A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare PSWSES raw scores in control group participants at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester. Results of the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality show that the population is normally distributed; $p > .05$ ($p = .82$, $p = .07$). Because the group consisted of the same set of participants for both pretest and posttest, homogeneity of variance did not need to be tested. Results for the control group indicated that there was a significant increase in self-efficacy at the end of the semester (M=80.82, SD=11.55) when compared to the beginning of the semester (M=72.57, SD=11.85); t (df = 27) = -5.197, $p < .05$. (see Table 4.1)

RQ1b

Is there a growth in self-efficacy over the course of the semester in the experimental group?

Table 4.1

Pre- and posttest mean scores for self-efficacy in the control group

	Pretest		Posttest	
Instrument	M	SD	M	SD
Post-secondary Writing Self-efficacy Scale (PSWSES)	72.57	11.85	80.82	11.55

Descriptive statistics and statistical analysis. A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare PSWSES raw scores in experimental group participants at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester. Results of the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality show that the population is normally distributed; $p > .05$ ($p = .08$, $p = .60$). Since the group remained the same for both pretest and posttest, homogeneity of variance did not need to be tested. Results for the experimental group indicated that there was a significant increase in self-efficacy at the end of the semester (M=80.65, SD=11.51) when compared to the beginning of the semester (M=73.84, SD=8.80); t (df = 30) = -4.250, $p <$ .05. (see Table 4.2)

RQ1c

Is the growth in self-efficacy over the course of the semester greater in the experimental group than in the control group?

Descriptive statistics and statistical analysis. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the gain scores (gain score = posttest score – pretest score) in self-

Table 4.2

Pre- and posttest mean scores for self-efficacy in the experimental group

	Pretest		Posttest	
Instrument	M	SD	M	SD
Post-secondary Writing Self-efficacy Scale (PSWSES)	73.84	8.80	80.65	11.51

efficacy in the experimental group to the gain scores in self-efficacy in the control group. Results indicated that normality can be assumed, as represented by the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality ($p > .05$, $p = .69$), and the homogeneity of variance had not been violated, as represented in Levene's statistic ($p > .05$, $p = .96$). Results of the independent samples t-test showed that there was not a significant difference in the growth of self-efficacy in the experimental group (M=6.81, SD=8.92) when compared to the control group (M=8.25, SD=8.4); $t(df = 57) = .638$, $p > .05$. (see Table 4.3)

RQ1d

Is there a general relationship between the degree of intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy?

Statistical analyses. In analyzing the potential relationship between increased self-efficacy scores and a high degree of intrinsic motivation at the beginning and at the end of the term, scale scores of motivation were determined by a ratio (intrinsic score – extrinsic score = ratio/degree of intrinsic motivation). The intrinsic scores were based

Table 4.3

Mean gain scores for self-efficacy in the experimental and control groups

	Experimental		Control	
Instrument	M	SD	M	SD
Post-secondary Writing Self-efficacy Scale (PSWSES)	6.81	8.92	8.25	8.4

Note. n=31 in the experimental group and n=28 in the control group.

upon the sum of the first four items of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire [MSLQ] in the Self-efficacy and Motivation instrument (see Appendix B), and the extrinsic scores were based upon the sum of items five (5) through eight (8) of the MSLQ in the Self-efficacy and Motivation instrument. The scale was then converted as shown below:

(highly extrinsic) -24	0	24 (highly intrinsic)
(highly extrinsic) 1	25	49 (highly intrinsic)

Based upon the results of the first analysis, higher self-efficacy was not related to higher intrinsic motivation at the beginning of the semester ($r = .180$, $p > .05$). Similarly, higher self-efficacy was not related to higher intrinsic motivation at the end of the semester ($r = .073$, $p > .05$). (see Table 4.4)

RQ2

How does the intervention and type of feedback influence students' self-efficacy?

A. Written feedback with a student-developed revision plan
B. Oral feedback with a student-developed revision plan
C. Written feedback
D. Oral feedback

Data collection issues. RQ2 investigated PSWSES raw scores according to group (control/no revision plan or experimental/revision plan) and feedback type (written or oral). The goal of this analysis was to determine which set of conditions influenced the growth of self-efficacy most. However, while collecting data for RQ2, an issue arose that

Table 4.4

Correlations of self-efficacy and degree of intrinsic motivation

Variable	1	2	3	4
Beginning of semester				
1. Self-efficacy	__	.180		
2. Degree of intrinsic motivation	.180	__		
End of semester				
3. Self-efficacy			__	.073
4. Degree of intrinsic motivation			.073	__

impeded the attainment of a complete set of data for self-efficacy measured concurrent with receiving oral feedback. Specifically, the study's design included two faculty participants and two of their WRT 150 sections; in total, students from four WRT 150 sections consented to participate. For each faculty participant, one class was designated as part of the control group and the other as part of the experimental group. Therefore, the entire control group was comprised of one class from one faculty participant and one class from the other faculty participant, and the experimental group was formed in the same manner. Data collection for RQ2 required PSWSES scores after receiving written feedback and after receiving oral feedback for both control and experimental groups. However, one faculty participant, due to absences and schedule changes, failed to provide oral feedback to the experimental group until the end of the semester. Since this concurred with collecting posttest data, PSWSES scores measuring post-oral feedback could not be collected for this portion of the experimental group. After discussion with

the dissertation committee, it was determined that data analysis should use data collected from the teacher who had followed protocol, which resulted in using only one faculty participant's two classes and effectively reducing the entire data set by 60%. Therefore, to accurately conduct the two-way repeated measures ANOVA, 40% of the complete data set (n=29) was used. It must be noted that the resulting analysis of RQ2 data had low observed power, which lessens the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis.

Descriptive statistics. Results indicated that the mean PSWSES raw score associated with written feedback was slightly higher for the experimental group (M=78.13, SD=9.29) than the mean PSWSES raw score associated with written feedback (M=77.64, SD=12.72) in the control group. Results associated with oral feedback indicated that the mean PSWSES raw score was slightly higher for the control group (M=79.57, SD=15.13) than the mean PSWSES raw score associated with oral feedback (M=77.07, SD=13.40) in the experimental group. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality indicated that normality could be assumed, $p > .05$ ($p = .88$, $p = .13$), and the Levene statistic confirmed that the homogeneity of variance had not been violated, $p > .05$ ($p = .26$, $p = .89$).

Statistical analysis. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to determine the main effect for the intervention/group (control/no revision plan or experimental/revision plan), the main effect for feedback type (written or oral), and the interaction effect, or in other words, the combination of factors (revision plan/no revision plan and oral/written feedback) that yields the highest PSWSES score. (see Table 4.5)

Table 4.5

Diagram illustrating the two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA)

	No Revision Plans	Revision Plans
Written Feedback		
Oral Feedback		

The main effect for the intervention of the revision plans (control group vs. experimental group) yielded an F ratio of $F(1,27) = .05$, $p > .05$, with a small effect size and weak power (partial $\eta^2_{GROUP} = .002$, observed power = .055), indicating no significant difference based on the intervention. The effect size suggests that about 6% of the variance in PSWSES scores can be accounted for by the inclusion of revision plans. The main effect for feedback type (written or oral) yielded an F ratio of $F(1,27) = .083$, $p > .05$, with a small effect size and weak power (partial $\eta^2_{FEEDBACK} = .003$, observed power = .059), indicating that the effect for feedback type was not significant. The effect size suggests that about 6% of the variance in PSWSES scores can be accounted for by feedback type (written or oral). Finally, the interaction effect was not significant, $F(1,27) = 1.002$, $p > .05$, indicating that none of the combinations of factors (see above) yielded a significantly higher mean self-efficacy score. The small effect size and weak power (partial $\eta^2_{FEEDBACK*GROUP} = .036$, observed power = .162) suggests that about 16% of the variance in PSWSES scores can be accounted for by the interaction of intervention and

Table 4.6

Results of two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Variables	d*f*	*F*	*p*	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power[a]
Group	1	.050	.825	.002	.055
Error	27				
Feedback	1	.083	.775	.003	.059
Error	27				
Feedback*Group	1	1.002	.326	.036	.162
Error	27				

Note. Observed power computed using alpha = .05

feedback type. The null hypothesis must be accepted; the mean PSWSES scores remained relatively similar in all four conditions indicating that not one condition had a greater influence on students' self-efficacy than the others. (see Table 4.6)

Qualitative Results

To answer RQ3**,** using a qualitative coding framework, the revision plans were analyzed specifically for changes in the issues selected for revision, the plans for revision, and the rhetorical benefits of revision over time (one semester), reported both descriptively and interpretively. Analyses of questions 2, 3, 7, and 8 in the control group post-project questionnaire and questions 3, 4, 8, and 9 in the experimental group post-project questionnaire used a combination of coding and simple descriptive statistics to better understand students' engagement with instructor feedback.

RQ3

What does a dialogic approach to instructor feedback, developed through student-devised revision plans, reveal about students' engagement with instructor feedback and revision in first-year composition?

Revision plans. According to Flick (2013), "qualitative data analysis combines approaches of rough analysis of the material […] with approaches of detailed analysis" (p. 5). By moving from a "rough" to "detailed" analysis, the revision plans were subjected to an "iterative process" (Yin, 2009, p. 1), meaning that the content of the revision plans were analyzed repeatedly to confirm the placement of participants' responses into categories. While a "rough analysis" did occur in the initial analysis of the revision plans, given that the revision plans were used in the second pilot study, three sets of categories (concerns/issues, plans for revision, rhetorical benefits of revision) had been previously established. This created a coding framework of "preset aims and objectives" (Pope, Ziebland, & Mays, 2000, p. 116).

Working from the frequency charts established during the analysis process of the second pilot study, the revision plans were once again analyzed according to the three columns: Selected Issue/Concern/Problem, My Plan (for revision), and Rhetorical Benefit. The categories established in the second pilot study yielded seventeen (17) issues/concerns/problems, fifteen (15) planned actions for revision, and fifteen (15) perceived rhetorical benefits. These categories provided an initial starting point, and they were reexamined when coding this study's set of revision plans, with particular attention given to categories that needed to be eliminated or added. The coding process involved

reading all of the revision plans and highlighting keywords or phrases related to the categories established in the second pilot study. Since participants responded with problems, plans, and rhetorical benefits on their revision plans, responses in each column were color-coded to represent the overarching category (i.e., problems, plans, and rhetorical benefits). After all keywords and/or phrases had been color-coded, the revision plans were read again to check accuracy; in other words, the coded portions were compared to the response as a whole in each column to ensure accurate representation of each participant's articulated problem, plan and rhetorical benefit. Furthermore, the coded portions were checked for relevancy (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003) to RQ3. Next, the coded responses were compared to the existing categories established in the second pilot study, and preliminary tallying of responses in the appropriate categories occurred. As a result, two sets of categories established in the current study were condensed from the second pilot study: from seventeen (17) to thirteen (13) issues/concerns/problems and from fifteen (15) to fourteen (14) perceived rhetorical benefits; one set of categories was expanded from the second pilot study: from fifteen (15) to seventeen (17) planned actions for revision.

Since the categories "[organized] a group of repeating ideas" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 42), each category was further analyzed for frequency and proportion. Also, because growth in attitudes about writing was a related concern, the frequencies and proportions were compared according to time. To do this, the revision plans were separated by date. Those completed prior to Week Eight were labeled "beginning of semester"; those completed after Week Eight were labeled "end of

semester" (see Appendix G). Below, results of the revision plan analyses are reported descriptively, interpretively, and chronologically.

Descriptive statistics/beginning of semester. When prioritizing issues/concerns/problems that they intended to address in the revision stage, participants rated support issues the highest (24%). The next highest issue was related to concluding their arguments (13%) followed by issues related to thesis formation (10%) and synthesis of outside source content (8%). Remaining percentages included the following: introduction (6%), organization (6%), repetition/word choice (5%), analysis (4%), cohesion/transitions (4%), point of view (4%), and tone (2%). In the directions for the revision plans, students were asked to refrain from including issues with mechanics or citations, and while they still included such issues in their revision plans, it is important to note that their comments about incorporating source content were different than their issues with how to cite sources. Despite the instructions provided on the plans themselves, students rated documentation (4%) and grammar/mechanics/usage (9%) as concerns.

When asked to articulate a plan for dealing with areas of concern in their papers, participants strongly chose to add support (23%). Their next most planned approach was to rewrite sections of their papers (10%). Three planned actions were given 7% of their efforts, to establish their argument, to conclude effectively, and to organize; similarly, three planned actions were given 6% of their efforts, to include/evaluate sources, to connect, and to elevate diction. The remaining planned actions were distributed as follows: appeal to audience (5%), introduce topic/issue (4%), explain (4%), focus (3%),

seek help (2%), analyze (1%), and summarize (1%). Participants also planned to address lower order issues in their drafts: format (3%) and proofread/edit (5%).

With regard to the perceived rhetorical benefits to making the planned change to their essays, students expressed that reaching the intended audience (32%) and achieving the essay's purpose (19%) were most prominent. Fluency (9%) and articulating the argument's claim (8%) were also considered to be significant rhetorical benefits. In addition, participants viewed revision as contributing to the development of their ethos (4%), better organization (4%), a more formal level of diction (4%), more detailed exemplification (3%), and a logos appeal (2%). Other perceived benefits included: word choice (2%), syntax (1%), and pathos (1%). One non-rhetorical benefit was included in the revision plans, avoiding plagiarism (1%), and one overarching benefit was included, strengthens argument (9%).

Interpretive analysis/beginning of semester. The sincere responses by the study participants ranged in length, focus, expressiveness, and effort. However, the responses indicated an understanding of the weaknesses in their papers (Selected Issue/ Concern/Problem), such as "[add] deeper analysis," "[make sure] quotes are being used in an effective manner," "include better background information," "paper lacks tone," or "struggling to take the reader through the process." Their plans included a variety of actions, which were organized into seventeen (17) actions that represented all responses. Thoughtful replies included clauses such as "[add] more confident choices and [defend] my argument more," "specific quotes […] need to be better explained," "do more research," "expand upon the ideas," and "have others look [it] over." Finally, the

rhetorical benefits for changes to their essays covered a wide range of rhetorical devices, including the Aristotelian appeals as well as structural and stylistic concerns. All of their responses revealed a desire to improve their papers: "this would help to add credibility to my essay," "it leads the way for the reader to better understand the purpose of the essay," "[structure] prevents the paper from getting off topic and confusing the reader," "more support will strengthen my point," and "will create an emotional appeal."

***Descriptive statistics/end of semester*.** Revision plans devised late in the semester reinforced many of the same issues/concerns/problems participants intended to address in the revision stage. They rated support issues the highest (19%). The next highest issues related to problems with synthesis of outside source content (16%), organization (11%), concluding their arguments (10%), introducing their arguments (8%), and thesis formation (6%). Remaining percentages included the following: cohesion/transitions (5%), repetition/word choice (4%), analysis (1%), and point of view (1%). Tone (0%) was not expressed as a concern in this set of revision plans. Similar to the beginning of the semester, despite the instructions provided on the revision plans themselves, students rated documentation (9%) and grammar/mechanics/usage (12%) as significant concerns.

When asked to articulate plans for revision, participants again rated adding information or support (13%) highest, but equal in importance was the plan to include/evaluate sources (13%). Eight planned actions were given 7% of their efforts, and these included plans to conclude effectively, organize, connect/cohere, rewrite, appeal to audience, seek help, format and proofread/edit. The remaining planned actions were distributed as follows: introduce topic/issue (6%), establish argument (6%), focus (4%),

elevate diction (3%), and analyze (1%). This set of revision plans did not include plans to explain (0%) or summarize (0%).

When considering the rhetorical benefits to making specific planned changes to their essays, participants still felt as though reaching the intended audience (30%) and achieving the essay's purpose (12%) were most important. Articulating the argument's claim (11%) and the development of their ethos (9%) were also considered to be significant rhetorical benefits. Additionally, participants saw revision as contributing to better organization (8%), fluency (8%), a more formal level of diction (4%), more detailed exemplification (4%), and a logos appeal (2%). Other perceived benefits included: word choice (1%), syntax (1%), and pathos (1%). Similar to the beginning of the semester, one non-rhetorical benefit was included in the revision plans, avoiding plagiarism (2%), and one overarching benefit was included, strengthens argument (9%).

Interpretive analysis/end of semester. Student responses toward the end of the semester continued to indicate an understanding of the problems they had encountered while drafting (Selected Issue/Concern/Problem), such as "make my conclusion stronger," "obtain more evidence," "reorganize," "develop better claim," or "[need] broader viewpoint." Their plans continued to include a variety of actions that displayed introspection and critical thinking: "strengthen my thesis," "incorporate required evidence to support my thesis statement," "correctly incorporate and cite primary and secondary sources," "revisit my conclusion," and "visit the professor during office hours." Finally, participants successfully articulated the rhetorical benefits of revisions to their late-semester drafts: "the audience will be more interested in reading my essay," "to

ensure that I have credibility," "a better stance will be taken," "it will reiterate the purpose of the essay more effectively," and "enhance logos."

Post-project questionnaires. The post-project questionnaires were distributed to all study participants twice over the course of the semester. While the revision plans described intended behaviors, the post-project questionnaires investigated students' self-reported actions. The post-project questionnaires compared students' purported revision practices based upon four conditions: after receiving written feedback, after receiving oral feedback, after completing a revision plan (experimental group), and without completing a revision plan (control group). Therefore, descriptive statistics and interpretive statistics were analyzed by question (questions 2, 3, 7, and 8 in the control group and questions 3, 4, 8, and 9 in the experimental group) and subdivided into four separate response categories: control group/written feedback, experimental group/written feedback, control group/oral feedback, and experimental group/oral feedback (see Appendix H).

Question 2 (control)/Question 3 (experimental) and Question 7 (control)/Question 8 (experimental) were close-ended questions. Analysis of Question 2/Question 3 involved establishing a list of the feedback issues participants believed their instructors had targeted and tallying the frequency of responses to each item. This list was based on the eight choices provided in Question 2/3. While there was an option to include additional feedback issues, only one response group added items. An Excel spreadsheet was used to organize and tally the responses, and the responses were then converted to percentages. Question 7/Question 8 required a yes/no answer, and the frequency of affirmative and

negative responses were tallied. Using an Excel spreadsheet, the responses were recorded and converted to percentages.

Question 3 (control)/Question 4 (experimental) and Question 8 (control)/Question 9 (experimental) were open-ended questions. Coding of both sets of questions involved reading all participants' responses and highlighting keywords and/or phrases. Since many of the participants responded to Question 3/Question 4 with three of feedback issues listed in Question 2/Question 3, a partial coding framework had already been established. Using the list of feedback issues from Question 2/Question 3, responses to Question 3/Question 4 were highlighted. After all keywords and/or phrases had been highlighted, the post-project questionnaires were read again to check accuracy and relevancy (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). Next, the coded responses were compared to the existing categories established in the analysis of Question 2/Question 3, followed by the addition of six categories: cohesion, synthesis (of sources), introduction, conclusion, point of view, and length requirement. Responses were tallied according to category, and frequencies were converted to percentages. For Question 8/Question 9, after an initial reading and highlighting of keywords and phrases, the post-project questionnaires were checked again for both accuracy and relevancy (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). The coded responses generated eight categories for communicating with/not communicating with instructors regarding feedback, and each category was further analyzed for frequency and proportion.

Question 2 (control)/Question 3 (experimental). This question concerned students' perception of instructor feedback; in other words, what did their instructors target as areas that needed improvement?

> 2./3. What types of issues did your instructor feedback focus on? (circle all that apply)
>
> a. Issues with grammar/usage
> b. Issues with citations/documentation
> c. Thesis issues
> d. Organizational issues
> e. Issues pertaining to audience
> f. Issues pertaining to purpose
> g. Issues pertaining to support
> h. Rhetorical issues
> i. Other: _____

Responses are reported as descriptive statistics for each of the response categories.

Control group/written feedback. The highest ranking were issues with support (23%) and organization (23%), followed closely by issues with citations (18%), grammar (10%), and purpose (10%). Thesis (8%), audience (5%), and rhetorical (5%) concerns were ranked comparatively low.

Experimental group/written feedback. Participants reported that issues with organization (19%), support (16%), and thesis (16%) were most targeted by instructor feedback, followed by concerns about citations (15%), rhetoric (11%), and purpose (10%). Audience (6%) and grammar (4%) were least targeted by instructor feedback, according to students' perceptions, and one participant in this response group indicated that the instructor had not indicated any issues or concerns when providing feedback on the draft.

Control group/oral feedback. For this response group, issues with support (22%), organization (17%), rhetoric (15%), citations (15%), purpose (12%) and audience (9%) were ranked accordingly. Grammar (5%) and thesis (3%) concerns were last, and 2% listed other concerns: synthesis and meeting the project's requirements.

Experimental group/oral feedback. Issues were ranked as follows: organization (24%), support (22%), citations (16%), thesis (16%), purpose (10%), rhetorical issues (8%), grammar (6%), and audience (4%).

Question 3 (control)/Question 4 (experimental). This question explored students' self-reported revision actions.

> 3./4. Which issues did you choose to focus upon while revising? (List the top three.)

This open-ended question required coding of the answers for each response group, which developed into fourteen (14) total revision foci: grammar, citations, thesis, organization, audience, purpose, support, rhetorical issues, cohesion, synthesis (of sources), introduction, conclusion, point of view, and length requirement. It is important to note, however, that the response groups may not have collectively chosen all fourteen when revising.

Control group/written feedback. For this response group, the revision foci have been ranked from most focused upon to least focused upon: organization (25%), support (23%), rhetorical issues (12%), grammar (12%), citations (8%), audience (6%), thesis (5%), cohesion (5%), purpose (1%), introduction (1%), and length requirement (1%).

Experimental group/written feedback. Participants reported revision targets in the following order: support (19%), organization (17%), rhetorical issues (11%), thesis (11%), grammar (10%), citations (10%), cohesion (8%), audience (6%), purpose (6%), and conclusion (2%).

Control group/oral feedback. From highest ranking revision emphases to lowest, this response group reported the following: support (23%), organization (15%), citations (15%), grammar (10%), purpose (9%), rhetoric (6%), synthesis (6%), thesis (5%), audience (5%), length requirement (3%), cohesion (1%), and point of view (1%).

Experimental group/oral feedback. Revision goals were ranked as follows: organization (26%), support (22%), citations (15%), grammar (11%), thesis (9%), rhetorical issues (5%), purpose (3%), cohesion (2%), introduction (2%), conclusion (2%), audience (1%), and length requirement (1%).

Question 7 (control)/Question 8 (experimental). This question directly targeted participants' decisions to personally engage with their instructors regarding the feedback given on the project draft.

> 7./8. Did you discuss the feedback you received with your instructor before revising?
>
> a. Yes
> b. No

Responses are reported as descriptive statistics for each of the response categories.

Control group/written feedback. 13% discussed feedback with their instructor, and 87% did not.

Experimental group/written feedback. 22% discussed feedback with their instructor, and 78% did not.

Control group/oral feedback. 74% discussed feedback with their instructor, and 26% did not.

Experimental group/oral feedback. 79% discussed feedback with their instructor, and 21% did not.

Question 8 (control)/Question 9 (experimental). This question sought an explanation from participants regarding their decision to discuss or not discuss feedback with their instructor. Participants could report on taken or planned actions since at the time of data collection, some participants had not yet been able to execute planned actions.

8./9. Briefly explain the reasons for the above answer.

This open-ended question required coding of the answers across all response groups, which developed into eight (8) reasons for communicating with/not communicating with the instructor: have talked to/plan to talk to instructor, want to improve paper/grade, confident about revision, sought/plan to seek outside help (i.e., writing center, peer), unnecessary/feedback clear, have not/will not revise, time issues, and should have asked questions. Since the responses to this question were related to the previous question

(Question 7/Question 8), the percentages below are specific to the number of yes/no responses indicated above. However, it is important to note that participants' open-ended responses sometimes included more than one reason (i.e., plan to talk to teacher and want to improve paper). In addition, some participants who had answered no to the previous question indicated a plan to discuss feedback with their instructor at a later date.

Control group/written feedback. Of the participants who had answered yes to Question 7/8, 50% reiterated that they had talked to their instructor or indicated that they planned to talk to their instructor, and 50% responded that they desired to improve their paper and/or grade. Those who did not discuss feedback with the instructor listed the following reasons: unnecessary/feedback was clear (38%), time issues (21%), and confident about revision (14%). Fourteen percent (14%) indicated that they would not revise, 10% reported that, despite their answer to the previous question, they were planning to discuss the feedback with their instructor, 3% wished they had asked questions, and none of the participants in this response group (0%) planned to seek outside help.

Experimental group/written feedback. The participants who answered yes to Question 7/8 provided these responses to Question 8/9: Fifty-six percent (56%) desired to improve their paper and/or grade, and 44% expressed that they had talked to or planned to talk to their instructor. Those who did not discuss feedback with the instructor listed the following reasons: unnecessary/feedback clear (43%), time issues (29%). confident about revision (11%), planning to talk to instructor (11%), and seeking/sought outside

help (7%). None of the participants in this response group (0%) wished they had asked questions, and none of them (0%) reported that they would not revise.

Control group/oral feedback. Sixty-one percent (61%) of those participants who had responded yes to Question 7/8 emphasized that they had already discussed feedback with their instructor or were planning to do so, and 39% specified a wish to improve their paper and/or grade. Of those that did not discuss feedback with the instructor, 29% were confident about their own revision process, 29% cited time issues, 14% felt that a discussion was unnecessary or that the feedback provided was clear, 14% had not or did not plan to revise, and 14% planned to talk to the instructor despite answering no on the previous question. None of the participants in this response group planned to seek outside help (0%), and none of the participants in this response group (0%) wished they had asked questions.

Experimental group/oral feedback. Of the participants who had discussed feedback with their instructor according to Question 7/8, 54% expressed that they had already talked to or were planning to talk to their instructor, and 46% reported that they wanted to improve their paper and/or grade. Those who did not discuss feedback with the instructor listed the following reasons: unnecessary/feedback clear (40%), seeking/sought outside help (20%), confident about revision (10%), planning to talk to the instructor (10%), and time issues (10%). Ten percent (10%) wished they had asked questions, and none of the participants in this response group (0%) indicated that they would not revise.

Reliability and Validity

Quantitative Data

RQ1 and RQ2 utilized the PSWSES and portions of the MSLQ to assess participants' self-efficacy and motivation. Both instruments have been tested (Pintrich et al., 1991; Schmidt & Alexander, 2012) and used over time, making them reliable instruments. The PSWSES and the first eight questions of the MSLQ (see Appendix B) are also valid because they "measure what [they claim] to measure" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 78). The PSWSES measures writing self-efficacy in college-level students, and the portions of the MSLQ used for this study measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In addition, validity of the PSWSES was assessed by "correlating client and tutor [self-efficacy] ratings [,which yielded] a significant positive correlation" (Schmidt & Alexander, 2012). Similarly, for the MSLQ, "scale correlations with final grades [were] significant […] demonstrating predictive validity" (Pintrich et al., 1991, p. 4). Prior to analyzing inferential statistics for RQ1 and RQ2, assumptions were met. For the paired sample t-tests, the assumption of normality was tested and confirmed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. For the independent sample t-test, the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were tested and confirmed using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene statistic, respectively, and "the two groups [were] independent of one another" (Ho, 2014, p. 51). Assumptions for the two-way repeated measures ANOVA were also tested and met, and these included normality and homogeneity of variance. Reliability, validity and meeting assumptions increase the likelihood that the results of the inferential statistics are generalizable (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Zaiontz, n.d.). It is important

to note, however, that the results of statistical analyses conducted for RQ1 and RQ2 cannot be fully generalized due to low observed power.

Qualitative Data

Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) suggested a few ways to ascertain reliability and validity in qualitative research. Under the broader term "justifiability," Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) asserted that a researcher's bias must be minimized. In this study, bias was reduced by using participants from colleagues' classes so that responses to the tests, questionnaires and revision plans could not be influenced directly by the study's goals. Additionally, bias was diminished through an openness to the participants' responses, even when they contradicted the study's hypotheses, and an avoidance of what Flick (2013) called "cherry-picking" (p. 505), or selecting only the details that supported the research agenda. Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) also explained that qualitative data analyses must be "transparent" (p. 81); in other words, the processes of data collection and data analysis should be clear to any audience and should include the specific steps taken. Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 detail the collection of qualitative data and the subsequent analyses so that "other researchers can know the steps by which [this study's interpretations]" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 81) were derived. "Transferability" is the final concept that Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) discussed in terms of the reliability and validity of qualitative research. Rather than attempting to generalize the results of qualitative analyses, as one would with quantitative analyses, Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) explained the importance of developing "theoretical constructs that can be extended beyond a particular sample" (p. 85). Since the second pilot study generated

many of the same results, especially in regards to the revision plans, it can be assumed that the observations made in both studies will continue to apply to other samples. It is important to note, however, that "the constructs usually do not apply automatically" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 84). Each new sample, though, plays a role in better understanding the constructs and how they frame a researcher's interpretations.

Summary

The series of t-tests conducted revealed statistically significant growth in self-efficacy in both groups (control and experimental) over the course of the semester, but neither group's self-efficacy grew more significantly than the other. Tests of correlation indicated that a relationship does not exist between high intrinsic motivation and high self-efficacy when measured at the beginning or at the end of the semester.

The two-way repeated measures ANOVA, with its limited data set, revealed a balanced set of PSWSES mean raw scores, and this indicates that there was not a significant effect for group/intervention (control/no revision plan or experimental/with revision plan) or for feedback type (written or oral). In addition, there was not an interaction effect (group*feedback), and therefore, not one condition or combination of conditions had a greater impact on the growth of self-efficacy.

The revision plans showed a slight increase in the focus on lower order issues from the beginning of the semester (17%) to the end of the semester (22%), but participants' consistent focus on global issues over time is a positive finding. The ways that participants planned to execute the changes in their work stayed consistently more focused on large-scale adjustments, such as adding, rewriting, organizing and

researching, as opposed to formatting and proofreading. In regards to understanding the rhetorical benefits of revision, participants responded strongly in the beginning and at the end of the semester, especially when considering how changes to their written work would impact their readers. While an emphasis upon the rhetorical appeals only grew slightly, participants chose significant stylistic considerations as benefits to revision, such as organization, fluency, and level of diction, and only a small percentage (1-2%) reported a non-rhetorical benefit (avoiding plagiarism).

Analyses of the post-project questionnaires indicated that students' perceptions of feedback issues, regardless of whether the feedback was written or oral, focused more on global (≥ 71%) than local (≤29%) issues. Similarly, students' actual revision foci, as reported after revisions had been planned or made, focused more on global (≥ 71%) than local (≤29%) issues, regardless of whether the feedback was written or oral, or whether a revision plan had been included or not. More participants engaged in conversations about feedback if feedback was oral (74 – 79%). Finally, if oral conferences were not scheduled, students listed reasons for not discussing feedback with instructors (i.e., time issues, clarity of feedback, decision not to revise).

The three research questions listed at the beginning of this chapter target students' self-efficacy, motivation, engagement and self-reported actions in first-year writing, and results of data analyses support a more comprehensive understanding of first-year writing students' attitudes about writing. Further discussion, conclusions, and implications will be addressed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

"[…] teachers' feedback should suggest that student writing matters enough to warrant a collaborative revision endeavor." (Berzsenyi, 2001)

In many ways, this study began as a quest for personal growth in the teaching of writing, and its goals involved the betterment of two important tasks in first-year composition: instructor feedback and student revision. Yet, when reviewing topic trends from accepted presentations for the Conference on College Composition and Communication over the past five years, issues with these two tasks continue to be discussed ("Past CCCC Conference Programs," n.d.), and increasingly, as our student populations and the tools to reach them continue to shift. In fact, inherent in effective teaching practices lies a desire to sharpen one's own skills by "[using] assessment to inform instructional decision making" (Young, 2009, p. 439). Thus, while this study investigated the growth of students' self-efficacy over the course of one college semester, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy, the impact of specific variables (intervention and feedback type) upon self-efficacy growth, and the use of a dialogic approach to feedback to increase students' engagement with the feedback and their subsequent revision processes, its findings are not limited to one teacher's pursuit of better strategies.

Despite the small sample size and resulting low statistical power, this study suggests five pedagogical considerations, particularly for first-year writing instructors. First, self-efficacy can be raised, which is significant because growth in self-efficacy is crucial to success in first-year writing and beyond. Second, students are more motivated by extrinsic than intrinsic rewards. Third, students can actively plan their revisions and understand the rhetorical value of them, and they are more likely to revise when they have developed plans to do so. Fourth, students do consult instructor feedback while revising. Finally, students engage more with instructor feedback when the feedback is delivered orally.

Increases in Self-Efficacy

Recognizing that, in this study, the change in PSWSES scores could not attributed to any practice effects (Cook & Campbell, 1979), or other intervention intentionally or incidentally related to their increase, the evidence presented in Chapter 4 demonstrates that self-efficacy can, and in this case did, increase significantly in one semester.

The initial hypothesis proposed that the experimental group, due to the intervention of the revision plans, would increase in self-efficacy more than the control group. Although the results of the analyses assert that the null hypothesis must be accepted, the increase in self-efficacy in both groups is still an encouraging finding. Higher self-efficacy in individuals has been linked positively to successful writing behaviors (Bottomley, Henk, & Melnick, 1998; Pajares, 2003; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989; Schmidt & Alexander, 2012; Schunk & Swartz, 1993), and these behaviors include, but are not limited to, performance (Pajares & Johnson,

1994), engagement (Pajares, 2003), and revision practices (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1999). The increase in self-efficacy also reflects well on the student-teacher relationship; it indicates that interactions between student and teacher were encouraging and enactive and that the writing environment was relatively stress-free. In addition, the self-efficacy growth points to effective modeling by the teachers, leading students to a better understanding of writing tasks and how to execute them (Bandura, 1977). As McCarthy, Meier, and Rinderer (1985) asserted, students "with strong efficacy [are] better writers" (p. 469).

Most important, though, is the impact of higher self-efficacy upon the students' confidence and the behavioral byproducts of confidence, including involvement, perseverance and effort (Pajares, 2003). In addition, self-efficacy has been linked to one's positive adjustment to difficult situations (Chemers et al., 2001; Zimmerman, 2000). Such confident actions lead to the development of self-reliance, and therefore, the increase in self-efficacy in both groups points to budding growth in sustainable self-beliefs that are necessary for first-year students.

Motivation

Given that "self-efficacy beliefs function within a broader framework of self theories that determine motivation" (Komarraju & Nadler, 2013, p. 68), this study proposed that there would be a relationship between high self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. Based upon the work of Bandura and Schunk (1981), intrinsic motivation is necessary to many human behaviors since "external inducements for [them] may be few and far between" (p. 586). It is true that in a college classroom, there are few "external

inducements" beyond grades. Bandura and Schunk (1981) further asserted that providing explicit and proximal goals could stimulate self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. In this study, participants were involved in appropriately positioned tasks that were directly related to their writing (i.e., drafting, peer reviewing, conferencing). However, the tests of correlation revealed that there is not a relationship between high self-efficacy and high intrinsic motivation when measured at the beginning and at the end of the semester. Furthermore, when looking at the scale scores measuring the degree of intrinsic motivation, 51% of the participants reported a balanced degree of motivation (ratio range from 20-30), and of the remaining 49%, only 4% of the participants reported high intrinsic motivation. This was reinforced by their self-reported data on the post-project questionnaires; regardless of the type of feedback received or whether or not the students had completed a revision plan, when asked directly whether they were motivated intrinsically or extrinsically to improve their projects, only between 8-20% selected intrinsic goals (i.e., I want to become a better writer). About one-third of the participants selected both intrinsic and extrinsic goals for improving their projects (28-33%), but the majority of participants (47-64%) selected extrinsic goals for improvement (i.e., I want a good grade).

It would seem as though all of the conditions were present to develop intrinsic motivation, and perhaps they were. The lack of a relationship between high self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation may be due to other factors. For instance, Hidi and Boscolo (2007) indicated that the nature of academic writing, its use "as a rhetorical exercise and evaluation tool" (p. 4) and its traditional separation from other disciplines can challenge

students' motivation to write. Other motivational obstacles include interest, self-efficacy and self-regulation (Hidi & Boscolo, 2007). In addition, the generational influence on motivation cannot be overlooked. Millennials, that is individuals between the ages of 18 and 35, have generally have been raised with external rewards: promotion ceremonies in kindergarten, certificates of participation, and trophies for involvement in sports. Twenge, Hoffman, Campbell and Lance (2010) found in their cross-generational study that millennials appreciate "extrinsic rewards" more than previous generations (p. 1134). In fact, many researchers and writers have used the term "trophy kids" when referring to the current generation because of their reliance upon tangible recognition for their efforts, regardless of the level.

Thus, while intrinsic motivation would appear to be related to higher self-efficacy, current first-year students are concerned about extrinsic factors, particularly grades. Since self-efficacy did rise significantly for the study participants, it can be eliminated as an impediment to the development of increased intrinsic motivation. However, first-year composition is most often taught in isolation, or separate from other disciplines (Hidi & Boscolo, 2007), and this may test students' interest in topics to write about or writing itself. In addition, the connection between motivation and self-regulation, while not explored in this study, may have presented issues for students in the growth of their intrinsic motivation. Additionally, while it would be easy to blame their motivational orientation upon the millennials' conditioned response, this generation of students understands the necessity of high grades. Without them, they most certainly will not advance to nursing school or maintain their standing in the School of Education,

among a plethora of other major-specific requirements. This notion is supported by Montag, Campo, Weissman, Walmsley and Snell's (2012) study of 49 college students. Twenty-six of the 49 participants expressed feeling "pressured," and they identified one aspect of being pressured as the "external motivation to perform (e.g., felt pressured to graduate in 4 years or pursue a certain major)" (Montag et al., 2012, p. 31). These same students expressed "fear [of] the consequences of poor grades on their future, especially if they [were] intending to apply to graduate school" (Montag et al., 2012, p. 31). Understanding first-year writing students' motivational orientation and the reasons behind it can better inform first-year writing instructors and guide them in giving feedback that will ease the mounting pressures and lead students to better writing.

Plans for Revision

Previous studies have indicated that students' revision practices have focused more on lower order issues (i.e., grammar, mechanics) than global concerns (i.e., organization, audience) (Hayes, Flower, Shriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987; Wallace, Hayes, Hatch, Miller, Moser, & Silk, 1996). Some students resist revising (Muldoon, 2009), others are defensive about their writing (Straub, 1997), and some will only revise what has been suggested by the teacher-expert (Berzsenyi, 2001). The general consensus among researchers and first-year writing instructors has been a lack of "substantive revision" (Beach & Friedrich, 2006, p. 222) on the part of their first-year writing students.

Analysis of the revision plans, however, paints a different picture of composition students' revision practices. Because of their long-term familiarity with the writing

process, as mentioned in Chapter 2, college students are "primed" for concentration on the revision stage, and participants in the experimental group were called upon to thoughtfully plan their revision steps. As Bandura (1977) indicated, the development of self-efficacy requires students to be active participants. With the revision plans, students anticipated and later negotiated instructor feedback, which led to calculated revision strategies aimed at the improvement of their texts. The revision plans served another purpose as well; they were intended to connect students to their writing but also to their instructors because they gave students a "conceptual vocabulary to 'talk' about [their] writing" (Berzsenyi, 2001, p. 72). The qualitative responses showed students' earnest interest in refining their writing skills and revealed an understanding of how revision can impact the rhetorical situation, thereby increasing the persuasive potential of their arguments.

The revision plans reinforced the reflective and reactive nature of revising (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hayes, 2000; Sommers, 1980) because they encouraged reflection, reaction, and subsequent reflection. In identifying concerns with their drafts, students needed to reflect upon the draft itself and contemplate potential problems. Despite directions informing participants to avoid listing issues with citations or grammar, some did. However, their recognition of errors in their papers was not generally directed toward surface issues. In the beginning of the semester, the need for additional support ranked the highest in their perceived problems with their essays, which is significant because first-year writing students often struggle with the development of their ideas. To self-evaluate the need for reasons, examples, and further evidence to

support their arguments indicates that the students see length as "an expression of complexity and thoroughness" (Smith, 2006). In ranked order, the next most important concerns were thesis development and synthesis of outside source content, both of which reinforce an emphasis upon effective argumentation as opposed to controlled syntax. Toward the end of the semester, students still selected support for their arguments as their most pressing concern. However, synthesis of outside source content and organization shifted to the next most significant areas of interest. First-year writing students struggle with research and synthesis, especially in WRT 150. As the semester progresses, students move from assignments that cite one or two sources to those that require introductory scholarly research. Their responses later in the semester show that they are learning the importance of building their own ethos by finding, understanding, and using credible sources to support their claims.

Once the students had selected their biggest concerns with their drafts, they needed to create a plan; in other words, they were asked to react. The students' plans for revision showed a wide range of actions, further reinforcing their concerns about larger issues in their papers. In the beginning of the semester, students indicated that adding content to their essays as well as rewriting portions of the existing draft would alleviate some of the problems in their texts. In ranked order, their remaining self-reported actions included global revisions, and these targeted the establishment of their claims, organization, and appealing to their audience. Only 8% of the planned actions included lower order concerns such as formatting or proofreading/editing. Nearer to the end of the semester, students again communicated the need to add content to their papers, but they

placed increased emphasis upon including and evaluating sources. As previously mentioned, the development of the assignment criteria in WRT 150 most likely influenced their plans to further analyze and synthesize outside sources, and this continues to express a mature level of thought about the actions they planned to take to improve their texts. Furthermore, it shows that first-year writing students are "learning how to recognize and assess [information that…] is necessary to writing an effective argument and to participating in the common language of the academy" (Alfino, Pajer, Pierce, & Jenks, 2008, p. 87).

The revision plans also illustrated students' ability to contemplate the advantages of making rhetorical decisions in their own writing; for most first-year writing students, especially those in a Composition I course (WRT 150), the Aristotelian terms and other rhetorical devices are initially difficult to understand, to analyze in other writers' writing, and to employ in their texts. The students' plans for revision showed a wide range of actions, further reinforcing their concerns about larger issues in their papers, and they clearly articulated the rhetorical benefit of taking such actions. At the start of the semester, these students recognized appealing to the intended audience, achieving the argument's purpose, and fluency as the greatest benefits to carefully addressing the issues in their essays. However, while audience and purpose persisted as prominent benefits to revision at the end of the semester, student responses expressed an increased understanding of the advantage of developing their ethos, and this once again aligns with a growing reliance upon research as the semester progressed. It reinforces Alfino, Pajer, Pierce, and Jenks (2008) assertion that "being able to identify and reconstruct the

arguments of others is essential to creating one's own argument" (p. 87), as well as establishing one's credibility as a writer.

The analysis of the revision plans challenges previous studies about students' engagement with revision. Students in this study mainly considered global changes to their essays, and they planned constructive ways to achieve their goals. Notably, they saw benefits to revision that reflected maturing attitudes about their writing and their ability to effectively argue. Earlier in Chapter 2, an example was given about a student who, when writing, "felt as if she were being asked 'to build a house without any tools'" (Sommers & Saltz, 2004, p. 131). Very few toolboxes have only one tool, and the analysis of the revision plans points to the need for a tool that is supplemental to instructor feedback. Furthermore, the revision plans encouraged students' self-regulation, which is an important trait that stretches beyond first-year writing by advancing "levels of academic engagement" (Barefoot, 2000, p. 14) necessary for college success.

Consulting Instructor Feedback

While the revision plans detailed their planned actions, the post-project questionnaires described students' self-reported revision actions. In the first question analyzed, participants were asked to circle all of the issues their instructors had targeted in their feedback; the list included both local and global issues. Student responses, organized according to feedback type (written or oral) and group (control or experimental), indicated that their instructors mainly provided feedback on global issues. In fact, the participants expressed that only 19-28% of their instructors' comments were devoted to grammar and citations. For several decades, studies on writing assessment

have grappled with whether instructors persist to focus on lower order issues (Sommers, 1982; Stern & Solomon, 2006; Wall & Hull, 1989) despite a disciplinary impetus to produce comments centered on global concerns (Anson, 2000; Connors & Lunsford, 1993; LaFontana, 1996). This study indicates that instructors are providing feedback that encourages students to think critically about the larger issues in their papers when revising, leaving syntax, mechanics and formatting to be considered in the editing/proofreading stage.

Similarly, when students were asked which issues they focused on when revising, their open-ended responses indicated that only 20-26% of their revision efforts were devoted to grammar and citations. Furthermore, side-by-side analysis of the students' interpretation of their instructor feedback with students' revision foci showed comparable levels of concentration. For example, if students reported that 23% of their instructors' comments were concerned with organization, they similarly ranked revising for organization at 23%. While the rankings were not always perfectly matched, the students' self-selected revision targets were not only parallel with perceived instructors' revision targets, but they often emphasized their instructors' suggestions more. The qualitative responses demonstrate students' desire, rather than indifference, to connect with their instructors' comments (Straub, 1997) as well their earnest interest in improving their writing despite instructors' beliefs that "their comments don't count" (Connors & Lunsford, 1993).

Engaging in Discussions about Writing

When conducting the second pilot study during the Fall 2015 semester, questionnaire responses indicated that 73.3% of the participants referred to instructor feedback consistently, between 1-4 times, while revising. The amount of time first-year writing instructors put into providing feedback (Haswell, 2015) merits students' attention; thus, instructors deeply desire that students consult their feedback while revising. However, most instructors will admit that mere consultation is not enough; therefore, embedded in the structure of the current study is a dialogic approach to feedback that encourages discussions intended to develop socially constructed knowledge about writing and revision. Vygotsky (1934/1986) maintained that social interactions promote individual growth, and consequently, through teacher-to-student communication (DeVito, 1986) and collaboration, writing and revision can be nurtured. Thus, as Chapter 2 indicated, instructor comments should invite conversation about students' writing aimed at the improvement of their texts.

In the post-project questionnaires, participants in both the control and experimental group were asked: Did you discuss the feedback you received with your instructor prior to revising? They were asked this question after receiving written feedback and again after receiving oral feedback. Results showed that feedback delivered orally increased student-instructor discussions about feedback by approximately 60%. After receiving written feedback, only 13-22% of the participants discussed the feedback with their instructors. Moreover, when participants were asked why they did or did not discuss the feedback with their instructor, their open-ended responses after receiving

written feedback were more apt to include time issues, clarity of feedback (no need to discuss the feedback), or the inclination not to revise. After receiving written feedback, approximately 21% planned to or already had discussed the feedback with their instructor, and this concurs with the previous question's findings. After receiving oral feedback, 74-79% of the participants said that they had discussed the feedback with their instructors. While it would seem as though oral feedback would naturally be considered a discussion, responses showed that even with oral feedback, some students (21-26%) did not feel as though they were engaged in a conversation. In addition, when participants were asked why they did or did not discuss the feedback with their instructor after receiving oral feedback, comments concerning time issues, clarity of feedback (no need to discuss the feedback), or the inclination not to revise dramatically decreased; in fact, none of the experimental group participants (0%) indicated that they would not revise their essays. Finally, after receiving oral feedback, 3% of the participants that had answered no to the previous question (whether or not they had discussed feedback with their instructor) reported a plan to communicate with the instructor about the feedback provided.

The findings from this portion of the current study are directly related to an ongoing disciplinary discussion about oral conferencing. It is not a new conversation; in the mid-eighties, Muriel Harris (1986) encouraged even "the briefest of conversations" with students about their writing. Its importance has reemerged and recent research has found that oral conferences are in many ways superior to written feedback (Beach & Friedrich, 2006; Fox Tree & Clark, 2013; Hall, Gabrion, & Coon, 2014; Wallis, 2010).

First, oral feedback allows comments to be delivered in "real time" (Wolsey, 2008, p. 312). Second, if feedback should be negotiated (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Giberson, 2002), students are more apt to do so face-to-face. And third, conferences support the value of interactive feedback (Wolsey, 2008). Therefore, if provided the time to talk about their texts, students will engage more in the feedback provided and will subsequently plan to revise. This "active stance" (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011, p. 4) is a goal of first-year writing and should be the instructor's objective when providing opportunities for revision (Sommers, 1982).

Limitations

Study Participant Sample

For this study, participants were recruited from four WRT 150 (Composition I) courses in the Fall 2016 semester because students entering WRT 150 in the fall semester have an average range of ACT English composite scores (between 16-27 points) and have not likely had previous first-year writing course experience. This purposive sample set resulted in 72 participants. It is important to note, however, that because the present study did not employ a completely randomized sample, the findings cannot be fully generalized (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2014).

Conflicting Conditions

RQ2 looked specifically at four combinations of conditions in order to determine which would result in the greatest growth in participants' self-efficacy: written feedback, written feedback with a revision plan, oral feedback, and oral feedback with a revision

plan. PSWSES scores from the middle of the semester were evaluated. However, the failure to fully isolate feedback type (written or oral) per set of participants, since all four participant classes received both written and oral feedback from their instructors, may have limited the ability to determine the most favorable combination of conditions. Furthermore, though it was not possible from this study to attribute the overall increase in PSWSES scores in both groups to any particular causal factor, one conceivable explanation could simply be practice. As Bruner (1977) contended, "self-confidence […] comes from knowledge of a subject" (p. 65). Thus, with the continued practice of writing during the semester, it would be reasonable to expect gains in self-efficacy.

Missing Data

As described in Chapter 4, procedural issues related to data collection for RQ2 resulted in a limited data set. The study's design included two faculty participants and two of their WRT 150 sections, totaling four WRT 150 sections. For each faculty participant, one section was designated part of the control group, and the other section was designated part of the experimental group. Due to teacher absences and syllabus changes at the end of the semester, collecting the oral feedback/PSWSES measure coincided with collecting the PSWSES posttest in one WRT 150 section, which constituted in the loss of data from a significant portion of the experimental group. Because it was impossible to collect two PSWSES scores on the same day of class, only the posttest self-efficacy scores were collected from that subset of the experimental group. Following a discussion with the dissertation committee, only one faculty participant's two WRT 150 classes were used in the data analysis, thereby reducing the

data set by 60%. Thus, the substantially reduced data set for RQ2 prevented an accurate analysis of the factors that contribute most to self-efficacy growth.

Students' Engagement with Revision

While the post-project questionnaires asked both close-ended and open-ended questions about students' engagement with instructor feedback, the revision plans were the only measure of students' engagement with revision. The analysis of the revision plans provided comprehensive qualitative data; however, since the revision plans were only completed by the experimental group, there was no way to assess and subsequently compare the revision practices of the control group.

Implications for Practices and Further Research

According to Pajares (2003), self-efficacy plays a particularly important role in writing "because it engenders greater interest in and attention to writing, stronger effort, and greater perseverance and resiliency in the face of adversity" (p. 140). Because self-efficacy can increase in one academic semester, first-year writing instructors need to implement instructional practices that build self-efficacy. These practices include providing timely and clear feedback that focuses on global revision targets, allowing students' the opportunity to consider their own revision steps, and supplying students with ample occasions for discussions about writing. In addition, since first-year writing students are more extrinsically motivated, instructors need to consider motivational techniques that appeal to their students' motivational orientation because "motivational orientation has consistently been identified […] as a reliable and accurate predictor of

school success and failure" (Legault, Green-Demers, & Pelletier, 2006). First-year writing instructors must also encourage students to engage in the feedback/revision process. By including the revision plans, students can anticipate problems in their drafts and plan for revision accordingly, which suggests that students are invested in making necessary changes to their writing as they move through the writing process and that they consult instructor feedback while doing so. Students' ability to anticipate, respond to, reflect upon, apply and sometimes negotiate instructor feedback can form a dialogue, both synchronous and asynchronous, that improves students' self-identification as writers, which correlates directly to their performance and persistence (Zimmerman, 2000; Pajares, 2003).

In this study, feedback mode and the use of revision plans were variables when looking at the increase in writing self-efficacy during one academic term. Future studies could investigate other variables supporting students' growth in self-efficacy. For example, researchers could evaluate feedback according to the "four major sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states" (Bandura, 1977, p. 195) that contribute to self-efficacy. Researchers could also investigate changes in writing self-efficacy throughout students' undergraduate experience by conducting a longitudinal study. In addition, while this study looked specifically at intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, a consideration for future studies on motivation and writing could look at a lack of motivation in first-year writing students. Alternative approaches to planning for revision could also be an area of study. Students could reflect upon their drafts and plan for revision in a letter-to-self or audio

memo format, or a comparison study on the placement of the revision plans in the feedback process could be conducted (i.e., before and after receiving instructor feedback). Finally, since oral feedback yielded positive results regarding student-teacher discussions about writing, a study could be conducted to test whether oral conferences appeal equally to all students, or whether race, gender, culture, or learning abilities play a role.

Final Thoughts

As noted in Chapter 2, colleges nationwide have persistently researched high-impact teaching practices, and intrusive techniques, especially those that encourage "active and collaborative learning […and] student-faculty interaction," rank among the most successful (Laird, Chen, & Kuh, 2008, p. 91). Providing constructive and useful feedback in itself is an intrusive procedure, but only if it can be acted upon in an engaged and self-reflective manner. Feedback becomes interactive when writers can spend time devising clear revision goals, can use instructor feedback to plan their revision, and can talk to their instructors about their texts and ways to improve them. These inclusive strategies have the potential to open up a dialogue between the instructor and student and present an occasion for mastery that feedback comments alone may not. Furthermore, central to both social constructivist and self-efficacy theories is the student-teacher relationship that fosters "active and collaborative learning" (Laird, Chen, & Kuh, 2008, p. 91) and encourages the development of students' self-beliefs that aid in their continued academic success; students who have a strong sense of their writing strengths will accomplish writing tasks, seek appropriate help, and self-regulate the steps towards

improvement. Thus, if interactive feedback and student-driven revision plans pave the way for self-efficacy and self-reflective behaviors to increase, it seems logical that first-year writing instructors who strive for sustainable growth in their students' writing skills should include them.

APPENDIX A

REVISION PLAN

Participant's last four (4) digits of Grizzly ID: _____
Date: _____
Project #: _____
In the space below,

1) identify any issues that you want to focus on for your project. These issues should be based upon concerns that you have about your draft, and this plan must be constructed prior to receiving instructor feedback.
2) Prioritize these issues, listing the most important problem first and the least important problem last.
3) Indicate a specific plan for addressing each issue in the revision process. These issues should not be related to grammar or citation errors, as such issues can be addressed in the proofreading process. Remember, you might use this space to defend a particular strategy you intend to proceed with despite potential instructor feedback indicating otherwise.
4) Explain the rhetorical benefit of each revision step. For example, how will the change further develop your ethos or your essay's purpose?

Priority	Selected Issue/Concern/Problem	My Plan	Rhetorical Benefit
1st			
2nd			
3rd			
4th			
5th			

APPENDIX B

SELF-EFFICACY AND MOTIVATION TEST

Participant's last four (4) digits of Grizzly ID: _____

Pretest/Project #1 draft/Project#2 draft/Posttest (to be circled by Principal Investigator)

Type of feedback provided: oral/written/other: _____ (to be circled by participant)

Complete directions: The following two instruments are designed to measure self-efficacy and motivation as they pertain to work you are doing in WRT 150. Each set of questions has specific directions. Please answer each question honestly and accurately. If you have any questions while completing the measures, raise your hand, and the principal investigator will assist you.

Post-Secondary Writing Self-Efficacy Scale

Directions: This instrument is composed of twenty statements concerning feelings about communicating with others. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you: **Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neutral = 3; Agree = 4; Strongly Agree = 5.**

_____1. I can identify incomplete, or fragment sentences.
_____2. I can invest a great deal of effort and time in writing a paper when I know the paper will earn a grade.
_____3. I can articulate my strengths and challenges as a writer.
_____4. I can find and incorporate appropriate evidence to support important points in my papers.
_____5. I can be recognized by others as a strong writer.
_____6. When I read a rough draft, I can identify gaps when they are present in the paper.
_____7. I can maintain a sense of who my audience is as I am writing a paper.
_____8. I can write a paper without feeling physical discomfort (e.g., headaches, stomachaches, backaches, insomnia, muscle tension, nausea, and/or crying).
_____9. When I read drafts written by classmates, I can provide them with valuable feedback.
_____10. When I have a pressing deadline for a paper, I can manage my time efficiently.
_____11. I can attribute my success on writing projects to my writing abilities more than to luck or external forces.
_____12. When a student who is similar to me receives praise and/or a good grade on a paper, I know I can write a paper worthy of praise and/or a good grade.
_____13. Once I have completed a draft, I can eliminate both small and large sections that are no longer necessary.
_____14. I can write a paper without experiencing overwhelming feelings of fear or distress.
_____15. When writing papers for different courses (for example, Biology, English, and Philosophy classes), I can adjust my writing to meet the expectations of each discipline.
_____16. I can map out the structure and main sections of an essay before writing the

first draft.
_____17. I can find ways to concentrate when I am writing, even when there are many distractions around me.
_____18. I can find and correct my grammatical errors.
_____19. I can find and use resources that help me with my writing.
_____20. If I converse with my instructor about revision, whether in written or oral form, I can learn new strategies that promote my development and success as a writer.

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

Directions: This instrument is composed of twenty statements concerning your behavior in this class. Please rate the following statements on a 7-point scale where **1= not at all true of me** to **7=very true of me**.

_____1. In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.
_____2. In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.
_____3. The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.
_____4. When I have the opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.
_____5. Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.
_____6. The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade.
_____7. If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students.
_____8. I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.
_____9. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.
_____10. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.
_____11. I am very interested in the content area of this course.
_____12. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.
_____13. I like the subject matter of this course.
_____14. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.
_____ 15. I usually study in a place where I can concentrate on my course work.
_____16. I make good use of my study time for this course.
_____17. I find it hard to stick to a study schedule.
_____18. I have a regular place set aside for studying.
_____19. I make sure I keep up with the weekly readings and assignments for this course.
_____20. I attend class regularly.
_____21. I often find that I don't spend very much time on this course because of other activities.
_____22. I rarely find time to review my notes or readings before an exam.

_____23. I often feel so lazy or bored when I study for this class that I quit before I finish what I planned to do.
_____24. I work hard to do well in this class even if I don't like what we are doing.
_____25. When course work is difficult, I give up or only study the easy parts.
_____26. Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I manage to keep working until I finish.
_____27. Even if I have trouble learning the material in this class, I try to do the work on my own, without help from anyone.
_____28. I ask the instructor to clarify concepts I don't understand well.
_____29. When I can't understand the material in this course, I ask another student in this class for help.
_____30. I try to identify students in this class whom I can ask for help if necessary.

APPENDIX C

POST-PROJECT QUESTIONNAIRE

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Participant's last four (4) digits of Grizzly ID: _____ Project #: _____

1. When you completed a revision plan, did your areas of concern align with the feedback provided by your instructor?
   a. Completely
   b. Frequently
   c. Sometimes
   d. Seldom
   e. Not at all
2. What type of feedback did you receive from your instructor?
   a. Written
   b. Oral
   c. Other: _____
3. What types of issues did your instructor feedback focus on? (circle all that apply)
   a. Issues with grammar/usage
   b. Issues with citations/documentation
   c. Thesis issues
   d. Organizational issues
   e. Issues pertaining to audience
   f. Issues pertaining to purpose
   g. Issues pertaining to support
   h. Rhetorical issues
   i. Other: _____
4. Which issues did you choose to focus upon while revising? (List the top three.)
   a.
   b.
   c.
5. Did the grade you received on the project meet your expectations?
   a. Yes
   b. No
6. Did the grade you received on the project meet your level of effort?
   a. Yes
   b. No
7. What motivated you to improve this project?
   a. Intrinsic goals (i.e., I want to improve as a writer)
   b. Extrinsic goals (i.e., I want a good grade)
   c. Both (explain): _____
   d. Other: _____
8. Did you discuss the feedback you received with your instructor prior to revising?
   a. Yes
   b. No
9. Briefly explain the reasons for the above answer.

APPENDIX D

POST-PROJECT QUESTIONNAIRE

CONTROL GROUP

Participant's last four (4) digits of Grizzly ID: _____ Project #: _____

2. What type of feedback did you receive from your instructor?
    a. Written
    b. Oral
    c. Other: _____
3. What types of issues did your instructor feedback focus on? (circle all that apply)
    a. Issues with grammar/usage
    b. Issues with citations/documentation
    c. Thesis issues
    d. Organizational issues
    e. Issues pertaining to audience
    f. Issues pertaining to purpose
    g. Issues pertaining to support
    h. Rhetorical issues
    i. Other: _____
4. Which issues did you choose to focus upon while revising? (List the top three.)
    a.
    b.
    c.
5. Did the grade you received on the project meet your expectations?
    a. Yes
    b. No
6. Did the grade you received on the project meet your level of effort?
    a. Yes
    b. No
7. What motivated you to improve this project?
    a. Intrinsic goals (i.e., I want to improve as a writer)
    b. Extrinsic goals (i.e., I want a good grade)
    c. Both (explain): _____
    d. Other: _____
8. Did you discuss the feedback you received with your instructor prior to revising?
    a. Yes
    b. No
9. Briefly explain the reasons for the above answer.

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FACULTY

1. At which stage of the writing process do you typically offer feedback on your students' work?
2. Which mode, or combination of modes, do you use when providing feedback (typed, handwritten, conferences, audio, video, etc.)? Which do you feel are most effective?
3. Which issues do you focus on when offering feedback? Why?
4. How do you phrase your feedback (as questions, instructions, suggestions, with language from the rubric or assignment sheet)?
5. What do you suspect students are doing with your feedback?
6. What do you want students to do with your feedback?
7. Did the opportunity for dialogue with students (in the experimental group) about the feedback they've received from you (either face to face or in writing) change the feedback/revision process? Explain.
8. Did you observe any changes in your students' revision practices over the course of the semester? Describe.
9. Did you observe fluctuations in students' confidence levels over the course of the semester? If so, can you capture a particular situation that illustrates these changes?
10. Describe the ideal role of feedback in students' revisions and growth as writers. If the inclusion of revision plans did not facilitate this role, how do you think you can achieve this?

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

STUDENTS

1. How comfortable are you with the writing process? Describe the process you use when writing a paper. Which stage is most commonly difficult for you? Why? How do you work through that difficulty?

2. How comfortable were you discussing your writing with your professor? Which feedback strategies did you find most useful (i.e., oral, written, video, other)? Why?

3. As the semester progressed, did your revision practices change? If so, explain how. If not, do you have a particularly successful strategy that you have used over time? Describe that strategy or simply describe how you revise a paper.

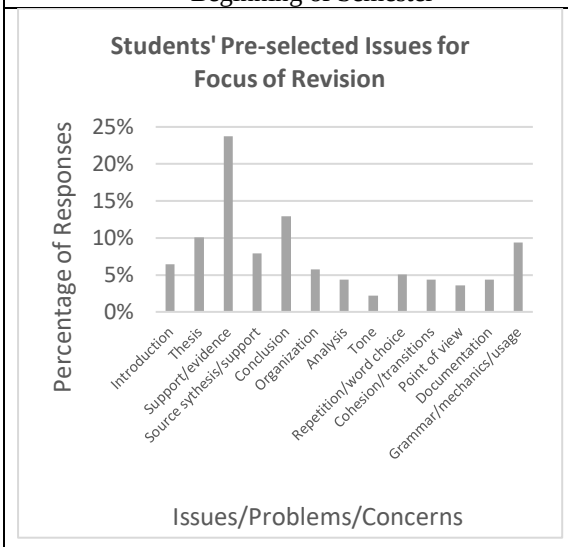
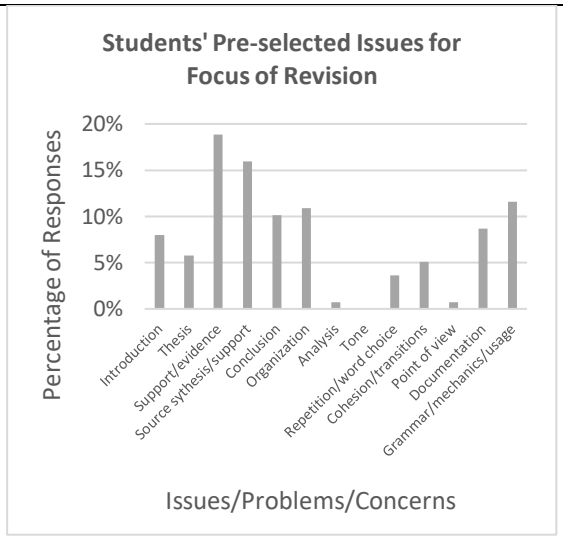
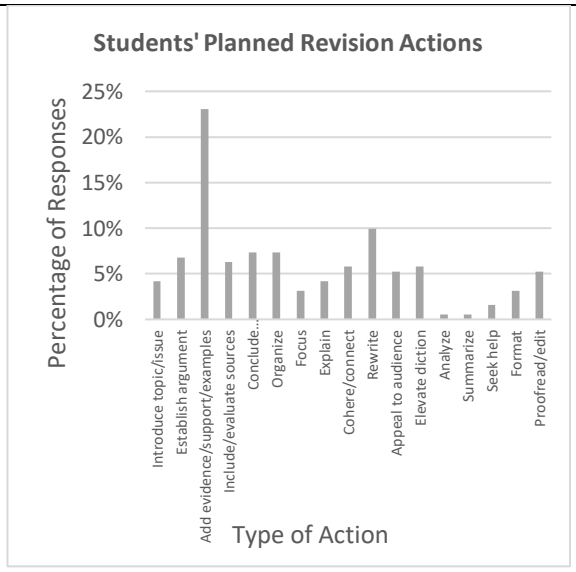
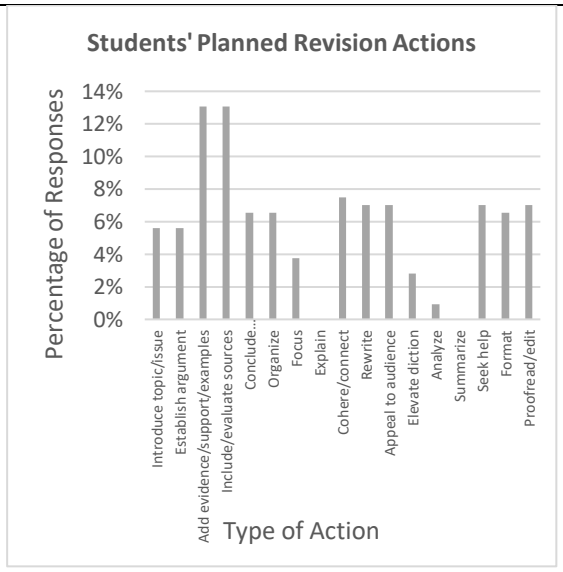
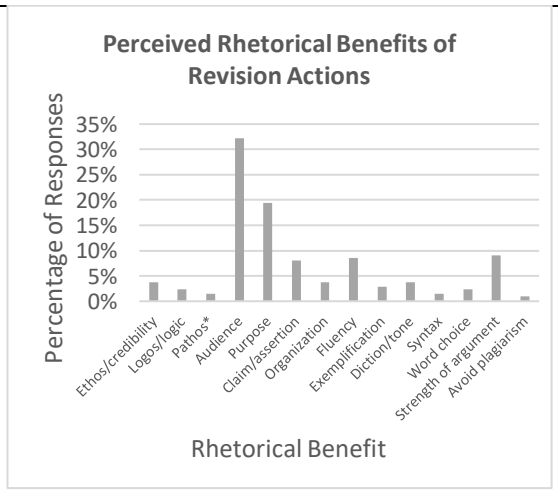
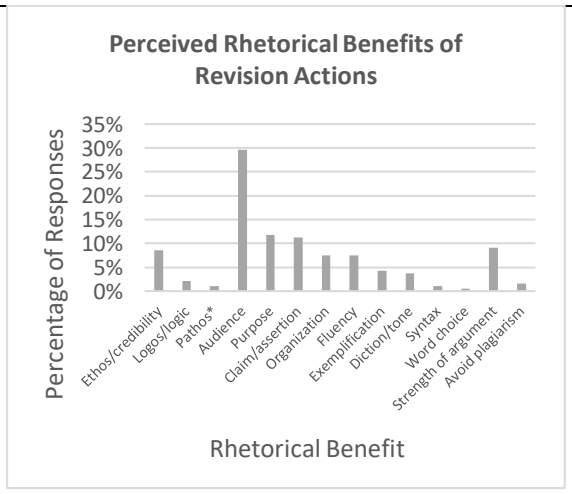
4. Did your confidence in writing fluctuate over the semester? If so, pinpoint a situation in which you experienced a high level of confidence. Similarly, describe a situation in which you experienced a low level of confidence. If your confidence level remained the same all semester, how would you categorize it (high, medium, low)?

5. What motivated you to write well this semester? How did that motivation influence the writing you produced? Did this motivation extend to the writing you did in other classes? Briefly explain.

APPENDIX G

REVISION PLANS

RESULTS

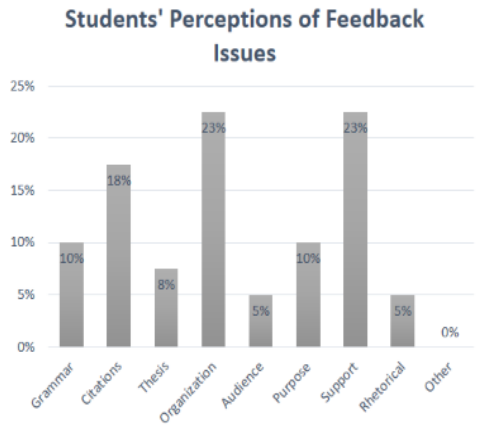
Beginning of Semester	End of Semester
	
	
	

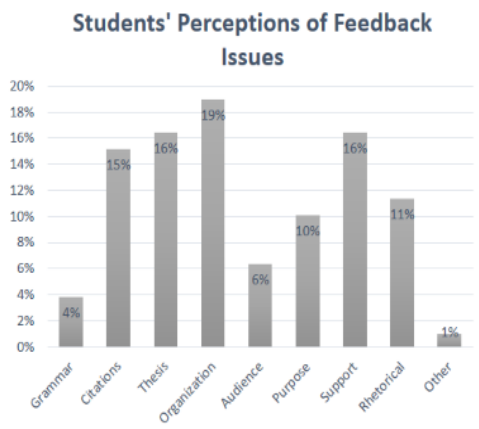
APPENDIX H

POST-PROJECT QUESTIONNAIRES

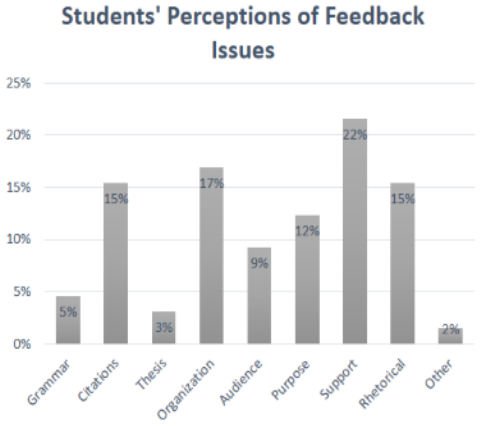
RESULTS

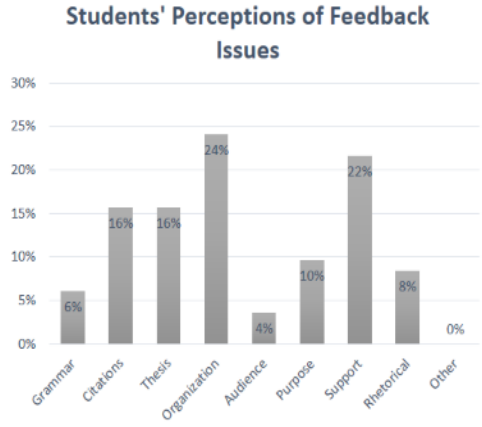
Students' Perception of Written Feedback: Control vs. Experimental



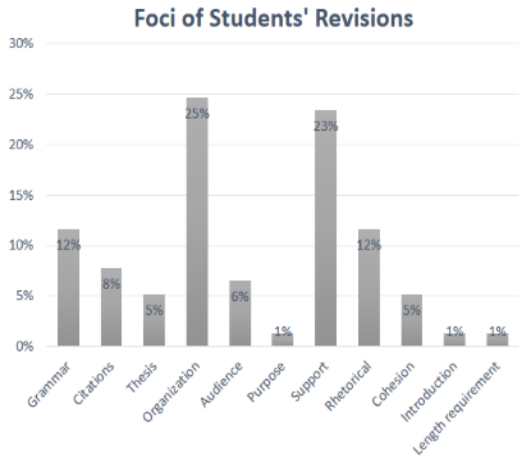


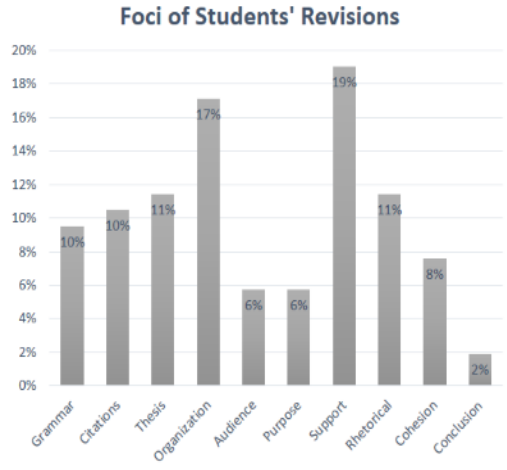
Students' Perception of Oral Feedback: Control vs. Experimental





Foci of Students' Revision after Written Feedback: Control vs. Experimental





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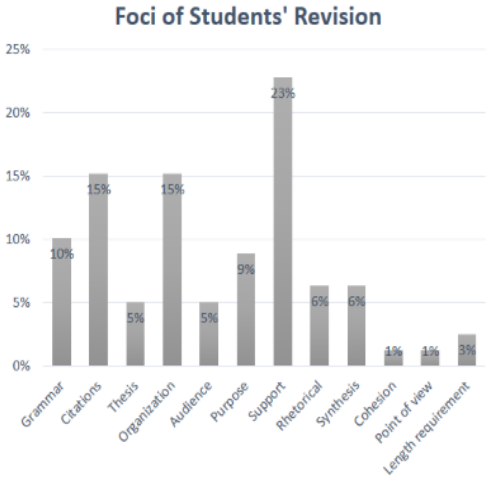
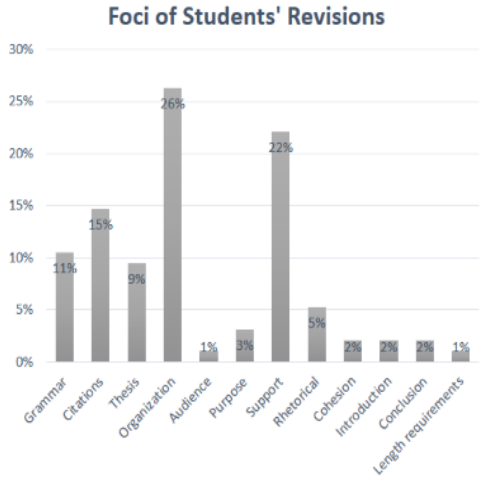
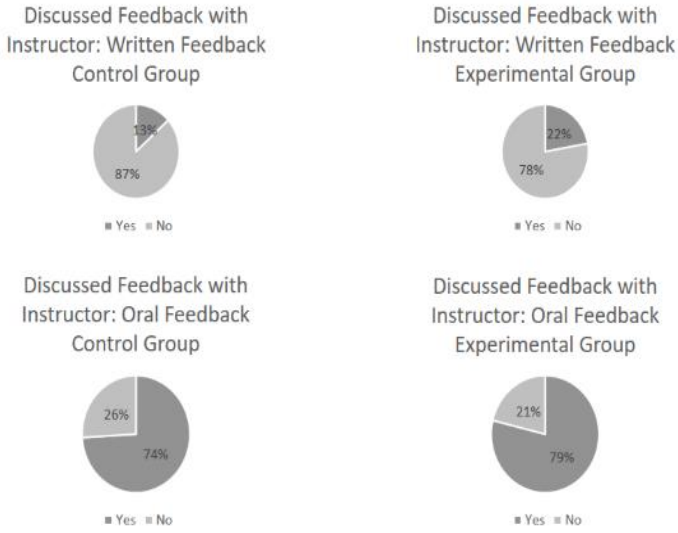
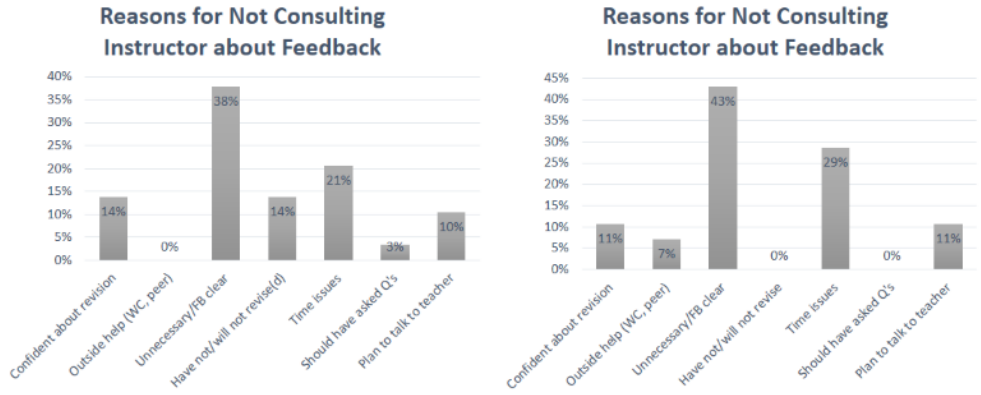




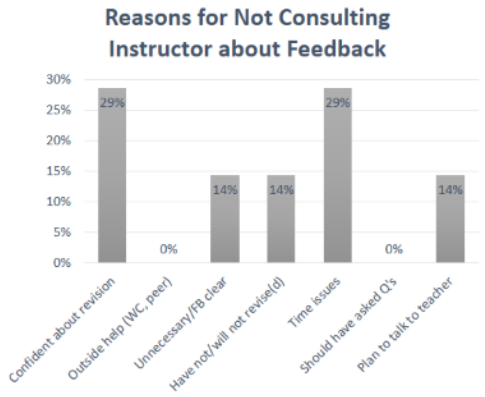
Discussed Feedback with Instructor

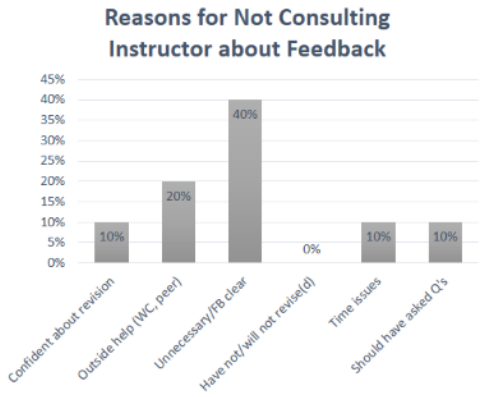


Reasons for Not Consulting Instructor about Written Feedback: Control vs. Experimental



Reasons for Not Consulting Instructor about Oral Feedback: Control vs. Experimental





APPENDIX I

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

OAKLAND UNIVERSITY

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

DATE:	July 18, 2016
TO:	Laura Gabrion, B.A., M.A.
FROM:	Oakland University IRB
PROJECT TITLE:	Combining Instructor Feedback with Revision Plans to Increase First-Year Writing Students' Self-Efficacy
REFERENCE #:	916961-1
SUBMISSION TYPE:	New Project
ACTION:	APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE:	July 17, 2016
EXPIRATION DATE:	July 16, 2017
REVIEW TYPE:	Expedited Review
REVIEW CATEGORY:	Expedited review category # 7
IRB MEETING DATE:	July 28, 2016

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Oakland University IRB has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

The submission package includes the following approved documents:

- Application (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Faculty Consent Version July 17, 2016 which has been published as a Board Document under Reviews in IRBNet. **The IRB approved version of the consent form MUST be used in recruitment and consent of participants in the research.**
- Student Consent Version July 17, 2016 which has been published as a Board Document under Reviews in IRBNet. **The IRB approved version of the consent form MUST be used in recruitment and consent of participants in the research.**
- Interview Questions Faculty (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Interview Questions Students (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Post Project Questionnaire - Control (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Post Project Questionnaire - Experimental (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Revision Plan (IRBNet # 916961-1)
- Self Efficacy and Motivation (IRBNet # 916961-1)

This submission has received Expedited Review based on the applicable federal regulation.

Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the project and assurance of participant understanding followed by a signed consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the project via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require each participant receive a copy of the signed consent document.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this office prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure. Do not collect data while the revised application is being reviewed. Data collected during this time cannot be used.

All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others (UPIRSOs) and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this committee. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NON-COMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this project must be reported promptly to this office.

This project has been determined to be a Minimal Risk project. Based on the risks, this project requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Please use the appropriate forms for this procedure. Your documentation for continuing review must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date of July 16, 2017.

Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the completion of the project.

Please retain a copy of this correspondence for your record.

If you have any questions, please contact Kate Wydeven M.S. at (248) 370-4306 or kwydeven@oakland.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Oakland University IRB's records.

APPENDIX J

PERMISSION TO USE WRITING PROCESS MODEL FIGURE

384 Merriweather Rd.
Grosse Pointe Farms, MI 48236
312-971-1281

March 3, 2017

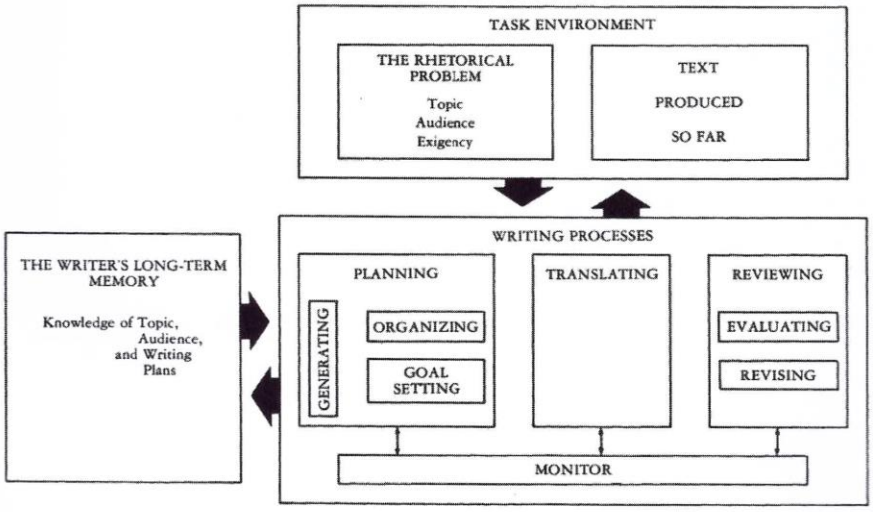
National Council of Teachers of English
1111 W. Kenyon Road
Urbana, IL 61801-1096

To whom it may concern:

This letter is a follow-up to recent email and voicemail messages regarding the reprinting of a figure in my dissertation, which I am currently completing at Oakland University in Rochester, Michigan. My dissertation is entitled "Using Engagement with Instructor Feedback to Nurture First-Year Writing Students' Self-Efficacy." I would like your permission to reprint in my dissertation an excerpt from the following:

> Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication*, *32*(4), 365–387. http://doi.org/10.2307/356600

The figure to be reproduced is the writing process model (see below):



The requested permission extends to any future revisions and editions of my dissertation, including non-exclusive world rights in all languages, and to the prospective publication of my dissertation by UMI. These rights will in no way restrict republication of the material in any other form by you or by others authorized by you. Your signing of this letter will also confirm

that the National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE] owns the copyright to the above-described material.

If these arrangements meet with your approval, please sign this letter where indicated below and return it via mail or email. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Laura Beth Gabrion

Laura Beth Gabrion

PERMISSION GRANTED FOR THE USE REQUESTED ABOVE:

Kurt Austin
Printed name

Kurt Austin
Signature

Date: 3/3/17

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