

WRITING SELF-EFFICACY AND LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY OF FIRST-YEAR
COMPOSITION STUDENTS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

A Thesis by

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The following faculty members have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content, and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in English.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the potential relationship between student writing self-efficacy and marginalized linguistic identities. A total of sixty-nine first-year composition students across two semesters responded to surveys which asked about linguistic habits and perceptions along with writing skills self-efficacy. Results were limited by sample size, and did not find statistically significant relationships in the data, though a tentative correlation is evident between high writing self-efficacy and tendency to describe one's dialect of nurture using terms associated with standard language ideology ("normal," "general," etc.). All students, both basic writers and mainstreamed writers, reported strongest average writing self-efficacy scores for demonstrating reasoning and evidence to support a claim. Qualitative data also shows the linguistic diversity of first-year composition students in terms of native language and non-standardized dialects spoken. Results and implications are discussed along with recommendations for future research and the need for instructors to nurture the writing self-beliefs of all students.

PREFACE

Long ago, in the spring of 2019, I chose to administer a survey for an open-ended linguistics project. My initial intent was to investigate how confident students are in their own writing abilities, which psychologists refer to as self-efficacy, and whether their writing self-efficacy correlated with positive and negative writing feedback from instructors. But I also asked about several other topics I was interested in, such as exposure to “current-traditional” English Language Arts (ELA) teaching methods (Anson 2014) and dialectal differences. A friend who was teaching two sections of first-year composition online at WSU helped me out by offering her students extra credit to take the survey, and twenty-five of them did so. Since my project could accurately be described as “throwing spaghetti at the wall,” their responses reflected that. But one blip in the data stood out. Among the demographic items, I had accidentally posed a trick question: “Do you ever speak in a dialect of English? (Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never.)”

Those of us with some knowledge of linguistics understand that if a person is speaking a language, regardless of what they are saying, they are necessarily speaking a dialect of it. There is no version of English which exists outside of any dialects. However, for the laypersons among us, the word “dialect” seems to imply inferiority: “dialects” are not mere sub-categories but deviations from an overarching, more correct language. What I meant in posing the dialect question, and what the students meant when they responded, was how often they spoke in non-standardized, non-prestige dialects of English. This revealed an unexpected pattern in which, as a group, students who reported “never” speaking in a dialect of English (and never having been told they spoke with an accent) had very high writing self-efficacy scores compared to their accented, dialect-speaking peers. In fact, this demographic comparison produced a wider

disparity than any other grouping including race, gender, or enrollment (ENGL 101 versus ENGL 102). There seemed to be a correlation between lower writing self-efficacy and student identities which assumed difference from a linguistic norm.

Linguists are aware that “dialect” is sometimes used as a pejorative term; some even eschew it entirely and say “language variety” instead to avoid stigma (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2013, p. 34). Linguists are also aware that speaking with an accent is a matter of relativity, and that no individual is perceived to be un-accented unless they are surrounded by linguistic peers (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 44). But especially for students outside of the field, this is not common knowledge. Linguistics seems largely neglected in K-12 education outside of required foreign language courses, and most people in the United States lack the domain-specific vocabulary to observe and describe natural dialectal variation despite its ubiquity in our daily experiences. This leads individuals to sort their linguistic perceptions and opinions into an erroneous binary of normal and abnormal rather than the robust spectrum truly present in each language.

My interest in the mismatch between linguistic facts and widespread linguistic myths is what led to this thesis. From a social justice perspective, the very basic tenets of sociolinguistics counter discriminatory narratives around the dialectal features most strongly correlated with speakers from lower socioeconomic classes. Yet it is possible for a student in America to complete their postsecondary education completely assured that one prestige dialect is correct while all the others are not. In my opinion, linguistics should be more integrated into English Language Arts education from an early age. But until such time as that change is implemented, the fact remains that some students must operate under flawed narratives to explain natural linguistic heterogeneity, and these narratives surface in their descriptions of their own speech and

in their sense of ease in the writing classroom. This project also advocates evidence-based teaching methods in the writing classroom to support basic writers, linguistically marginalized writers, and everyone in between. Ultimately, I could not gather enough data to offer definitive commentary on the linguistic self-concepts of our basic writers at WSU, but I do hope more research can be done in the future to observe and improve this vital work.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Some straightforward linguistic realities seem to be at odds with the way that standard language and correctness are treated in writing classrooms. Linguists observe that all languages evolve and change over time, that variation will develop naturally between the dialects spoken by the inhabitants of different regions and by members of different socioeconomic classes, that these variants are equal to each other in linguistic terms, that grammaticality is not necessarily the same thing as comprehensibility or communicative effectiveness, and that “correct” language does not exist in any objective epistemological terms, or at least not in the ways typically encountered in the writing classroom (Lippi-Green, 2012, pp. 7-15). Yet K-12 English Language Arts (ELA) teachers and college-level composition instructors alike are often in the position of treating written academic English as stable, normal, natural, and a superior means of communicating ideas. Especially in underfunded classrooms where teachers must do their best with limited resources to prepare their students for standardized tests and for the writing tasks required at higher levels of education, correctness is a measurement of how closely a writer adheres to a specific white, middle-class dialect. Linguists refer to these beliefs around language—the idea that the prestige variety spoken mostly by the wealthy is a superior means of communication, and that other varieties are not only different but also deficient—as standard language ideology.

Teachers, even those who know of SRTOL¹ and the “linguistic facts of life” (Lippi-Green

¹ In 1974, the National Council of Teachers of English adopted a resolution titled “Students’ Right to Their Own Language,” later known as SRTOL or “Students’ Right,” at the annual Conference on College Composition and Communication. SRTOL formally recognized each individual’s right to their dialects of nurture, and affirmed that all dialects are linguistically equal and therefore should be free of stigma in the classroom.

2012), still perpetuate standard language ideology when they teach their students how to adhere to a non-native dialect in order to gain access to arenas and discourses of power. Even teaching standard English as “appropriate” and non-standardized varieties as “inappropriate” for formal contexts, some scholars argue (see Canagarajah 2006, Young 2009), reinforces an unjust and illogical linguistic hierarchy. Students, for their part, internalize aspects of standard language ideology in ways that can have lasting impacts on their academic self-concepts. Racially and economically marginalized students are more likely to enter school speaking varieties of English that differ more from the academic standard than do the varieties spoken by their statistically whiter and wealthier peers. These marginalized students are led to believe that their dialects of nurture are abnormal and wrong, a deficiency in need of correction, when in fact the differences between their varieties and the academic standard are a matter of simple sociolinguistic fact.

Sociolinguists have been raising awareness of this conflation of dialectal difference with error for some decades now. As mainstream composition scholarship has moved away from the cognitive processes involved in writing and toward the social contexts and power structures involved in writing, composition and rhetoric scholars have also begun to address the issue with more frequency. Lively debates have arisen around new pedagogical approaches such as translanguaging, and strong lines of disagreement remain between advocates of code-switching pedagogies versus code-meshing. There is not yet any wide scholarly agreement on a universal pedagogical approach that might reconcile linguistic differences and inequalities with the demands of the world outside of academia.

Self-efficacy, as theorized by Bandura (1986), is one’s personal assessment of readiness and skill for specific situations. Writing self-efficacy, then, is a writer’s perception of their own writing skills and their sense of preparedness for executing writing tasks. As a loose synonym for

confidence, self-efficacy both affects and is affected by external measures of a writer's performance. Therefore, if a student frequently encounters stigma, or if they become accustomed to negative feedback in the classroom, these factors will become part of how they interpret their own self-efficacy. Multiple studies have evaluated student writing self-efficacy alongside dimensions such as self-regulation habits, anxiety, help-seeking behaviors, and graded writing performances (Pajares 2003) for both native and nonnative speakers (Williams & Takaku 2011). Linguists have also established that "correction" of dialect in the classroom likely leads to worse academic outcomes for speakers of non-standardized dialects than accommodation does (Wheeler 2006, Lippi-Green 2012). No studies have yet combined these two approaches to search for connections between stigmatized dialects and academic writing self-efficacy; this thesis fills this gap.

I build on my Institutional Review Board (IRB)-approved multifactor project from the spring of 2019 by identifying diverse linguistic demographics and by focusing on the self-efficacy of linguistically marginalized writers. A pilot survey administered during the spring 2020 semester asked students to describe their own dialects, asked again about teaching methods oriented around standardized test preparation versus process pedagogy, and also included a brief grammar assessment with three sentence-combining items. A follow-up survey, administered in the fall of 2020, eliminated the questions about high school ELA instruction and the grammar assessment in favor of more numerous and specific questions about students' dialectal differences and perceived accent. The fall 2020 survey also framed self-efficacy items around the learning outcomes² of WSU's ENGL 011 (basic skills) course. Both 2020 surveys endeavored to capture self-efficacy data from first-semester students enrolled in ENGL 101: College English I

² Current in WSU's English 011 syllabus as of December 2019

as well as from former Basic Skills students during the course of their enrollment in ENGL 101. The fall 2020 survey was also scheduled to be administered twice: once at the beginning of the semester, and again after midterm. Unfortunately, difficulties posed by the COVID-19 pandemic prevented a second phase of data collection to which the first could be compared. After analysis of the available data, I discuss implications and offer suggestions for future research.

1.2 Research Questions

1. How linguistically diverse are WSU's first-year composition students?
2. How efficacious do these students believe themselves to be in terms of ENGL 011: Basic Skills learning outcomes?
 - a. Are there group differences between basic and mainstream writing students' self-efficacy scores, or between those of linguistically privileged and linguistically marginalized students?
 - b. Do any students' writing self-efficacy scores change throughout the semester as their writing assignments become less personal and more rigorous?

1.3 Reasons and Needs for the Study

Though other scholars have investigated the writing self-efficacy of EFL (English as a foreign language) students, this study responds to a gap left by the lack of research into writing self-efficacy differences between monolingual and multilingual students. Furthermore, sociolinguistic research in education has largely been limited to the K-12 levels, with relatively little investigated among native-speaker students at the college level (Charity Hudley & Mallinson 2018), especially in the context of writing self-efficacy. There also have been no quantitative studies comparing marginalized systems of speech to writing self-efficacy. As the democratization of higher education increases, English classrooms throughout the country are

becoming more diverse. Meanwhile, xenophobic rhetoric and its prevalence in national politics threatens the well-being of many students both through chaotic changes to immigration rules and through amplified everyday bigotry. This political moment calls for extra attention to be paid to marginalized and underserved students, who comprise at least half of WSU's undergraduate population, and to the naturally occurring linguistic diversity of our communities.

One specific gap this study will fill is straightforward demographic information not captured by WSU Admissions: how many, and which, languages students speak other than English. Though WSU's programs attract international students from around the globe, and many of these students speak more than two languages, as of 2019 the Office of International Education did not survey all languages spoken in their census data. Matsuda (2006) described English classrooms as operating under a "myth of linguistic homogeneity," yet this myth is easily disproved. Though students are ostensibly placed into separate courses depending on their L1 (first language) and L2 (second language) status, in practice, this division is not always discrete among multilingual people. Instructors and administrators alike should be aware of students' linguistic diversity in order to better understand their communicative contexts and to better serve their needs.

Beyond valuable linguistic demographic data, studying student writing self-efficacy framed by the learning outcomes of ENGL 011 can help WSU's English department assess skills transfer from ENGL 011 to ENGL 101, and whether the needs of linguistically diverse students are being met as well as their peers'. It can also illuminate how mainstream students feel about their own level of preparation for a first-year-composition course. Self-efficacy is an underutilized method of assessment in the department, yet it can offer more domain-specific feedback from students than our Student Perception of Teaching Effectiveness evaluations do,

and can offer just as much insight into students' abilities as a writing performance assessment, if not more (Pajares 2003). If WSU's English department can identify learning outcomes for which Basic Skills and/or College English I students consistently feel less efficacious, then we can direct attention to specific areas of the curriculum and respond with evidence-based methods that can improve the self-efficacy and thus the future performance of our students.

1.4 Terms and Definitions

This thesis will include speakers with identifiable accents, multilingual backgrounds, and non-standardized dialects of nurture under the umbrella term *linguistically diverse*. In the fall 2020 survey, students are prompted to compare themselves and their own speech habits to an imagined average member of WSU's student population. The majority of WSU's undergraduate population, as of the fall 2020 semester, is white, monolingual, between the ages of 18 and 24, and a resident of Sedgwick County (OPA 2020). The terms *linguistically othered* and *linguistically marginalized* mean approximately the same thing, with more emphasis on externally applied stigma in response to natural variation in dialects³. Similarly, *underserved* Wichita State University students, according to its own Office of Planning and Analysis, "...includes under-represented minority (American Indian/Alaskan Native, Black non-Hispanic, Hawaiian and Hispanic), first generation students, and students from low income families (family income 125% or less of the poverty level based on family size)" (OPA, 2020, p. 22). As of the fall 2020 semester, over half of Wichita State's undergraduate population was categorized as underserved.

Dialectal variation, language variety, etc. all refer to varieties of English, which varies

³ Research in developmental psychology has found that native language and accent may have greater influence over the identity formation and social preferences of infants than either race or gender; adult listeners make assumptions and inferences about the intelligence and group status of a speaker within a few seconds (Wheeler 2013).

by region, race or ethnic identity, socioeconomic group, and sometimes even gender identity and sexual orientation. *L1* and *L2* refer to native and nonnative speakers of English, however, these categories do not quite capture the true scope of linguistic diversity. For example, Canagarajah (2006) cites projections of population growth which suggest that L2 speakers may soon outnumber L1 speakers of English, which is one reason to question who has ownership of a language. He also cites formerly colonized regions, such as his native Sri Lanka, as birthplaces of new varieties of English. Individuals like Canagarajah are native speakers of non-standardized dialects, and face stigma because of their perceived difference from a standard. Educators should be aware of the linguistic stigma their students may face inside and outside of the classroom.

Discourse communities are groups of people with shared values and ways of communicating. Unlike what Bizzell (1992) would call native discourse communities, which are groups of people sharing dialects socially inherited by birth or adoption, discourse communities require training and practice to join, and the standards and habits of that community act as a gatekeeping mechanism. Broadly speaking, writing teachers who endeavor to increase their students' fluency in standard English do so to help those students join academic discourse communities.

Basic writers, in this paper, refers to students placed into mandatory not-for-credit prerequisite courses based on lower-than-average standardized test scores or similar metrics. Composition scholars have historically disagreed with legislatures on the efficacy and necessity of basic writing programs, but enrollment rates suggest that the need for basic writing instruction will either remain constant or increase (Otte & Mlynarczyk 2010).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Standard Language Ideology

Linguistic anthropologists in North America began examining speakers' beliefs about language more closely after Michael Silverstein's essay, "Language Structure and Linguistic Ideology," in which Silverstein described "sets of beliefs about language articulated by users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use," (Silverstein, 1979, p. 193). Silverstein described the way speakers' language ideologies directly affected their patterns of language use, citing the changing use of personal pronouns of address in European languages, which distinguish between formal and informal second-person pronouns, and order of adjectives as two examples. He asked: "Is there a way of analyzing the uses of language forms so as to relate them systematically to particular kinds of systems of role and status... in short, is it possible systematically to analyze a social organization of language usage?" (p. 204). For linguists, language ideologies are interesting not only on their own merits but also because they mediate between language use and structures of social organization (Piller 2015).

Later generations of linguists refined the concept of language ideologies and demonstrated one particularly clear ideology formed around so-called "Standard English." Standard language ideology refers to beliefs and practices which assign priority and superiority to the perceived standard variety, deeming it the only and most appropriate dialect to speak in formal contexts of government, education, and mass media (Lippi-Green 2011). Especially in the context of standard American English (also sometimes called academic English, edited English, or metropolitan English), standard language ideology shapes individual and community judgments on both speech and speakers. Though it is the variety spoken by relatively few highly-

educated individuals, its assumed superiority justifies existing social inequalities in which prestigious positions are mostly or only occupied by its speakers who are all members of the highly-educated class (Piller 2015).

Contemporary linguists and scholars of composition and rhetoric alike recognize that linguistic hierarchy is both irrational and unjust. Simple linguistic facts—that languages change over time, that variations in dialectal use and rhetorical styles evolve across different geographical regions and group identities, that dialects stigmatized as nonstandard operate on their own sound systems of grammar, and so on—seem to be at odds with the writing classroom’s treatment of “standard” English as correct, stable, and normal (Davila 2016). Furthermore, the demand that speakers of non-standardized dialects assimilate by completely abandoning their native varieties is a linguistic impossibility in all but the most extreme circumstances, and therefore an unjustifiable expectation (Lippi-Green 2012). And yet dialectal variation continues to be penalized as erroneous in writing classrooms (Charity Hudley & Mallinson 2015) and linguistic research has found that speakers of “standard” English are judged by listeners to be smarter, more elite, and in possession of more positive personality traits when compared with speakers of stigmatized varieties (Lippi-Green 2012).

This tension between linguistic realities and English-only or standard language ideology is perhaps most harmful to the marginalized and linguistically diverse students in today’s heterogenous classrooms (Horner & Trimbur 2002, Matsuda & Matsuda 2010). Internalizing aspects of standard language ideology can lead mainstream students to believe implicitly or explicitly that their varieties are “normal,” and to be perceived by instructors as more promising or as having more potential, while marginalized students who do not come to school fluent in mainstream varieties will face heavy pressure to correct their “wrong” speech and writing, and

will also be seen as intellectually deficient if they do not:

Sometimes, in the face of disapproval or correction, students may choose to remain true to the language that feels most comfortable to them in order to sound trustworthy and authentic. Other students who are critiqued for their language without sufficient explanation as to why and how to address the issue may become overwhelmed, confused, and discouraged. They may also lose confidence in the learning process, their own abilities, their educators, and school in general... (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2013, p. 33)

These issues—linguistic discrimination, discouraged students, pressure to assimilate—are especially prominent in basic writing classrooms when basic writers endeavor to join the mainstream academic discourse community.

2.2 Discourse Communities

Gee (1990) described the use of language as discourse (lowercase “d”) and discourse combined with other social practices such as customs or values within a group as Discourse (uppercase “D”). According to Gee, any individual may be a member of multiple Discourse communities; one student might find themselves navigating one Discourse in the drama club and another on the track team. Gee also asserts that familiarity with certain Discourses may offer advantages in those contexts. One can imagine a citizen fluent in the Discourses of law or politics may have better luck convincing their audience at a town hall meeting than would a citizen not fluent in those Discourses. (For the purposes of this paper, *discourse communities* with a lowercase “d” will mean communities sharing patterns of language use.) In the context of academia, Bizzell (1982) describes academic discourse more as a set of objective investigative practices: “a conventional system of inquiry that temporarily suspends personalities without

suppressing or manipulating them,” (p. 201). By teaching students how to join this discourse, instructors initiate them into a community which practices a specific critical methodology.

Basic writers, who are placed into basic writing programs after underperforming relative to their peers, are defined by their positions outside of mainstream academic discourse communities. Brammer (2002) describes basic writers as a polyethnic discourse community existing in the linguistic minority of their respective institutions. Because American dialects of English with stigmatized features correlate highly with speech communities belonging to members of lower socioeconomic classes, basic writers often lack both linguistic and cultural capital in the classroom. For students whose native oral dialects are most distinct from written “standard” English, their native rhetorical styles are also often dissimilar in ways traceable to their home discourse communities (see Delpit). Famously among composition scholars, Mina Shaughnessy’s (1977) seminal *Errors and Expectations* explained the “logic of error” in the work of basic writers, arguing that many student writing errors can be explained through misunderstood or partially understood rules, maladaptive strategies, and sometimes even internal systems of language created by the student in an attempt to speak “academese.”

Assimilating into academic discourses is no easy thing, and all the more challenging for linguistically marginalized students. Echoing the work of Shaughnessy (1977), Bartholomae (2003) also analyzed hundreds of college application essays, through which he concluded that students at low levels of mastery must nevertheless participate as if they are already fluent: “The writer would have needed to get inside of a discourse that he could in fact only partially imagine,” (p. 647). Regarding basic writers in general, research has shown that they don’t make more writing errors now than they have in previous eras, and in fact they do more reading and writing now than in previous generations; it is the attitudes and beliefs that students bring to their

academic writing tasks that cause a disconnect and change the nature of the errors they make (Warner 2018). Gee (1992) noted that joining a discourse community means agreeing to its definitions of right and wrong, so a college-age basic writing student must think of the dominant classroom discourses as “right” and their own as “wrong” in order to assimilate (Brammer 2002). Sociolinguists and basic writing scholars have reached similar conclusions in this regard: linguistically marginalized students must operate under standard language ideology within their classrooms in order to gain access to discourses of power, and this happens in a way that can threaten their writing self-efficacy.

2.3 Self-Efficacy

As part of his social-cognitive theory of learning, Albert Bandura described the construction of an individual’s self-efficacy through four main avenues: mastery (one’s own experience in a field), vicarious experiences (observing models and peer performances), social persuasion (external input, feedback, and judgments on one’s performance), and psychological states (stress or anxiety during performance). Self-efficacy then informs and affects a person’s anticipation and goal-setting, self-regulation of motivation, ability to cope with stress, and environmental selection such as career choice (Bandura 1994).

Halm (2018) modeled Bandura’s process in a study which sought to understand how peer and teacher feedback and the use of secondary support systems affected basic writing students’ revision processes and writing self-efficacy. Though her data was limited to the experience of only two students and their instructor, her findings supported previous scholarship which situated writing as a social process in which students learn best by observing models from “more knowledgeable others,” and by receiving and acting on specific feedback. Halm also observed both of her participants react emotionally to writing grades which then either motivated or

demotivated them from tackling the next project.

Halm's study was qualitative; however, writing self-efficacy is usually studied with quantitative measures. The three most popular methods are investigating student confidence in their possession of specific writing skills, their ability to complete specific writing tasks, and their ability to earn specific grades or scores (Pajares 2003). Decades of writing self-efficacy studies across all grade levels show strong and predictable relationships between writing self-efficacy and writing performance, and this relationship shows that writing self-efficacy is a better predictor of writing outcomes than other related factors such as motivation and goal-setting, writing apprehension, or even previous writing performance alone (Pajares 2003). A more recent meta-analysis by Richardson et al. (2012) found academic self-efficacy to be the strongest correlate with college GPA among 50 related factors including motivation, self-regulatory strategies, psychosocial contextual influences, and prior academic performance. Overall, self-efficacy beliefs make significant and independent contributions to academic performance and to human functioning in general (Bandura 2002).

Regardless of which self-efficacy dimension they are investigating, researchers typically evaluate writing self-efficacy by prompting participants to rate their agreement along a numerical scale in response to statements such as, "I can write in complete sentences," or, "I enjoy writing in my free time." Some studies, such as Pajares et al. (2007), offered their participants this style of Likert-type scale on which to judge the truth or falsity of each self-efficacy statement. Others, such as Bruning et al. (2013), prompted their participants with a combination of Likert-type items and questions in which students grade themselves on a 0-100 scale. Most writing self-efficacy studies measure writing skills or task self-efficacy, self-regulation strategies, attitudes about writing in general, and/or writing performance. As previously noted, almost all findings

confirm the hypothesized relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance.

Among notable writing self-efficacy studies, Bruning et al. (2013) was unique in its separation of writing self-efficacy into three discrete dimensions: self-regulation self-efficacy, writing ideation, and conventions self-efficacy. Their findings then demonstrated moderate positive correlations between all three of these dimensions and students' writing performance. Prat-Sala, Merce, and Redford (2012) examined both reading and writing self-efficacy scores in first- and second-year undergraduate students, and found significant relationships between each of these self-efficacy scores and writing performance. However, writing self-efficacy showed a stronger relationship than reading did to writing performance, and this relationship was stronger in second-year students than first-year.

Building on Pajares (1993)'s validation of a domain-specific self-efficacy scale and White and Bruning (2005)'s study of implicit writing beliefs, Sanders-Reio et al. (2014) studied the writing self-efficacy, writing apprehension levels, and beliefs about writing as compared to writing performance of 738 undergraduate students. In this study, writing self-efficacy modestly predicted writing performance, while the writing belief categorized as Audience Orientation was the strongest positive predictor of student writing grades.

In another study of basic writers' writing performance and writing self-efficacy, Jones (2008) found that previous writing proficiency, high school performance, and negative academic behaviors were all significant predictors of both writing proficiency test scores and writing course grades, yet self-beliefs were a particularly important predictor of student success. In this study, locus of control was the strongest predictor of success in first-semester writing courses. Notably, over the course of the academic term, participants' writing skills and writing task self-efficacy increased while their locus of control became significantly more external, contrary to

previous scholarship which had found that most students' locus of control becomes more internal over the course of their collegiate studies. Jones proposes that this small but significant shift may happen "...when basic writing students are confronted with a large number of new and perhaps confusing expectations, they may come to believe that they have less control over their academic environment in the short term," (pp. 229-230).

Outside of basic writing placement, another lens through which academic self-efficacy is often investigated is help-seeking behavior. In their study of self-efficacy, help-seeking behavior, and admission test score-sending, Mattern and Shaw (2010) found that college entry-age students with weaker self-confidence in their math and writing abilities were more likely than their peers to seek academic help such as tutoring. Yet the students most likely to seek help also showed worse first-year GPA and worse second-year retention rates than did the average group, indicating that they might not receive the support they seek (pp. 675-6). The authors suggest expanding the availability and quality of tutoring as well as training faculty to encourage help-seeking to combat this trend. Williams and Takaku (2011, "Help") conducted an 8-year study validating the findings of Mattern and Shaw (2010) in which there was an inverse correlation between college students' writing self-efficacy scores and their numbers of visits to the writing center. However, for Williams and Takaku's participants, high levels of help-seeking resulted in greater improvement in composition grades throughout the semester as compared to writers who visited the writing center less often ("Help").

Williams and Takaku also evaluated this data for gender differences, and they found no significant differences in writing self-efficacy, standardized test scores, or in help-seeking behavior between their male and female participants, supporting previous postulates that gender differences in self-efficacy decline over time (Williams & Takaku 2011, "Gender"). In high

school settings specifically, girls tend to perform better than boys do on writing performance indexes, yet boys display disproportionately higher self-efficacy levels (Pajares & Johnson 1996). Among high school boys and girls, Villalon et al. (2015) found that girls hold more sophisticated conceptions of writing work, but there were no significant self-efficacy differences between the two genders. Liang et al. (2019) investigated “masculinity ideology” in conjunction with academic achievement, and found that while masculinity ideology was associated with academic skepticism, neither it nor gender predicted academic engagement, though academic self-efficacy did. Research on the academic self-efficacy and writing performance of students with nonbinary gender identities is sparse as of 2020.

In Williams and Takaku’s study of gender differences (“Gender” 2011), the researchers further found that domestic students surpassed their international NESB (non-English-speaking background) counterparts on all writing performance measures regardless of gender, and domestic students also had significantly higher levels of writing self-efficacy (“Gender” 2011). While the international EFL students displayed relatively higher levels of help-seeking behavior and improved composition grades as a result, this study did not investigate whether those students’ help-seeking strategies and higher grades resulted in higher writing self-efficacy later on. Bruning et al. (2013) suggested that native language might be a contributor to self-efficacy differences between high-placement and low-placement students in their study, but they found no significant differences between the writing performance scores of native and nonnative English-speaking students.

There have not been many recent studies into the self-efficacy of college writers through a lens of racial differences, at least none which used the same measurements used in the aforementioned studies. Through a different methodology, Banks (2005) conducted

phenomenological interviews with African American first-year college students to investigate their perspectives on their high school literacy preparation. In this study, students reported negative consequences of disproportionately low expectations held by their high school ELA instructors, as well as the disparate wealth of different school districts and the challenge of high school English placement. Though Banks notes that this sample should not be read as representative of all Black students, her findings do support previous research asserting that Black students' academic outcomes may be hindered more by quality of instruction than by any individual students' capacity to learn. In earlier years, Pajares and Johnson (1996) found that nonwhite Hispanic students reported higher levels of writing apprehension and lower levels of writing self-efficacy than their non-Hispanic white counterparts. Beyond that, even at the time of Pajares' (2003) review of writing self-efficacy literature, racial differences in writing self-efficacy had not been studied in ways focused beyond overall academic self-beliefs. However, Pajares suggested that lower self-efficacy beliefs of underserved students could provide one explanation for ongoing disparities in achievement (p. 151).

The work of these diverse scholars illustrates the many angles through which researchers have examined academic self-efficacy and academic writing self-efficacy more specifically. Students' writing self-efficacy often correlates with motivation, previous grades and test scores, and positive writing attitudes, though the strongest of these is prior performance, or mastery experience (Bandura 1994, Pajares & Johnson 1997). Writing performance, in turn, is more reliably predicted by writing self-efficacy than by other factors such as goal-setting or apprehension (Pajares 2003), or related reading self-efficacy (Prat-Sala et al. 2012). Basic writer self-efficacy and writing self-efficacy for all students in general is thought to increase throughout college, however basic writers in particular may feel intimidated by the increasing difficulty of

first-semester writing assignments, which may lead them to feel that they are less in control of their academic outcomes (Jones 2008). Extra care needs to be taken to support college students with low academic self-efficacy because they are at higher risk of dropping out (Mattern and Shaw 2010). There are likely no significant differences in the writing self-efficacy scores of male and female students, though female students may perform slightly better than their male counterparts on writing assessments at the high school and college levels (Pajares & Johnson 1996, Williams & Takaku “Gender” 2011). Domestic and native-English-speaking students are likely to show higher writing self-efficacy levels than their international and nonnative-English-speaking counterparts, though NESB students may go out of their way to seek help and improve their performance more than domestic students do (Williams & Takaku “Gender” 2011, Bruning et al. 2013).

Overall academic self-efficacy, along with degree goals, has a stronger predictive relationship with students’ college outcomes than their socioeconomic status, high school GPA, or standardized test scores alone (Robbins 2004, in Mattern & Shaw 2010). As one dimension of academic self-efficacy, writing self-efficacy has also been shown to be a valuable assessment which can grant more insight into both a student’s academic history and into their potential future performance than other common proficiency measures.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH PROBLEM & METHODS

This study investigates the writing self-efficacy and linguistic heterogeneity of Wichita State's first-year composition students. Data was collected via Institutional Review Board-approved Qualtrics surveys which asked participants a variety of demographic questions and writing skills self-efficacy items to search for patterns and correlations. The research questions guiding this study focus on the linguistic and demographic diversity of WSU composition students, their writing self-efficacy as measured by ENGL 011 learning outcomes, and whether there are relationships between these two factors. After discussion of the findings and prior scholarship, recommendations are given for future research and for instructional strategies that can help increase student writing self-efficacy.

3.1. Hypotheses

1. Since the survey's self-efficacy items are based on Learning Outcomes which students ought to have attained passable mastery before leaving ENGL 011 for ENGL 101, all students currently enrolled in ENGL 101 should record responses averaging 3.0 or higher on the 5-point writing self-efficacy scale.
2. Based on responses gathered during the pilot studies and on the observations of prior researchers (see Lippi-Green, Charity Hudley & Mallinson), linguistically marginalized students may report lower average self-efficacy responses than their linguistically mainstream counterparts. In other words, this difference might be most noticeable among those who identify as nonnative speakers of English, or native speakers of non-standardized dialects of English.
3. As an extension of this linguistic marginalization, nonwhite Hispanic students may report

lower writing self-efficacy than their white non-Hispanic counterparts (see Pajares & Johnson 1996), as may Black students (see Banks 2005) and members of other racialized groups.

4. Based on prior scholarship from Pajares and Johnson (1996) and Villalon et al. (2015), I expect to find either no gender differences in average writing self-efficacy scores or slightly higher writing self-efficacy scores among male-identified students.
5. Especially for former Basic Skills students, writing self-efficacy might change throughout the semester as students are confronted with more rigorous academic writing assignments (Jones 2008).

3.2 Methods

The survey used in this study was modeled after two previous pilot surveys: one administered during the spring of 2019, and one administered during the spring of 2020. The former was not administered to any former basic writing students, while the latter was. The spring 2020 pilot study compared student writing self-efficacy to their experiences with specific high school English Language Arts instructional methods and to their linguistic identities. That survey was divided into five main sections: eight demographic questions (including questions asking students to describe and label their dialects of nurture), seven drafting skills self-efficacy questions, three revision skills self-efficacy questions, seven questions about previously encountered instructional methods, and a four-item grammar assessment focusing on sentence-combining skills.

The current study, administered during the fall of 2020, improved upon the spring 2020 survey in several ways. First, I shortened the survey slightly from 29 items to 25. Maintaining a relatively short survey was important to reduce the time needed to answer every item, and

therefore to increase the chances that each participant who began the survey would remain engaged and finish the entire thing. Second, I narrowed the focus of the survey items by removing the grammar assessment, which I did not believe succeeded in capturing each respondents' writing proficiency, and by removing the questions about high school-level instructional experiences, which I believe should be investigated in its own study. I also added more demographic questions to the fall 2020 survey to ask about multilingualism and to clarify questions which were phrased too ambiguously in the spring 2020 version. Participants were prompted to describe their mother tongue, name any other languages spoken, rate their fluency in their best and second-best languages, identify with specific regional or ethnic varieties, identify as accented or unaccented speakers, and so on. I also asked students more general demographic questions such as their gender, age, race, and birthplace or geographical region of upbringing. Finally, to incentivize participation, I offered an anonymous prize drawing for three separate prizes of \$50 each⁴.

The final fall 2020 survey contained seven writing skills self-efficacy items, all of which were based on the learning outcomes of WSU's ENGL 011 (Appendix A). Some learning outcomes were not incorporated into the survey; for example, learning outcome 7, "Communicate their ideas to a reader," could also be implied in learning outcome 2, "Find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate ideas," therefore learning outcome 2 was included in the survey while learning outcome 7 was not. (Refer to the final version of the survey administered in the fall of 2020 in Appendix B.)

The survey was distributed electronically via Qualtrics to students enrolled in fall 2020

⁴ Participation in the prize drawing was optional. If students chose to participate, they had the option to record their email address within the survey. To protect anonymity, all email addresses were removed from the data before analysis began.

sections of ENGL 101 at WSU. Current ENGL 101 instructors shared the link with their students. Each participant was automatically assigned an anonymous survey ID by Qualtrics, and students had the option to skip most questions or to exit the survey at any time. One of the demographic questions asked students whether ENGL 101 was the first English class they had taken at WSU, or whether they had previously taken ENGL 011. The goal of this question was to identify students in the sample who had been placed into Basic Skills by their ACT score or by a similar metric, and who had then passed the course and continued onto a mainstream section of first-year composition, without compromising student anonymity.

In accordance with the research question regarding student writing self-efficacy levels possibly changing throughout the semester, the survey was originally scheduled to be administered once at the beginning of the semester, and then again to the same group of students after midterm. Unfortunately, very few students participated during the first phase of survey administration, so I chose to leave the survey open to more first-time participants and to forego the longitudinal comparison⁵. Students therefore recorded their responses to the fall survey between September 7 and October 18, 2020.

Data analysis centered around the numerical responses offered by students: the average values of each student's seven self-efficacy ratings, the average response from all students for each of the seven learning outcomes, and the average values of different demographic group's self-efficacy responses. Where applicable in the data set, response distribution is graphed, and two-tailed t-tests for independent samples are conducted to look for significant differences between respondent groups.

⁵ Even if a second round of data collection was possible, it is unlikely that students' self-efficacy ratings would have changed over the space of 5 or 6 weeks. Jones' (2008) study of self-efficacy changes in basic writers took place over the course of an entire semester, whereas this thesis faced different time constraints.

3.3 Implied Assumptions of the Study

This study investigates writing self-efficacy rather than writing proficiency. Grading is not entirely objective, therefore self-efficacy is a more universal measure than writing performance assessments. Moreover, for the purposes of this study, measuring self-efficacy protects student anonymity in ways that aggregating student writing grades would not, and is more feasible within given time constraints than it would be to create a writing assessment which is both accessible and statistically useful. However, this study's scope of self-efficacy evaluation is limited. As noted previously, writing self-efficacy can be measured through multiple dimensions, including writing skills self-efficacy, writing task self-efficacy, confidence that one can achieve certain scores or grades, writing self-regulation self-efficacy, and more. GPA goals will vary from student to student, and different instructors may grade very differently, so this study does not investigate grades self-efficacy. Since tasks are highly context-specific (scope of assignment, who assigned it, what instruction preceded it, etc.) and skills are more transferable, this study asks students about their writing skills self-efficacy. A more comprehensive investigation into student self-efficacy might examine other dimensions of self-efficacy or multiple dimensions simultaneously.

The self-efficacy questions in this survey are based on learning outcomes which students aim to achieve before leaving ENGL 011 and moving on to ENGL 101. Because ENGL 101 students are intended to begin their first-year composition course with passable mastery of these learning outcomes, the study assumes that most students will rate themselves at or above the neutral midway point of the five-point self-efficacy scale. If most respondents do not rate themselves as efficacious, this may indicate that these measurements are not useful for evaluating student writing self-efficacy, or that the study has somehow selected for anxious

respondents.

During the first phases of survey administration in 2019 and in the spring of 2020, schools had not yet closed in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Initially, I intended to administer the survey to students receiving in-person English instruction because I ask students to reflect on the (verbal) linguistic environments of their English classrooms. Not only did the COVID-19 pandemic make it necessary to cancel the second phase of data collection in spring 2020, but it also resulted in all sections of WSU's ENGL 101 classes to be moved to hybrid or online instruction. The challenges of remote instruction during the pandemic might affect student perceptions of their English classroom as a linguistic environment. There is also a chance that stresses associated with the global emergency, similarly to other stresses, might adversely affect individuals' overall self-efficacy (Bandura 2002).

Data quality may likewise be limited in student responses to linguistic demographic questions. Americans who have not received formal instruction in linguistics tend to lack the vocabulary for describing different American English dialects. While most laypersons can easily perceive dialectal differences in other speakers, they may not know how to categorize these differences into specifically named regional and ethnic varieties; indeed, students who have spent their lives in Kansas may not know that dialects such as Hawai'ian Pidgin and Gullah exist. Furthermore, the very nature of standard language ideology leads to a blurring of all non-standardized varieties into a single non-standard category, which obscures the rich variation present in different dialects. These factors may limit students' abilities to describe their own language habits and their classrooms' environments in linguistic terms.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Twenty-eight students completed the survey, and five others also submitted incomplete responses. Four of the five incomplete responses answered demographic questions but not self-efficacy questions. Among the complete responses ($n=28$; 11 male, 17 female), none reported that they had previously been enrolled in ENGL 011, so this data only provides insight into mainstreamed writing students. The group average for overall writing self-efficacy was 4.092 ($SD=0.232$). The highest individual self-efficacy level was 5.0⁶ and the lowest was 3.0. The average age of the respondents was 19.031 ($SD=3.011$).

Student self-efficacy ratings were strongest in response to learning outcome 2, “Find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate ideas,” at an average value of 4.393 ($SD=0.69$). They were weakest in response to learning outcome 10, “Provide articulate, justifiable, and effective critiques of their own and others’ work,” at an average rating of 3.786 ($SD=1.03$). The writing self-efficacy item with the narrowest range of responses was learning outcome 8, “I can present evidence, give examples, and show my reasoning in support of a statement,” with an average response of 4.286 and a standard deviation of 0.599. The widest range of student self-efficacy scores was in response to learning outcome 3, “I can identify and edit common grammatical errors in my own writing and in my peers’ writing,” with a mean of 4.036 and a standard deviation of 1.138 (see Table 1.)

⁶ Three students reported the highest possible self-efficacy rating for each item, giving them an average score of exactly 5.

TABLE 1
AVERAGE SELF-EFFICACY RESPONSE BY LEARNING OUTCOME

Learning Outcome	Mean	SD
2. Find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate ideas.	4.393	0.69
3. Identify and edit common grammar errors in their own writing and the writing of others.	4.036	1.14
5. Compose original essays of college-level quality.	3.821	0.77
6. Organize ideas into clear thesis statements and paragraphs.	4.071	0.81
8. Present evidence, give examples, and show reasons.	4.286	0.60
9. Successfully revise an original essay in response to instructor and peer feedback.	4.250	0.84
10. Provide articulate, justifiable, and effective critiques of their own and others' work.	3.786	1.03

Twenty-two of the respondents reported growing up in an urban area. These students had very slightly higher average self-efficacy scores than the overall group average, at 4.104 ($SD=0.654$), while five rural students had a lower group average score at 3.914 ($SD=0.521$). These differences were not found to be statistically significant ($p=0.495$). One student recorded that they did not know whether their home area, Arkansas City, KS, was more urban or rural. This student's writing self-efficacy scores averaged 4.714 and they are not included in the other two averages (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY URBAN PROXIMITY

	n	Mean	SD
Urban	22	4.104	0.65
Rural	5	3.914	0.52
Unknown	1	4.714	n/a

All respondents identified as binary and cisgender. The average male students' ($n=11$) writing self-efficacy score was 3.909, while the average female student's ($n=17$) score was 4.210. These are below and above the overall group average, respectively. The standard deviations indicate minimal differences between the ranges of self-efficacy reported by either gender (see Table 3). At $p=0.209$, the difference between each gender group's average writing self-efficacy is not statistically significant.

TABLE 3
WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY GENDER

	n	Mean	SD
Male	11	3.909	0.62
Female	17	4.210	0.62

Seventeen respondents identified themselves as white students; among students of color, three identified as Black/African-American, two as Latino/Hispanic, four as multiracial, one as Other (self-described as White and Middle Eastern), and one student chose "Prefer not to answer." For white-identified students, the average writing self-efficacy score was slightly above the overall group average at 4.151. The ten students who described themselves as belonging to a community of color or to multiple racial identities had a group average self-efficacy score of 3.929, which was slightly below the overall average. These averages do not include the student who preferred not to answer the racial identity question, and that student's individual average self-efficacy rating was well above the group average at 4.714 (see Table 4). At $p=0.383$, the differences between the two racial groupings' average self-efficacy scores in this sample are not statistically significant.

TABLE 4
WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY RACE

	n	Mean	SD
White	17	4.151	0.60
POC / Multi	10	3.929	0.68
Declined to respond	1	4.714	n/a

Three respondents named languages other than English as their first language: one reported Spanish, one reported German, and one said that both English and Arabic were their simultaneous first languages. (One of the students with an incomplete response also named Spanish as their first language.) The other twenty-five respondents reported English as their first language. Of the three students who named non-English native languages and completed the self-efficacy section as well, two of them did have overall writing self-efficacy scores lower than the group average (3.286 and 4.0). These same two students reported being told that they have an accent, and they were also the only two students who reported using English as their primary language for 10 or fewer years. Meanwhile, the third respondent with higher-than-average self-efficacy (4.286) was the student who reported both English and Arabic as their native languages and reported never being told they have an accent. Because the group of nonnative English speakers was so small in this sample compared to native English speakers, no t-tests were applied to these data sets.

Twenty-six of the twenty-eight native English speakers in the sample, including both complete and incomplete responses, described themselves as monolingual. The other two native English speakers, along with three of the aforementioned nonnative speakers, are bilingual. One other student is trilingual. Two of these six multilingual students were among the incomplete

responses, so the writing self-efficacy data on the multilingual group is limited.

Ten respondents reported having been told that they speak English with an accent, including both native Spanish speakers and the native German speaker. All students who reported no accent listed English as their native language (or, in the case of one student, as one of their two native languages). When all self-efficacy responses were grouped by external perception of accent, very little difference emerged (see Table 5): the “yes” group scored 4.100 on average ($SD=0.719$) and the “no” group scored 4.087 ($SD=0.592$).

TABLE 5
WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY EXTERNALLY-PERCEIVED ACCENT

Comments Received on Accent	n	Mean	SD
Yes	10	4.100	0.72
No	18	4.087	0.59

For the internal perception of accent item, students responded along a five-point scale ranging from “No, my accent is completely unnoticeable to an average Shocker,” to “Yes, my accent is very different.” Thirteen students responded at the lowest accented descriptor, seven responded at the next level (“No, my accent is rarely noticeable or different”), six responded with “Neutral/Unsure,” two reported the second-highest degree of accentedness, and one reported the highest degree. Translated into numerical Likert-type values where 1 is the lowest perceived degree of accentedness and 5 is the highest, the mean of all responses to this question was calculated to be precisely 2 ($SD=1.134$). Twenty-seven of the twenty-nine students who answered this question also rated their writing self-efficacy levels (fig. 1).

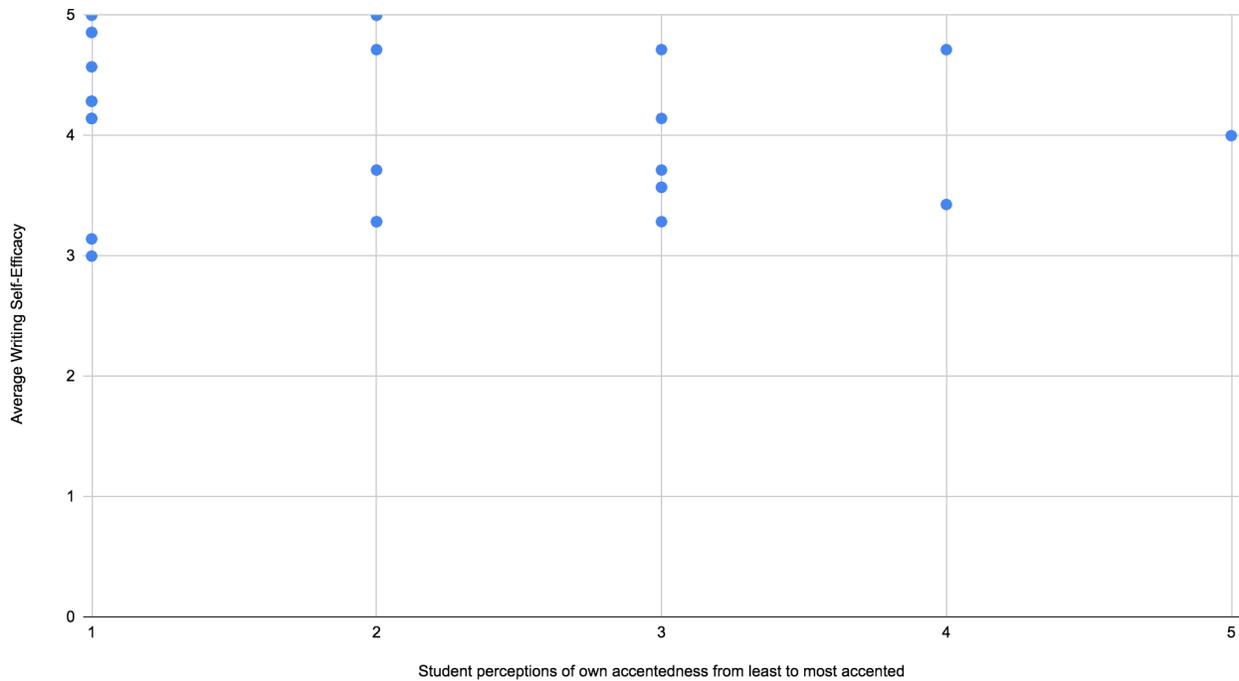


Figure 1. Students' perceptions of their own accentedness as compared to reported writing self-efficacy levels.

When prompted with a map of approximate regions with prominent regional dialects within the contiguous United States (see fig. 3), nineteen students identified themselves as speakers of mostly Midland American English, one a speaker of Upper Midwestern, two of Western, three of Coastal Southern, and two as None/Unsure. A final respondent left the item blank.

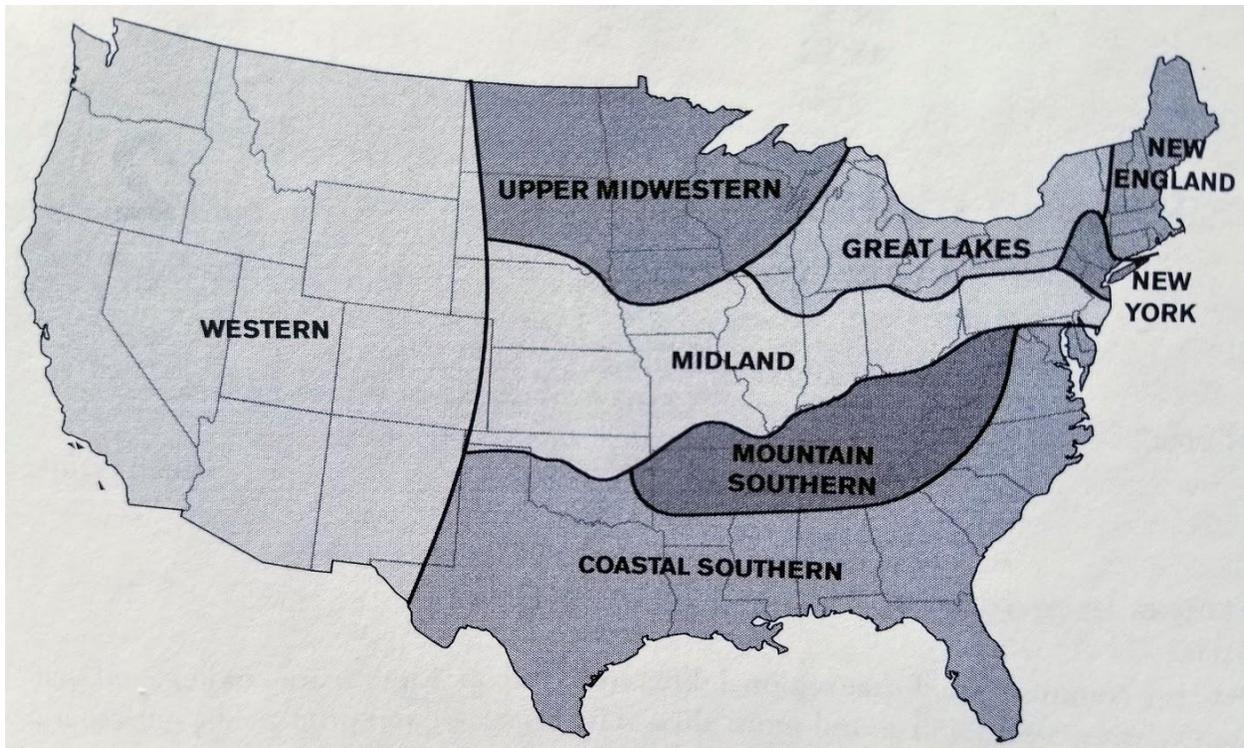


Figure 3. Map of geographical regions correlated with regional dialects in the contiguous US (Lippi-Green 2012). Respondents referred to this map to identify a regional dialect of nurture.

The nineteen self-identified speakers of Midland American English had an average writing self-efficacy score of 4.128 ($SD=0.670$), while the latter eight students had a combined average score of 3.946 ($SD=0.550$). These averages do not include the student who skipped the dialect map question but answered the self-efficacy section for an individual average score of 4.571 (see Table 6). At $p=0.668$, the average self-efficacy differences between speakers of Midland English and speakers of other regional American dialects is not statistically significant within this sample.

TABLE 6

WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY REGIONAL DIALECT

	n	Mean	SD
Midland	19	4.128	0.67
All Other	9	4.016	0.56
Coastal Southern	3	3.905	
Western	2	4.142	
Upper Midwestern	1	3.429	
None / Unknown	3	4.238	

Students also reported the geographical regions where they spent their formative years. In theory, this data would align closely with students' reported regional dialects; in practice, the data shifted very slightly. The average writing self-efficacy of all students from Kansas ($n=17$) was 4.168 while the self-efficacy of students from outside of Kansas averaged 3.871 (see Table 7). This comparison widened the disparity between Midland and non-Midland speakers somewhat. However, with a p -value of 0.231, the difference was not statistically significant.

TABLE 7

WRITING SELF-EFFICACY BY GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF UPBRINGING

	n	Mean	SD
Non-Kansas	10	3.871	0.70
Kansas	17	4.168	0.54
Wichita	7	4.163	0.52
Other KS	10	4.171	0.59
Unspecified (U.S.)	1	5.0	

Though the fall 2020 version of the survey differed strongly from the spring 2020 version, four of the self-efficacy questions were phrased in exactly the same way both semesters, and students were prompted to respond both times along identical five-point scales. Responses from 69 students, including the sixteen basic writers from the spring 2020 sample, can therefore be combined and compared for four learning outcomes (see Table 9).

TABLE 8
COMBINED SELF-EFFICACY DATA BY ENROLLMENT

	011 (<i>n</i> =16)	101 (<i>n</i> =53)	All (<i>n</i> =69)
LO 6: Organize Essay into Thesis & Paragraphs	3.63	3.91	3.84
LO 8: Demonstrate Reasoning	4.19	4.13	4.14
LO 9: Revise Draft with Feedback from Others	3.69	4.09	4.00
LO 10: Offer Feedback to Peers	4.00	3.77	3.83

Both basic writers and mainstreamed writers in the combined sample report strongest overall self-efficacy for learning outcome 8 (demonstrating reasoning and providing evidence). Basic writers feel less confident than their mainstreamed peers do about their abilities to organize their essay into a thesis and supporting paragraphs, but this difference was not found to be statistically significant. 101-only students are less confident about offering writing feedback than former Basic Skills students are, but they are much more confident about revising a draft based on feedback they have received. Learning outcome 10, for critiquing peers' writing, received the highest number of negative self-efficacy responses (below 3 on the five-point scale) among any self-efficacy dimension.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overview of Data

The demographics of this sample are roughly consistent with the demographics of Wichita State's undergraduate population (OPA 2020): they are mostly white students between the ages of 18 and 22, they are mostly female by a slight majority, they are mostly from Kansas, and of the Kansans, they are mostly from the Wichita metropolitan area. Most students who are not from Wichita also grew up in an urban area. This sample also offers insight into the linguistic diversity of WSU ENGL 101 students. Though placement into ENGL 100 versus ENGL 101 is decided by a student's country of residence and native speaker status, as we found in the spring 2020 pilot and again here, some students in the mainstream classes also have a native language other than English.

Despite the demographic correlations with WSU's population, this sample is not representative of all ENGL 101 students at WSU because it failed to capture any responses from students formerly enrolled in ENGL 011. The comparison between individual responses at two points in the semester was also rendered impossible when it became clear that very few students overall were participating in the survey, and the first phase of data collection was extended to recruit more first-time respondents instead of re-recruiting for the second round. The data that was gathered is also spotty in terms of completion because some students chose to skip occasional questions in the middle, and some students did not finish the survey at all. Based on the self-efficacy responses that were completed, some of the hypothesized group disparities do appear in the data, but t-test revealed these disparities not to be statistically significant. The data nevertheless offers quantitative linguistic demographic information and qualitative insight into

student perceptions of their linguistic identities.

5.2 Reflection on Hypotheses

As predicted in Hypothesis 1, all respondents rated their writing self-efficacy at average levels of 3 or higher on the five-point scale. More than half of the self-efficacy responses ($n=28$) averaged 4 or higher, which means that these participants responded “agree” or “strongly agree” to most of the self-efficacy items. This is a positive indication that the ENGL 101 students in this sample, as a whole, consider themselves to be reasonably efficacious regarding ENGL 011 learning outcomes.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that linguistically marginalized students might report lower levels of writing self-efficacy than their mainstream peers. If true, such a difference might appear in comparisons between average writing self-efficacy scores from native versus nonnative speakers of English, from different dialectal groups, or from accented versus non-accented students. However, the data gathered from this survey could not confirm the hypothesis through any of these comparisons. Only two of the students who identified themselves as nonnative speakers of English went on to respond to the self-efficacy section. Their scores were slightly lower than the overall group average, but the sample size ($n=2$) does not support a group comparison. Six of the 28 self-efficacy respondents described themselves as multilingual. Unfortunately, two of those six were incomplete responses, so comparisons of the average self-efficacy scores between the monolingual group ($n=26$) and the multilingual group ($n=4$) would again be imprudent. Comparisons by external perception of accent yielded almost no difference at all between the writing self-efficacy scores of students who have and have not been told they sound accented. When asked about internal perception of accent—that is, whether students believe they sound accented compared to those in their immediate surroundings—only three students reported that

their accent was sometimes or always noticeable.

In an attempt to identify students whose dialects of nurture might differ most strongly from those native to the Wichita area, students were asked to identify with a dialect based on a map of major regional dialects within the contiguous 48 States. Nineteen students selected Midland American English while nine others chose a neighboring dialect such as Western or Coastal Southern. The Midland student average writing self-efficacy of 4.128 was slightly higher than the average reported self-efficacy of students speaking other regional dialects at 3.946, but this difference was not statistically significant. Sorting the students into Kansans and non-Kansans produced nearly identical results (4.163 and 3.974 respectively, not statistically significant) because one of the Texan students identified themselves as a speaker of Midland English. Other than that, everyone else's reported regional dialect reflected where they reported spending the most time growing up, which is to be expected. One final possible avenue for quantifying possible linguistic difference is examining the divide between urban and rural students. However, only five students with rural backgrounds completed the self-efficacy section. Their group average self-efficacy score is 3.914 ($SD=0.521$), while the urban students' ($n=23$) is 4.104 ($SD=0.654$). Again, the small sample size of rural students discourages t-testing for significant differences between these two groupings. Ultimately, the data describing dialectal difference and differences in accentedness was not found to have a statistically significant relationship to students' writing self-efficacy scores.

Extending Hypothesis 2 to the racial groups highly correlated with marginalized dialects, Hypothesis 3 predicted that students of color, particularly Black or Hispanic/Latino students, might report lower average self-efficacy ratings than their white, linguistically mainstreamed counterparts. Again, more data must be collected to confirm or reject this hypothesis. Among the

students who completed the self-efficacy section, three identified as Black/African-American and two as Hispanic/Latino. These sample sizes were too small to support a comparison of group averages. When all self-identified students of color and multiracial students ($n=10$) are grouped together, their average self-efficacy is 3.929 ($SD=0.681$), compared to the white student ($n=17$) average of 4.121 ($SD=0.599$). At $p=0.383$, this difference in average self-efficacy is not statistically significant.

In this sample, male students reported slightly lower average self-efficacy scores than did female students, but again, the difference was not statistically significant. This partially confirms the expectations of Hypothesis 4. More comprehensive studies have already evaluated domain-specific self-efficacy differences between the genders at multiple grade levels (see Pajares 1996, Williams & Takaku 2011, etc.) Finally, as noted earlier, this data cannot offer any insight into Hypothesis 5 due to the limited quantities of responses and issues of timing. Given the size of this sample, general statistical error, and the limited number of data points from each individual respondent, no definitive conclusions should be drawn from any of the demographic self-efficacy comparisons seen here.

5.3 Self-Efficacy Data

The self-efficacy item which garnered the highest average ratings was learning outcome 2: “I can find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate my ideas.” Student responses to this item averaged 4.392. Conversely, the item for which students reported the lowest average self-efficacy was learning outcome 10: “I can offer clear and effective feedback in response to my own writing and to my peers’ writing.” Student responses to this item averaged 3.786. This may indicate that students feel less practiced in the self-corrective processes involved in revision, or that they struggle with the prospect of adopting an

authoritative or professorial role in offering feedback to their peers. White and Bruning (2005) found that students with transmissional beliefs about writing tend to score lower on writing performance measures than do their peers with transactional beliefs. While transactional beliefs reflect the complex social exchange involved in textual creation and interpretation, transmissional beliefs are a comparatively simplistic view of a one-way flow of knowledge from expert to learner. Students with transmissional beliefs about writing may not feel that they have enough expertise to offer constructive feedback on the writing of others, which would lower this self-efficacy measure as seen here.

The aforementioned self-efficacy item which asked students about offering feedback received four ratings of “2 - Somewhat disagree.” This was the largest quantity of below-3 responses received by any self-efficacy item except for the self-efficacy item about learning outcome 3: “I can identify and edit common grammatical errors in my own writing and in my peers’ writing.” In response to this question, three students chose “2 - Somewhat disagree,” and one student chose “1 - Strongly disagree.” This is the only instance of the “1” rating among all self-efficacy responses, and it was recorded by the student with the lowest average writing self-efficacy score of the whole group. Learning outcome 3 did not produce a lower average self-efficacy rating than learning outcome 2 because the vast majority of student responses to this question were “4 - Somewhat agree” or “5 - Strongly agree.” That range is reflected in the standard deviation of responses, which were highest for this question ($SD=1.138$) than for any other. Given the fact that the lowest response to this question came from a student who rated themselves as struggling in multiple other writing self-efficacy dimensions as well, while most other students feel confident in their error-identification abilities, instructors should view this data as a matter of one or a few students needing more support in this area rather than an

indication that the curriculum has not allocated enough time or attention to the issue of identifying grammatical errors.

5.4 Qualitative Linguistic Diversity

Though this data set does not show statistically significant writing self-efficacy differences between demographic groups, it does still illustrate wider linguistic diversity than is reflected in the expectations of an English-only environment. Languages spoken by our ENGL 101 students include Spanish, Turkish, German, Arabic, and Russian based on this sample alone. Outside of Midland American English, our students report familiarity with Western, Coastal Southern, Upper Midwestern, Cajun Vernacular, and African-American Vernacular English or AAVE. In fact, all of the students who named Coastal Southern as their dialect of nurture also reported familiarity with other dialects (one noted AAVE, one noted Cajun, and one noted “Other”—though the latter’s explanation showed that they might have misunderstood the question.) Two Midland speakers also reported being conversant in AAVE.

Despite the linguistic diversity of this sample, it is also clear that most participants probably lack familiarity with linguistics terminology and issues. Of the twenty-eight students who completed the self-efficacy items at the end of the survey, two students chose “None of these / Don’t know” when prompted to identify their dialect of English, and a third skipped the question entirely before answering the next. Similarly, twenty-two students responded “None of these” in response to the next question, which asked if they were conversant in ethnic varieties such as AAVE or Chicano English, and two others skipped the question before moving on to the next. These responses are unsurprising because most people who have not received direct instruction in sociolinguistics will not have nuanced knowledge of the dialects they and their peers speak, and in reality, the divisions between regional dialects are not as discrete as a

multiple-choice question would make it seem.

Before they were shown the regional dialect map, students were asked to describe their native dialect in an open-ended question. Several students also skipped this question. Those who answered, among the Midland speakers, tended to fall into three categories. They either included a geographical reference (an Oklahoman student said “Southern,” a Kansas City-area student said “Kansas,” and a Wichita student said “Northern American”), some version of the word “Midwestern” (“Midwest-informal,” “Usually a midwestern dialect”), or a descriptor more commonly associated with standard language ideology (“Generic American English,” “Standard,” “regular english,” “Normal”). Regional and SLI-like terminology also appeared in the responses of students who did not select Midland as their native dialect. One Coastal Southern English speaker said, “Country/Southern,” and one of the students who chose None/Unknown said, “Common English.” Still others, as noted above, seemed not to understand the question or to lack the vocabulary for specifying in their answer, as one student said simply, “English,” and another said, “Spelling is more British-like.”

Because I am highly interested in the influence of standard language ideology (SLI) on writing self-efficacy, I identified the responses of all the students who seemed to imply it in their descriptions of their own dialect (“Generic American English,” “Standard,” “regular english,” “Normal,” “American English,” “Common English,” “Normal??”). Grouping the students this way produced a much larger difference in average writing self-efficacy scores than other comparisons did; users of SLI descriptors when discussing their native dialects had an average writing self-efficacy of 4.510 ($SD=0.616$) while all the other students had a group average of 3.952 ($SD=0.579$). With a p -value of 0.039, this was the lone comparison whose two-tailed independent sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference (see Table 8). That being

said, this comparison should not be viewed as statistically sound because a t-test assumes a normal distribution, which the self-efficacy data does not fit. We also cannot assume the feelings or perceptions of the students who skipped this question on the survey, or assume that a student who only said “Midwestern” does not also believe that their dialect is the most normal dialect. All the same, this tentative correlation between normative dialectal descriptors and higher levels of writing self-efficacy poses interesting questions for future research. Perhaps it is the affirmative application of these ideas to one’s own linguistic self-concept which correlates with self-efficacy, as opposed to negative linguistic self-concept formed through stigma (as imagined by this study’s research questions.)

TABLE 9
SLI DESCRIPTORS AND WRITING SELF-EFFICACY

	N	Mean	SD
SLI-type descriptions	7	4.510	0.62
Other descriptions	21	3.952	0.58

Despite the lack of responses from former Basic Skills students, instructors can still find value in the writing self-efficacy levels of mainstream ENGL 101 students. Five of the seven learning outcome self-efficacy items received at least one response of “2” or lower, which indicates a lower-than-neutral self-efficacy. It is possible that some of these undesirably low responses could be explained by the way the survey items were phrased. For example, the phrase “compos[ing] original essays of college-level quality” may be a skill that all the respondents already possess, but if they think they are enrolled in ENGL 101 to learn how to do that (most especially if they are responding to the survey in their first three weeks of collegiate instruction

and they have not yet turned in any papers or received any grades), then students may feel uncertainty about the outcome at a level disproportionate to their actual ability.

5.5 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

To reiterate earlier notes, the primary limitations of this study are the small overall sample size, the lack of responses from former Basic Skills students, and the time constraints which prevented comparison of student responses at different points in the semester. The pandemic may have contributed somewhat to the low number of responses from students overall and from basic writers in particular; before the university moved much instruction off-campus, 41 students completed the demographic and self-efficacy items of the February 2020 pilot study, and 16 of those respondents had previously been enrolled in ENGL 011. The fact that the survey included a prize drawing this time did not translate into any more participants than were found in the spring 2020 pilot study. Recruitment happened over email, which might have selected for students who are already highly engaged with their online class or for students who are more motivated, in which case the sample would be even less representative of 101 students overall. McNenny (2001) noted that “...students typically uncomfortable with university demands on their time may experience an even greater sense of alienation with writing instruction conducted in the impersonal and often daunting medium of email,” (p. 12).

Under more ideal circumstances, an improved survey could be administered as part of in-person instruction to all students enrolled in ENGL 101, which would capture many students who had previously taken ENGL 011 as well. In order to investigate the research question about student self-efficacy changing throughout the semester, instructors should consider administering a self-efficacy survey at multiple points throughout a student’s enrollment in ENGL 011 and ENGL 101 courses, or perhaps administering it to multiple cohorts. The data might be most

illustrative at the very beginning and very end of each course.

This iteration of the survey asks students to rate their own self-efficacy in terms of the learning outcomes of ENGL 011, which offers insight which is only applicable to the context of WSU's curriculum and might not reflect other dimensions of writing self-efficacy. Though one would hope that different self-efficacy measurements produce results which correlate, it is still possible for each student to have varying levels of self-confidence depending on the writing context (genre of the assignment, rapport with the instructor, etc.). In this sample of 28 averaged self-efficacy scores, there is a wide variety visible in the internal consistencies of each student's responses. While three students reported the same self-efficacy rating for all seven items, one student reported all five points along the scale in their seven responses, which resulted in a range of individual standard deviations from 0 to 1.414. This suggests that some individual respondents have a lot of variation within their own responses which is hidden by the overall averages. A more comprehensive investigation of linguistically diverse writers' self-efficacy might look at more than one dimension of writing self-efficacy, i.e. a combination of skills, tasks, expected grades, self-regulation habits, ideation, etc. This survey also put more weight on the linguistic demographic questions than the self-efficacy questions, which limited the number of data points comprising each student's average self-efficacy score.

Another limitation of this study's methodology is the five-point scale to which the self-efficacy items were restricted. Pajares et al. (2001) found in a study of nearly 500 middle-schoolers that self-efficacy scales with more degrees of choice, i.e. a 0-100 point scale rather than a traditional Likert format, shows psychometrically stronger data. Bandura (2006) also validated this:

Scales that use only a few steps should be avoided because they are less sensitive and less

reliable. People usually avoid the extreme positions so a scale with only a few steps may, in actual use, shrink to one or two points. Including too few steps loses differentiating information because people who use the same response category may differ if intermediate steps were included. Thus an efficacy scale with the 0-100 response format is a stronger predictor of performance than one with a 5-interval scale (Pajares, Hartley, & Valiante, 2001). In sensitive measures, the responses are distributed over a good part of the range of alternatives. (Bandura, 2006, p. 312).

Bruning et al. (2012) also utilized a 0-100 scale in their study of multiple dimensions of writing self-efficacy, and found their data to fit their proposed multifactor model. For future studies of Wichita State students' writing self-efficacy, researchers should consider using scales with more possible degrees of differentiation than were present in this survey.

With more responses and more robust data, future studies could also conduct more nuanced comparisons between speakers of different regional dialects. Due to sample size, this study could only compare Midland to all other dialects grouped together, but more or different patterns might emerge if researchers could compare multiple dialectal groups. Furthermore, future studies could employ critical discourse analysis to compare participants' open-ended descriptions of their own dialects and their own explicit repetition of concepts associated with standard language ideology.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Summary of the Study

The study collected demographic information and self-efficacy ratings to investigate possible correlations between linguistic marginalization and writing self-efficacy scores. The data gathered here does not indicate any such correlation to a statistically significant extent. What the data does show is robust linguistic diversity among first-year composition students, general unfamiliarity with linguistics terminology, moderate efficacious self-concepts as applied to the learning outcomes of WSU's Basic Skills course, and tentative connections between SLI-normative descriptors and high writing self-efficacy. For future research, simple improvements can be made to this survey and to its administration methods in order to gather more robust and useful data.

6.2 Implications

Based on the findings of this study and on existing scholarship, I recommend that educators, especially writing instructors, consider employing self-efficacy assessments to gain a better understanding of student potential and to inform evidence-based instructional methods.

6.2.1 Why Focus on Self-Efficacy?

The relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing proficiency has been demonstrated to be strong and predictable by decades of scholarship (Pajares 2003). Writing self-efficacy can be measured in specific dimensions such as self-regulation strategies or tasks self-efficacy, and these dimensions all correlate with writing performance (Bruning et al. 2013). Though mastery experience accumulates through previous performances, such as writing test scores and high school writing grades, writing self-efficacy remains a stronger predictor of

student writing self-efficacy than does prior performance alone (Jones 2008).

Researchers tend to agree that teachers should nurture self-beliefs as well as skills because these can be either very helpful or very destructive. For students who develop low academic self-efficacy as a result of previous experiences or of current academic struggles, their negative self-beliefs can persist even as their actual skills improve, and educators must account for this in the classroom (Pajares 2003). Some scholars, such as Bandura (1994) and Heckett & Betz (1989), even argue that motivation and future performance can be more accurately predicted by a person's current self-efficacy than by their current competence. In effect, strengthening students' academic self-beliefs is at least as important as strengthening their competence, especially in settings such as basic writing classrooms, where students have relatively lower proficiency scores.

In a rare study in which writing self-efficacy scores were not found to correlate with writing performance, Igo (2002) suggested that some high school students may have received writing feedback which did not reflect their writing performance and thus did not help them improve their writing. Appropriate correctional feedback is needed for students to identify areas where improvement is needed; yet instructors should also identify specific areas in which students are improving or excelling.

6.2.2 How Can Educators Improve Student Self-Efficacy?

Multiple decades of research have shown that both writing self-efficacy and writing performance can be improved through instruction in self-regulatory strategies (Pajares 2003). Self-regulation, or self-regulatory strategies, refers to self-evaluation, goal-setting task management, and reflection. Educators can help their students translate self-regulatory strategies into specific process goals, and when regular feedback is linked to these goals, use of the

strategies increase and writing competence improves even more (Schunk & Swartz, 1993, in Parajes, 2003).

The self-regulatory strategy of self-assessment was found in an extensive meta-analysis by Panadero et al. (2017) to have as significant a positive impact on academic self-efficacy as feedback does:

As self-assessment provides the student with information about the learning goals and how to progress towards them (Andrade 2010, Panadero and Alonso-Tapia 2013), training in self-assessment may make students feel more confident (Schunk 1996).

Furthermore, as task performance is likely to improve as a result of self-assessment training (Brown & Harris 2013), confidence may increase even further. (Panadero et al., 2017, p. 92)

Panadero (et al.) found that this mediating effect of self-assessment on academic self-efficacy might be stronger for girls than for boys. Among different types of self-assessment interventions, they also found that monitoring—assessment methods which include rapid feedback during a task or performance—had a positive effect on self-efficacy, while students using self-assessment instruments such as rubrics or scripts report lower self-efficacy. The team suggests that this might be because rubrics make academic tasks seem more complex and difficult.

Studies of help-seeking behavior such as Williams and Takaku (2011) show that especially for EFL students, robust help-seeking habits can strongly improve composition performance. Following Bandura's social cognitive theory, stronger performance might improve students' writing self-efficacy through the accumulation of positive mastery experiences, especially when coupled with encouragement and feedback from authority figures. Encouraging students to visit the writing center multiple times throughout the semester, depending on the

quality of the help they receive there, really can improve both their writing self-efficacy and their writing performance.

6.2.3 How Can Writing Instructors and Administrators Support Linguistic Diversity?

Wetzl's study indicates that exposing mainstream students to diverse varieties of English can improve their perceptions of stigmatized varieties and help construct a classroom atmosphere more tolerant of linguistic differences (Wetzl, 2013, p. 218). For the part of instructors, Wetzl suggests re-orienting their conceptions of literacy away from mastering a single standard discourse and toward a flexibility across multiple discourses (p. 223). Tardy (2011) also suggests that departments can assume a proactive role by adopting policies and missions which explicitly recognize linguistic heterogeneity and commit to ending its associated inequities (p. 655).

In the past 15 years or so, an approach to linguistically-diverse English instruction called "translingualism" has gained popularity, and its scholars suggest teaching flexibility across discourses to counter standard language ideology. Horner et al.'s (2011) conception of translingual instruction repositions all writers simultaneously as language learners and language innovators. Horner et al. recommend that educators promote fluency across diverse conventions and linguistic practices rather than adhering to one set of arbitrary conventions (p. 308). Embracing linguistic fluidity should not mean no recognition of error or standards; rather, error becomes negotiable depending on context (pp. 310-311). Canagarajah, another translingualist, points out that monolingualism actually becomes an impediment in communicative situations with World English speakers, and asserts the need for all writers to be able to "shuttle" consciously between discourse communities. According to Canagarajah, giving students the freedom to appropriate English for their own communicative goals improves not only their confidence but also their fluency. Therefore a classroom practice which values marginalized

dialects “...helps in the acquisition of... socially valued dominant varieties” (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 592).

Though Matsuda is one of the scholars whose work helped catalyze the popularity of translingual scholarship, he eventually became known as a vocal critic of the movement due to his discomfort with the emphasis on difference for difference’s sake (Matsuda 2020). Matsuda strongly supports the continuation of L2 language instruction methods, and giving L2 students access to as many linguistic resources as possible in order for them to negotiate language differences and communication barriers on their own, rather than just pretending in the classroom setting that these differences do not exist or are not meaningful. For L1 students, Matsuda affirms the need for writers to understand the characteristics of “standard” English as the prestige variety, yet reminds instructors that it is equally necessary for students to understand normal deviations from this variety and that those deviations have their own inherent meanings and risks (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2010, p. 372).

Brammer (2002) combines insights from literacy studies and from second-language instruction to recommend ways for basic writing instructors to help their students join the academic discourse community. Second-language classrooms tend to acknowledge and accept variation among individual students’ levels of acceptance of the target culture, and deploy “consciousness-raising” to teach rules and features which are used differently in different contexts (p. 23). From literacy studies, Brammer recommends using explicit cues for transfer of problem-solving skills, which is similar to consciousness-raising, and teaching specific strategies for organization at the sentence, paragraph, and holistic level (p. 26). Above all, Brammer advocates nuanced explanations of errors in order to raise student awareness of which linguistic options exist (p. 26). Concurring with the translingualists, Brammer encourages instructors to

emphasize contextual appropriateness over correctness or incorrectness because the most needed skill for basic writers is the ability to adapt to the norms of different discourse communities (pp. 32-33).

Disagreement remains between some composition scholars around best practices for teaching the prestige variety to native speakers of non-standardized varieties, especially when those speakers belong to racial minorities. “Code-switching” refers to the act of switching consciously between two languages or between two varieties of a language. This is normal for any person to do in response to a different listener or a different level of formality, but the concept of code-switching is particularly salient in the context of multilingual or marginalized speakers. Some scholars, such as Wheeler (2006), have advocated for the explicit teaching of code-switching through contrastive analysis so that students learn to compare and contrast their non-standardized home dialects with formal, academic English (Weaver & Bush 2008).

After the publication of Wheeler and Swords’ *Code-Switching: Teaching Standard English in Urban Classrooms*, rhetoric scholar Vershawn Ashanti Young contested the division at the heart of this practice. According to Young, who goes by dr. vay, removing non-standardized dialects such as AAVE from formal academic contexts while teaching “Standard” English as the most appropriate variety is akin to linguistic segregation. Instead of code-switching, dr. vay advocates “code-meshing”: blending the words and rhetorical strategies of multiple varieties into the same communicative context to synthesize nuanced meaning. Teaching students to leave their home dialects at home directly contradicts the spirit of the NCTE’s declaration of Students’ Right to Their Own Language, whereas code-meshing permits students to enhance and stylize their language varieties for intentional rhetorical ends (Young, 2009, pp. 61-62). Dr. Canagarajah, aforementioned translangualist, also found code-meshing to

be preferable to code-switching pedagogies because "...minority students are reluctant to hold back their Englishes even for temporary reasons" (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 597).

Wheeler and Thomas responded to Young's concerns, but they may not have alleviated them. Though they remain sympathetic to the end goals of social justice and equity in the classroom, Wheeler and Thomas doubt that code-meshing as an instructional method can achieve those ends. They point out that diglossia, the phenomenon of a culture linguistically stratifying itself into "high" or prestigious language varieties and "low" or marginalized varieties, is a global phenomenon not specific to nations with a history of racial segregation (Wheeler, 2013, p. 376), and this is unlikely to be transformed by any number of writing teachers who adopt code-meshing in their classrooms. Furthermore, simply not teaching to the standard, arbitrary though it is, leaves students unprepared to join prestigious discourses and unequipped for social mobility, which is unfair to them (p. 382). They cite Lisa Delpit: "Having access to the politically mandated language form will not, by any means, guarantee economic success... but not having access will almost certainly guarantee failure," (p. 383). They maintain that their recommended strategy of contrastive discourse analysis, through which each student is free to say, "In my dialect we say it like this," can still counter the racist implications of standard language ideology (pp. 374, 382).

Regardless of whether an instructor chooses to teach code-switching or code-meshing, all writing teachers should consider how best to enable students to navigate and respond to diverse communicative contexts. For linguistically marginalized and mainstream students alike, standard language ideology is learned throughout a lifetime, and by the time a student reaches the college composition classroom, even strong departmental emphasis on multilingualism might not overcome it. Yet we should try all the same. Research has found that students with strong

audience orientation tend to perform better than their peers on writing proficiency measures (Sanders-Reio et al. 2014), which suggests that students who learn to adapt to diverse genres and audiences will become stronger writers. Furthermore, writing teachers who learn about language variation will be better equipped to support marginalized students (Charity-Hudley and Mallinson 2013).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FALL 2019 LEARNING OUTCOMES FOR ENGLISH 011: LOGIC AND SYNTAX

Upon successful completion of this course, students will be able to:

1. Increase fluency by adding new words to their vocabularies.
2. Find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate ideas.
3. Identify and edit common grammar errors in their own writing and the writing of others.
4. Write short essays that imitate the style and organization of model essays.
5. Compose original essays of college-level quality.
6. Organize ideas into clear thesis statements and paragraphs.
7. Communicate their ideas to a reader.
8. Present evidence, give examples, and show reasons.
9. Successfully revise an essay they have written in response to instructor and peer feedback.
10. Provide articulate, justifiable, and effective critiques of their own and others' work.

APPENDIX B

FALL 2020 WRITING SELF-EFFICACY AND LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY SURVEY

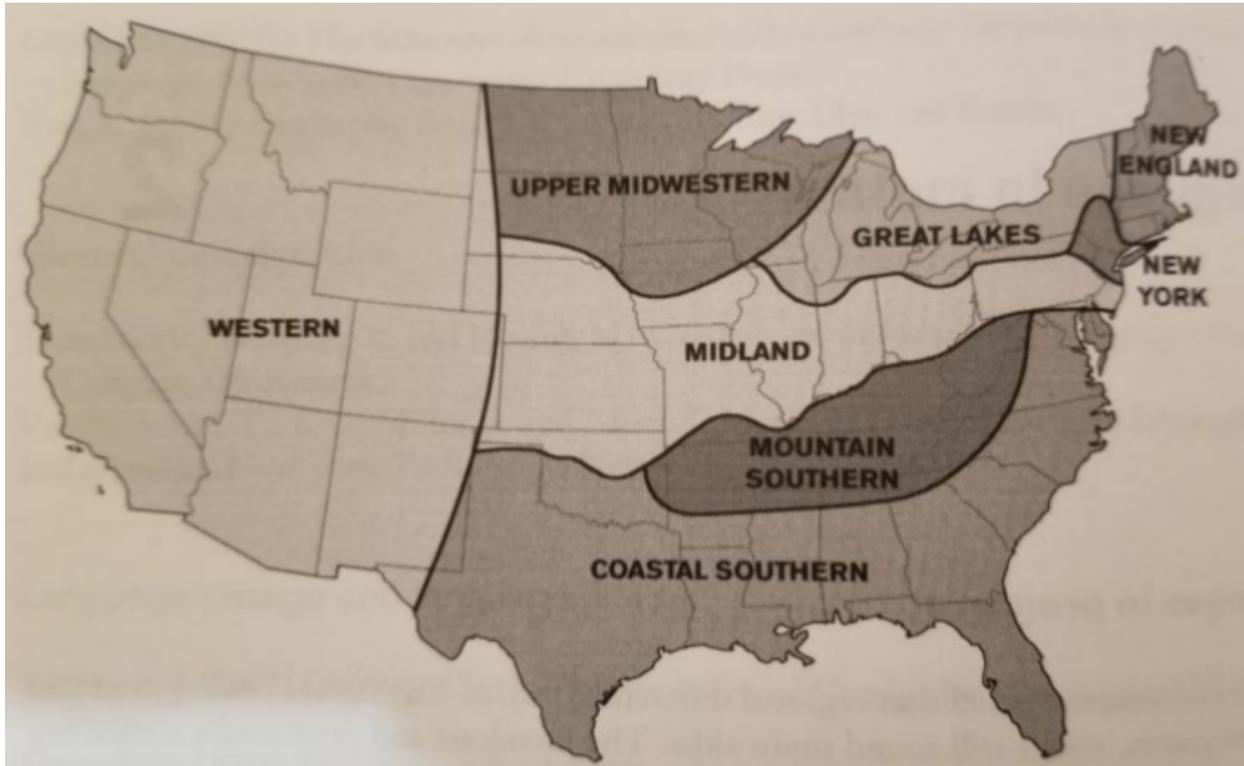
Demographics

1. Have you previously taken an English course at Wichita State University?
2. What is your gender?
3. What is your age?
4. Please specify your ethnicity:
5. Where did you spend most of your childhood? (City, state/region, country)
6. Did you grow up in an urban area or a rural area?

Linguistic Demographics

7. Which language was the primary language spoken in your household when you were young (i.e. native language or "mother tongue")? If multiple languages were spoken in your home, please choose one.
8. How would you rate your fluency in your first language on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is "poor" and 5 is "excellent"?
9. If you speak any other languages, please list them here:
 - a. Think about your second language, or your best language after your first language. How would you rate your fluency in your second language on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is "poor" and 5 is "excellent"?
10. How many years have you been learning/speaking English?
11. How many years have you been using English as your primary language?
12. Have you ever been told that you speak with an accent?
 - a. If so, please explain:

13. Do you think your accent differs at all from average members of the WSU community?
14. How would you describe the dialect of English with which you are most comfortable, or which you speak the most often?



15. Refer to the above map of regional varieties of American English. Do you identify as a speaker of any of these general varieties?
16. Are you conversant in any of these dialects of American English? (African-American Vernacular English, Chicano English, Cajun Vernacular English, Pennsylvania Dutch English, American Indian English, Hawaiian Pidgin, None of these, Other)
17. How would you describe the dialect or dialects used most often in your English / Language Arts (ELA) classrooms?

Writing Self-Efficacy

Please rate your agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5, 1 meaning strong disagreement and 5 meaning strong agreement.

18. I can find clear and appropriate nouns, verbs, and modifiers to communicate my ideas.
19. I can organize my essay ideas into a clear thesis and supporting paragraphs.
20. I can compose original essays of college-level quality.
21. I can present evidence, give examples, and show my reasoning in support of a statement.
22. I can identify and edit common grammatical errors in my own writing and in my peers' writing.
23. I can offer clear and effective feedback in response to my own writing and my peers' writing.
24. I can revise a draft based on the feedback of my peers and/or my instructor.