

An Argument for Writing Assessment Literacy for Multilingual and L2 Writers:
Deconstructing Linguistic Bias

by

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July, 2018

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College composition classrooms are becoming less monolithic as they linguistically diversify. When L2 writers are present in college composition classrooms, they are vulnerable to assumptions, and judgments about their writing are negatively influenced because it is perceived as weaker and time consuming to assess. L2 writers are often punished, excluded, and removed from the college composition classroom for presenting language difference. Graduate student writing instructors may inadvertently or intentionally exercise power over students. I review literature on the discrimination of L2 writers, graduate student training and writing programs, and writing assessment literacy. I designed a survey to understand how graduate student writing instructors conceive of their writing education and their approach to support L2 writers. The survey investigated the preparedness of graduate student writing instructors to teach, engage, and assess multilingual and L2 writers to understand the connection to writing assessment literacy. The research presented in this study suggests that GTAs are informed about classroom writing assessment; yet based on the discomfort GTAs appear to have with L2 writers, they seem to be unaware that they possess tools that supports L2 students. I demonstrate that becoming literate in classroom writing assessment will build a GTA's confidence in these areas and better prepare them to work with L2 writers and writers fluent in the dominant discourse.

An Argument for Writing Assessment Literacy for Multilingual and L2 Writers:

Deconstructing Linguistic Bias

A Thesis

Presented to the Faculty of the Department of English

East Carolina University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree

Master of Arts in English

by

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July, 2018

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express deep thanks to those who have supported me through the process of creating my thesis. I am fulfilled by the patience, feedback, insight, and guidance offered to me by my mentors, cohort, and study participants.

To Dr. Caswell: Thank you for challenging me through every part of my graduate experience as a professor, mentor, and the chair of my committee. I appreciate that you have always been present when I needed help. Thank you for the feedback that has helped me grow as a writer and researcher. I could not have made it this far without your words of encouragement.

To Dr. Sharer: Thank you for your guidance throughout my graduate school experience and making me feel comfortable when I needed help or when I felt insecure about an idea. You have given me great advice as an advisor, professor, mentor, and member of my committee. Thank you for participating in so much of what has been a fulfilling graduate experience.

To Dr. Banks: Thank you for always encouraging me to think critically about my ideas and my writing. I always look forward to discussions with you and getting your feedback. They have helped me grow because I can better understand conversations in scholarship and how I place myself in the world of rhetoric and composition.

To my ECU graduate cohort: Thank you to all of my dear graduate cohort, especially Will, Cameron, and Sophronia. All things in graduate school were possible because you were there to support me. You lent an ear if I needed to complain, talk through ideas, or express my interests.

To my mother: Thank you so much for believing in me. You show me endless love and support. You are always there for me when I need you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Historically, the composition college composition classroom has alienated students that present language difference (Inoue 2015; Matsuda 2006), reinforcing a difference that divides students that are native speakers of English from those that are multilingual. Students enrolled in the college composition classroom are expected to demonstrate fluency in the standard and dominant discourse, supporting an image of the ideal student that is monolingual and/or fluent in the privileged variety of English. Students that present language difference — international students, multilingual students, and second-language writers (L2) — are vulnerable to assumptions, and the judgments about their writing are negatively influenced because it is perceived as weaker and time consuming to assess. These students become problematic because they disrupt the idealized college composition classroom, a classroom that imagines its students as native speakers of a privileged variety of English, and are often punished, excluded, and removed for presenting language differences. Paul Kei Matsuda (2006) defines these tools of alienation as “containment,” when students who present language difference are filtered and quarantined into spaces away from those that demonstrate fluency in the standard dominant discourse.

Linguistic discrimination and containment is a current issue for students that present language difference as evidenced by Staci Perryman-Clark’s review of a First-Year Writing Program initiative at Western Michigan University (WMU) where graduate student writing instructors practiced methods of exclusion. As the landscape of college composition courses continue to be less monolithic, graduate writing instructors will continue to face (consciously or not) methods of exclusion. At East Carolina University (ECU), we are moving toward

internationalizing our campus which will change our classroom spaces. As a new Graduate Teaching Assistant (GTA), I'm interested in how my peers and I might contribute to methods of exclusion based on our institutional context and professional development. In this thesis, I review literature on L2 writers, GTA training, and assessment literacy in order to argue that instructors who have a working knowledge of writing assessment are better enabled to work with multilingual and L2 writers (Crusan, Plakans, & Gebiril, 2016, Lee I., 2016; Panahi, Birjandi, & Azabdaftari, 2013). I designed a survey to understand how graduate student writing instructors conceive of their writing education and their approach to supporting L2 writers, and sixteen writing instructors responded to the survey. The survey investigated the preparedness of graduate student writing instructors to teach, engage, and assess multilingual and L2 writers to understand the connection to writing assessment literacy. Throughout this thesis, I also reflect on my own graduate teaching preparation to illuminate my methodology and interpretation of data.

Background

English graduate programs across the United States offer training to their Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) through coursework, workshops, and professional development as their graduate students serve as writing instructors for their institution. At East Carolina University (ECU), GTAs are asked to fulfill eighteen credit hours in graduate coursework as well as successfully complete ENGL 6625 Teaching Composition: Theory and Practice before they qualify for a teaching assistantship¹. While concentrations vary amongst ECU English MA students such as English Studies, Technical and Professional Communication, Creative Writing, Linguistics, Literature, Multicultural and Transnational Literatures, Teaching English to

¹ SACS requirement, not necessarily ECU

Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and Rhetoric and Composition, all graduate students must fulfill the credit-hour and ENGL 6625 prerequisites in order to attain a teaching assistantship. Coursework varies across concentrations, but a constant variable for all MA GTAs is the writing education they receive in ENGL 6625. My experience in ENGL 6625 included learning various pedagogical theories, including social constructivist, expressivist, cognitivism, post-structuralist, and critical pedagogy. What was markedly absent from my writing education in ENGL 6625, a reflection of ECU as a Predominantly White Institution (PWI), was training in assisting linguistically diverse students in writing. One day out of the sixteen-week semester was dedicated to the writing education of L2 writers; this class was guest-lectured by an Assistant Professor of English that specializes in TESOL and Linguistics.

With the entrance of Chancellor Dr. Cecil Staton in 2017, ECU has pushed forward a new branding campaign that intends to establish the institution as “America’s next great national university” (Staton, [para. 2](#)). ECU’s initiative will diversify its undergraduate student admissions and may complicate the linguistic expectations of its composition classrooms. Undergraduate students at ECU are currently required to take two writing intensive (WI) English courses, ENGL 1100: Foundations of College Writing and ENGL 2201: Writing about the Disciplines. These are two courses that MA English graduate students at ECU instruct. My interest in conducting a study to survey graduate student writing instructors education and their preparedness to work with L2 writers is in conjunction with the prospect of my campuses’ diversification of its undergraduate student body. I acknowledge an absence of this training in my own writing education in ENGL 6625, a consequence of ECU’s student body being dominantly monolingual. A shift in language diversity amongst undergraduates will inevitably reach ECU and transform composition classrooms, and I argue that ECU’s current MA graduate

teaching preparation in ENGL 6625 must evolve with these expectations. Proceeding with its current model of reserving one-day training that focuses on the writing education of L2 writers can adversely affect in practices like exclusion and containment by MA English graduate writing instructors.

Statement of the Problem

As the college composition classroom spaces continues to linguistically diversify, I argue that there should be professional preparation to consciously and more effectively work with multilingual and L2 learners. Without professional development on multilingual and L2 learners, graduate student instructors might unknowingly practice tools of containment. Staci Perryman-Clark's (2016) article "Who We Are(n't) Assessing: Racializing Language and Writing Assessment in Writing Program Administration" discusses the implementation of a writing intensive course that reveals racial and linguistic bias amongst writing instructors at Western Michigan University (WMU). The writing intensive course offered at WMU was created to serve as an intervention for failing students of WMU's freshman composition course, ENGL 1050, at the midpoint of a sixteen-week semester (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 207-8). To gain acceptance into the six-week ENGL 1050I (writing intensive section), students formally applied through a letter of intent to explain their plan for success if given the opportunity; they were also asked to provide a letter of referral from their writing instructor (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 208). The students accepted into ENGL 1050I would be a part of a vigorous writing section that included a reflective piece, a research paper, a portfolio of revised work, and an annotated bibliography, which totaled to more work than ENGL 1050 condensed into a smaller time frame (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 208). Students that were enrolled into ENGL 1050I received help two times a

week for three hours from experienced faculty, receiving a combination of one-on-one conferencing as well as small group instruction (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 208). The makeup of accepted students included 30 students altogether, 2/3 of whom were students of color, and 1/5 self-classified as L2 learners; out of the participants, 24 students passed the ENGL 1050I writing intensive course that may have otherwise failed (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 208). This initiative by Perryman-Clark and her peers created opportunity for first-year students who may not have been successful in the traditional freshman writing classroom, but evaluation of student placement into the program revealed alienation of students of color and students that presented language difference.

As Writing Program Administrator (WPA), Perryman-Clark reviewed the pilot program of 1050I and discovered two prominent discriminatory practices in the fall and spring semesters of the program. The first practice of discrimination she observed in the fall of the pilot program is that many instructors refused, declined, or simply denied their students a letter of referral. Some instructors refused recommendations based on the judgment that the student did not deserve a second opportunity (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 209). Others ignored the offer completely after receiving multiple requests to identify if they had students in need (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 209). And even though some writing instructors acknowledged the offer and that they had students that were failing with an average below a C, they refused the ENGL 1050I initiative and a letter of referral (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 209). In this section of her article, Perryman-Clark hints that the discriminatory actions of the writing instructors are based on race, naming the subheading "Resistance in Assessing Students of Color and Second-Language Writers," but does not explicitly name racism as the tool of gatekeeping.

The second practice of discrimination was on behalf of the graduate student writing instructors in the spring of the pilot program. The graduate students used the ENGL 1050I course to remove L2 writers from their writing classrooms, regardless of the fact that none of the writers were averaging below a C (Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 209). The graduate students saw it as an opportunity to "relieve them(selves) of the burden of having to provide additional support" because they perceived working with second-language writers as "taking up too much time" (Perryman-Clark, 2016, 209). Here, Perryman-Clark openly identifies the discrimination towards multilingual writers by their misguided placement from graduate teaching instructors into the 1050I class. She acknowledges, "Graduate students needed support in teaching second-language writers" (Perryman-Clark, 2016, 209). It is important to note that Perryman-Clark's review of her pilot program for 1050I is an evaluation of the academic year 2014-15, less than five years ago.

Upon review of Perryman-Clark's writing initiative at WMU, graduate students appear ill-prepared and could contribute to systematic structures of assessment that serve as gatekeepers for multilingual and L2 learners. As a graduate student in their first year of writing instruction, it is a harsh realization that my peers or myself could inadvertently or intentionally exercise power over students of and their writing success. This conversation and study is critical since ECU's new marketing campaign is an attempt to recruit students on a national and international scale. Should ECU's undergraduate student body diversify, lack of graduate teacher preparation about L2 writers could pose serious consequences for students that present language difference.

Research Questions

This thesis focuses on understanding the professional development, perspectives, and practices of graduate student writing instructors. The two guiding research questions of my thesis are: 1. What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors with L2 writers? 2. What knowledge do graduate student writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment?

Research Objectives

The objectives in researching the experiences of graduate writing instructors and L2 writers in their college composition classrooms as well as their knowledge of classroom writing assessment includes:

- To identify what is included in the writing education of GTAs and if that instruction is considerate of L2 writers
- To explore the experiences of GTAs that have or have had L2 writers in their composition classroom
- To understand how GTAs support L2 writers
- To connect if graduate writing education that includes preparation in classroom writing assessment informs better practices with L2 writers in the classroom

Definitions

In this thesis, I discuss writing assessment broadly. For this study, writing assessment refers to the ways in which GTAs make decisions about student writing including both classroom-based decisions (grades, feedback) and programmatic-based decisions (placement). I

acknowledge that there are nuances between the terms programmatic assessment, classroom assessment, evaluation, and grading, but for the purpose of my thesis I refer to all of these terms under the umbrella of writing assessment. Thus, while reading this thesis you'll see those terms interchanged throughout the chapters and examples. Since this thesis makes an argument for classroom writing assessment literacy, I want to be clear on how I use that term. When I discuss classroom writing assessment literacy for GTAs, I am referring to the knowledge GTAs have about the classroom assessment practices and tools used in the classroom including designing writing tasks, rubrics, portfolio assessment, feedback, and grading. Classroom assessment literacy includes knowing both the how and why of different classroom assessment practices and tools. So, while these are practices used in everyday college, I use literature to support how classroom writing assessment literacy means becoming even more familiar with these tools for effective student learning.

The Study

To help answer my research questions: 1. What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors and L2 writers? 2. What knowledge do graduate student writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment? I designed a survey study that provided me with the data necessary to understand how GTAs interact with L2 student writers, if graduate student writing instructors feel prepared to work with L2 student writers, and if their graduate coursework and/or teacher preparation includes academic work in writing assessment.

My survey population included graduate student instructors from universities across the United States. I recruited participants with the help of my thesis director, Dr. Nicole I. Caswell, through the Writing Program Administrator Listserv (WPA-L) and through internal email

communication. While I am interested in ECU's GTA cohort because of ECU's new initiatives, I am also interested in how graduate students at other institutions are discussing L2 learners. My survey (see Appendix A) included demographic information about the participants and institutions. The survey built upon Crusan, Plakans, and Grebril's (2016) survey that asks L2 writing instructors what they know about writing assessment, how they have learned what they know, their beliefs about writing assessment, and common classroom practices (pg. 46). Whereas Crusan et al's survey was designed for instructors teaching L2 writers consistently, my survey questionnaire is moderated in such a way that suits graduate student writing instructors that are likely not working with L2 writers on a continuous or consistent basis.

Methods

The method used for this research is a survey. I composed a twenty-three question survey on Qualtrics, a survey system offered through East Carolina University. I limited the survey to twenty-three questions because the intended participants were GTAs who have a full workload during academic semesters. To answer my research questions, the survey covers questions related to participants background, their writing program, and the professional development they received about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers from their graduate program. The survey contains four sections, sections one through three collected quantitative data through multiple-choice, multiple-answer, likert-scale, and matrix questions. Then, section four collects qualitative data in the final two short-answer prompts of the survey that allows the participant to reflect upon the professional development they received about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers in their graduate program. The sections are structured as such:

- Section one is related to background information such as demographics, school affiliation, education, courses taught and course design.
- Section two asks questions about participants' understanding of classroom writing assessment (e.g. designing good writing tasks, scoring rubrics, the concept of portfolio assessment, self-assessment), the types of classroom assessment practices they utilize (e.g. rubric design, conferences, portfolio, written feedback), and their comfort with executing classroom assessment practices.
- Section three asks questions about participants' experiences and comfort instructing and assessing L2 writers.
- Section four contains two prompts with a short-answer space each that asks participants to reflect upon the professional development they received in their graduate program regarding L2 writers and classroom writing assessment, and if they desire additional professional development in these areas and why.

To analyze section four, I used a grounded theory research approach “to develop a well integrated set of concepts” as I read participant responses and developed codes for their responses (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, pg. 5). Google Sheets was the tool I utilized to calculate and visualize data from the survey.

Participants

The participants I sought for this study to answer my research questions were GTAs on a national scale. I wished to understand how writing programs vary from different regions in the United States and learn if and how they support their GTAs in their knowledge of classroom

writing assessment and L2 writers, and if that writing education impacted the experiences of the GTAs. Dr. Nicole I. Caswell (Director of University Writing Centers, Assistant Professor, and director of my thesis committee) helped me share my Qualtrics survey with an email prompt (See Appendix #) through the WPA-L list-serv. I also circulated the survey through email amongst my GTA colleagues at my home institution of East Carolina University (ECU). I remained cognizant that the data I aimed to collect would be commensurate from GTAs nationally and from within my program, otherwise the data could have been skewed in regards to the writing education, assessment literacy, and encounters with L2 writers from ECU participants alone. I intended on working with data from about fifty participants, but concluded my data analysis with sixteen participants. From those sixteen participants, I received a proportional number of responses from GTAs from different regions around the US; five are from a southeast institution, five from a northeast institution, three from a midwest institution, and two are from a southwest institution. A detailed breakdown with demographic information and percentages about participants is available in Chapter 4.

Limitations

Drawbacks associated with this research are mainly in accordance with my lack of experience using the survey tool Qualtrics. As I discussed, I set a goal to receive data from fifty participants but concluded with data from sixteen. Thirty-seven participants began my survey but twenty-one did not complete it, and I realized that I did not make many questions, specifically in section one that gathers participant background information, in the survey “force-responsive.” Therefore, some data returns from section one as “Unidentified.” Also, even though I entered my research searching for responses from GTAs only, I retained data from two participants who

identified themselves as PhD graduates because they demonstrated reflection of the education they received in their graduate programs. The issue with this decision is that Q3 asks “Current School/University Affiliation,” and while the PhD graduate participants may have reflected on their graduate education, they most likely identified the institution they are currently employed.

Additionally, language in the final two prompts of the survey could have been clarified for participants and one question of the survey could have had its answer pool expanded. For example, Q22 of the survey reads:

Discuss what your program did well or did not do well in regards to your preparation in working with: (a) L2 writers (b) instruction on how to provide feedback, evaluate student writing, create writing tasks, the concept of portfolio assessment, and self-assessment strategies for students.

Based on the responses I received for this question, participants often answered part a or part b only. I discern that this prompt may have been best written as two separate prompts to increase the likelihood of receiving participants’ opinions about both their graduate programs L2 writer education and classroom writing assessment education. Also, I recognize that Q20 that reads “When you realize you have an L2 writer in the classroom, do any of these thoughts run through your mind?” and provides a multiple-answer list with suggested thoughts, should have also included an “Other” option in case the list was not exhaustive. If I had included that option, I may have gained better perspective on the perceptions of L2 writers by the participants. In spite of these limitations, the survey provided me with data to begin answering my research questions.

Conclusion

In the upcoming chapters of this thesis, I intend to answer my research questions to understand the perspectives and practices of graduate student writing instructors as they engage with L2 writers. The next chapter is the literature review, Chapter 2, and discusses the historical discrimination L2 writers have faced in the college composition classroom. I make links between how the racialized body has been differenced in American culture and how that differencing has manifested into college composition classrooms but through linguistic difference that results in practices of containment. Chapter 2 also reviews teacher training and the current model of preparing GTAs to teach through workshops, coursework in pedagogy, composition, and rhetoric, and writing center work. However, this model is designed around an institutions local needs and mainstream students, and pays little regard to how to support L2 writers if they are present in the classroom. Then, I discuss literature about writing assessment, and the potential for writing assessment literacy for writing instructors to support L2 writers. Chapter 3 discusses my methodology and describes the survey methods used for my research. It also covers the choices I made in survey design, analysis of data, participants, and the limitations of the research. Then, Chapter 4 proceeds to share the results of the survey. Finally, Chapter 5 enters a discussion about the professional development GTAs receive about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers based on the results of the survey and makes connections to my research questions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

As I mentioned in Chapter 1, L2 writers tend to experience from linguistic discrimination in the college composition classroom. This chapter will review the scholarship of linguistic discrimination towards L2 writers, beginning with the history of colonial differencing and the way bodies are racialized in America. Then, the chapter discusses how institutions became more racially diverse, and how linguistic homogeneity of a privileged English became a standard in higher education. This institutional belief results in linguistic discrimination like practices of containment by excluding and removing Othered bodies into different spaces. The chapter proceeds to examine standard GTA writing instruction with the goal of problematizing why GTAs are not often prepared to work with L2 writers. Then, I introduce scholarship about writing assessment to link writing assessment literacy as a tool to support L2 writers in the composition classroom. These three literature areas serve the foundation for my research study on identifying the writing education of GTAs, the experiences GTAs have with L2 writers, what teaching practices GTAs use to support L2 writers, and if that connects to writing assessment literacy.

Discrimination of Second-Language Writers

Discrimination against persons or groups that present language difference is associated with the racialized body (Inoue, 2015). Historically, colonizers positioned themselves as racially superior to the peoples of the lands they seized, and the racialized were victim to “the forcible movement of (their) bodies” (Bardhan & Zhang, 2016, pg. 287). It was not until European

colonization that such a visible Othering manifested. Peoples from Africa became “black,” and peoples from Asian and South and Central American countries became “Asians” or “Hispanic,” which favored the White settler and those who were previously Othered in European contexts (e.g. the Irish, Italian, European Jews) (Bardhan & Zhang, 2016, pg. 287). European colonizer ideologies persist in the racialization of bodies in Western postcolonial societies.

The differencing of bodies in physicality, color, and language in postcolonial societies is structured in power laden ways (Bardhan & Zhang, 2016), and I argue that the Othering of those that present language difference also works in these colonial ideologies in unseen or overlooked ways that exclude and contain. The racial differencing and practice of containment transcends centuries of colonial oppression. This can be seen in the containment of Native Americans by settlers on Indian Reservation, described by Lakota Native American journalist Simon Moya-Smith (2016) as “prison camps.” Likewise, prison systems are described by Michelle Alexander (2010) as a reinvented form of slavery and reinforces social hierarchy by containing black citizens.

While outward appearances are more easily marked as others, outward appearances are not the only ways bodies are oppressed. For example, in terms of language superiority many US citizens, migrant populations, and immigrant populations can be racially defined and perceived as white which assumes their fluency in the privileged variety of English. When these individuals speak, however, the presence of language difference such as dialects associated with social groups and regions or accents associated with second-language or multilingual speakers, become determining factors in how these groups are judged. The way language is judged can play out in the composition classroom in a myriad of ways. For example, as I mentioned in Chapter 1, the graduate instructors at WMU purposefully removed non-failing L2 writers out of

their initial mainstream composition classroom into a WI section to avoid a burden, and were engaging in the practice of containment based on language. If writers are not fluent speakers of the privileged variety of English, their writing is perceived as weaker and more time consuming to assess and are subject to encounter the practice of containment and exclusion.

The differencing of race and language and its punishments has also ingrained itself into college education. Mid-nineteenth century college education was “restricted to students from certain ethnic, gender, religious, socioeconomic, and linguistic backgrounds” (Matsuda, 2006, pg. 643) to establish and perpetuate grounds for a homogenous student body as white and native speakers of English. Even though historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) granted African American students access to higher education in the late nineteenth century, they are founded on “ever-present legacies of racism and social exclusion” (Green, 2016, pg. 153) and served as “sites of containment—ethnic as well as linguistic” (Matsuda, 2006, pg. 643). Assessment also aided in exclusionary colonial endeavors through the creation of the entrance exams at Harvard in 1874; the exam was created by a “growing awareness of the importance of linguistic class distinctions in the United States” (cited in Matsuda, 2006, pg. 643). Ellen Cushman (2016) acknowledges the maintenance of social, epistemic, and linguistic hierarchies as the “colonial difference.” Reflecting on these historical practices of systematic oppression that keeps undesired groups of student writers of racial and linguistic difference from entering spaces of privilege is vital in understanding how discrimination transcends into present college composition classrooms.

Excluding students on behalf on their language difference became a practice in the college composition classroom, forming it into colonized space. As an influx of international students entered U.S. college composition classrooms in the late nineteenth century to early

twentieth century, writing instructors recognized that their traditional pedagogy designed around the ideal writer, fluent in the privileged variety of English, was problematic (Matsuda, 2006, pg. 345). Yet, instead of modifying instruction to suit students of all language backgrounds and leaving the image of the monolingual student behind, areas of extra instruction were created to “support” and contain linguistic and culturally diverse students (Matsuda, 2006, pg. 645). Examples of the spaces to which these students were pushed into are remedial English language courses, intensive English programs, and writing labs/clinics/centers. There were also preparatory noncredit courses that were mandatory before taking the required college English course, like an English course for non-native speakers and summer programs for international students. When these courses failed to assist L2 writers and it became apparent that they would continue to bring their language difference into college composition classrooms, institutions developed a “separate track of required composition courses for second-language writers” (Matsuda, 2016, pg. 647), supporting the colonial difference through exclusion and containment of difference.

The colonization of college composition classrooms through exclusion and containment of L2 writers encourages the image of the ideal English-only student writer, complicating the success of students that show linguistic difference. The bodies of students that present language difference are alienated because a standard dominant discourse is normalized (Green, 2016; Inoue, 2015; Lee, 2016; Matsuda, 2006). For that reason, the ideal student writer is imagined as fluent in the privileged variety of English, Standard Edited American English (SEAE). Because students with language differences have historically been Othered and excluded from the college composition classroom, many writing instructors continue to harbor an assumption, intentional or not, of “linguistic homogeneity” or the “tacit and widespread acceptance of the dominant

image of composition students as native speakers of a privileged variety of English” (Matsuda, 2016, pg. 638).

The imagination and expectation that composition classrooms will continue to possess English-only writers does not correlate with the reality that institutions are aiming to diversify. College composition classrooms across the United States are experiencing growth of L2 writers in their classrooms (CCCC Statement, 2009; Zawacki & Habib 2015; Crusan 2010). Zawacki and Habib (2015) observe that there is an “increasing push to recruit international students,” or internationalization, so much so that US institutions are lowering the standardized L2 assessment requirements in TOEFL and IELTS for general admission (pg. 651). Recruitment efforts of this magnitude welcomes L2 writers of wide-ranging linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds, many of which writing instructors of composition are not equipped or ready to engage with. Ferris, Brown, Collins, Liu, and Stine (2009) explain that the presence of L2 writers goes unrecognized by many teachers, while Crusan (2010) adds that many are “hesitant to admit their presence” because of their insecurities in how to teach them (cited in Crusan, 2010, pg. 181). The aptitude for writing instructors to ignore the presence of L2 writers is perpetuated by the assumptions that the college composition classroom should only have English-only, monolingual writers. Therefore, practices like exclusion and containment of difference are enabled by the proclivity for linguistic homogeneity

Graduate Student Training and Writing Programs

Kathleen Blake Yancey (2002) argues that while a common model of GTA instruction seems “neither possible nor desirable,” it inevitably benefits Writing Program Administrators (WPAs) to have a collective interpretation of the components included in these programs (pg.

63). Graduate Teaching Assistant (GTA) preparation varies from institution to institution, but there are core practices shared to prepare college teachers of English. In “Recent Trends in TA Instruction: A Bibliographic Essay,” Stephen Wilhoit observes programs to develop GTAs through training such as: pre-service orientations, credit-bearing practica in composition pedagogy, apprenticeship and mentorship programs, and writing center work. Pre-service orientations are like workshops scheduled a few days prior to the first day of class instruction covering areas of writing pedagogy, composition theory, and the school’s writing program (Wilhoit, 2002, pg. 18). Graduate coursework is also often required in the first year. Wilhoit (2002) explains that the coursework and credit-bearing practica aims to balance three needs: “to educate (GTAs) in composition theory and pedagogy, to maintain a theoretically coherent writing program, and to respect the TAs’ own theories of writing and teaching” (pg. 18). Many institutions also offer apprenticeship and mentorship programs in which GTAs are supervised by a faculty member with goals of becoming better classroom instructors as they “receive experienced, informed responses to their teaching,” can obtain “ready advice and guidance,” and have a “role model to emulate” (as cited in Wilhoit, 2002, pg. 19). Lastly, GTAs are often trained as writing tutors because it helps them learn to effectively communicate with their students about writing, extend constructive feedback on student writing, and gain confidence as teachers (Wilhoit, 2002, pg. 20). These methods are used to support new GTAs on their paths to independently instruct English courses at their institution.

As important as having models of GTA program structure and comprehension of how they are informed by theory is acknowledging the contexts where GTAs teach. GTAs instruct at a myriad of higher-ed institutions like HBCUs, liberal arts colleges, comprehensive schools, and doctoral granting institutions (Yancey, 2002, pg. 63). Yancey argues that writing programs rely

heavily on local needs, the context in which GTAs serve; she finds that local needs “determine rather than influence” GTA development programs (pg. 64). I argue that these common models are given too much precedence and not considerate enough of local needs of existing and growing students populations with diverse linguistic backgrounds. For instance, texts available for use in composition theory and pedagogy classrooms are T.R. Johnson’s (2005) *Teaching Composition: Background Readings: Second Edition*, Coxwell, Teague, and Lunsford’s (2014) *First-Year Composition: From Theory to Practice*, and Villanueva and Arola’s (2011) *Cross-Talk in Composition Theory: Third Edition*. These texts are limited to two to three articles per text that discuss students with diverse language backgrounds and L2 writers:

- “Tutoring ESL Students: Issues and Options” by Muriel Harris and Tony Silva in *Teaching Composition: Background Readings*
- “Dispositions toward Language: Teacher Constructs of Knowledge and the Ann Arbor Black English Case” by Arnetha Ball and ed Lardner in *Teaching Composition: Background Readings*
- “ESL Composition as a Literate Art of the Contact Zone” by Suresh Canagarajah in *First-Year Composition: From Theory to Practice*
- “Writing, Language, and Literacy” by Chris M. Anson in *First-Year Composition: From Theory to Practice*
- “For the Love of Language: A Curriculum” by Victor Villanueva in *First-Year Composition: From Theory to Practice*
- “Inviting the Mother Tongue: Beyond “Mistakes,” “Bad English,” and “Wrong Language”” by Peter Elbow in *Cross-Talk in Composition Theory*

- “Composition Studies and ESL Writing: A Disciplinary Division of Labor” by Paul Kei Matsuda in *Cross-Talk in Composition Theory*

It is a propensity for linguistic homogeneity that continues to detrimentally influence core models of GTA program structure. By continuing to minimize the growing presence of L2 writers as current texts used for composition theory and pedagogy courses have been is to also ignore current and future local, institutional needs. GTAs are entering composition classrooms where L2 writers will likely be present in the courses they instruct. Instead, many writing programs offer separate courses like Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) or linguistic based courses that exist outside of the core requirements for a teaching assistantship. It is also worth interrogating that while it may appear in the interests of writing programs to provide support for the GTAs’ immediate student population, assumed to be fluent in the dominant discourse, does it serve the professional interests of the GTAs who will not only likely encounter L2 writers during their teaching assistantship but beyond graduation in the future educational institutions they will be employed at? If the future holds growth in L2 writers in composition classrooms, especially as colleges move to internationalize (Crusan, 2010), then the consequences of writing programs’ short-sightedness remains substantial for L2 writers. In her article that discusses WMU’s ENGL 1050I initiative to support failing students and the GTAs practice of containment over L2 writers, Perryman-Clark (2016) writes, “It was clear from this second failure (GTAs removing non-failing L2 writers into the intensive section) that graduate students needed support in teaching second language writers” (pg. 209). I believe Perryman-Clark’s statement should be a resounding call to action for writing programs to rethink the traditional models of GTA program structure that are predisposed to minimize instruction and conversation about L2 writers.

Finally, the racial and linguistic makeup of most writing programs do not reflect those who are disadvantaged and underrepresented in college composition classrooms. With regards to staff at their home institutions, Asao Inoue (2015) and Perryman-Clark (2016) each observe that their writing faculty are predominantly white and monolingual (Inoue, 2015; Perryman-Clark, 2016, pg. 207). If this is the racial and linguistic makeup of most writing programs, it is rational to assume how the backgrounds of the majority influence the discourse valued. The space where SEAE is valued is what Inoue refers to as a "white racial habitus," or a dominant white discourse (Inoue, 2015). Consequently, because a white racial habitus values and assumes writers are fluent in SEAE, or linguistic homogeneity, does not apply to just L2 writers, but it also intersects dialects and race. In most college writing programs, students are asked to produce in the white dominant discourse and subsequently judged by their ability to approximate that discourse (Inoue, 2015). Inoue's book illuminates how these hierarchies in institutions are inevitably racist because of those who operate in positions of power and those who endure the consequences. Understanding who maintains authority in and over the language and discourse valued is pertinent to learning why there are misconceptions about multilingual and L2 writers.

Writing Assessment Literacy

Remediation in writing assessment, whether it is through actions like placement or course failure, creates spaces that privilege some students over others. In their article, "Civil Rights and Writing Assessment," Mya Poe and John A. Cogan Jr. (2016) explain, "Students of color and multilingual students are the most likely to face the negative consequences of remediation." The beginning of Perryman-Clark's (2016) article introduces preferences in writing assessment that disenfranchises writers of color and multilingual writers:

Decisions about writing assessment are rooted in racial and linguistic identity; the consequences for many writing assessment decisions are often reflective of the judgments made about who does and does not deserve opportunities for success, opportunities historically denied to students of color and linguistically diverse writers. Put simply, assessment creates or denies opportunity structures (pg. 206).

Her observation is representative of decisions that limit access for students of color and multilingual writers. Through writing assessment, hierarchies that enact power are enforced. There are lessons to be learned by future writing instructors about the consequences in writing assessment towards students of diverse language backgrounds by those who decision-makers, and what methods are subscribed to fortify these hierarchies.

Negative perceptions of multilingual and L2 writers are often associated with the linguistic difference in their writing, making them targets of unfair assessment or denial of opportunity. The hegemonic and its norming and standardization of SEAE reveals itself as it persuades the public that an English-only education is superior. This is evident in the end to bilingual education by Proposition 227 in California in 1998; parents were convinced by the legislature that bilingual instruction delays student's ability to read, write, and speak proper English and would be detrimental children's' future success (Sanchez). Marta Boltadano further explains Proposition 227 and its function as hegemonic and writes, "By converting a skill into a deficit and further stigmatizing it as a learning disability, the hegemonic power of the English-speaking State is extended and preserved" (pg. 251). The norming of SEAE, a hegemonic discourse, has been damaging to multilingual and L2 writers who encounter standardized English in every area of writing assessment. Inoue remarks that operating within a standard, particularly one that benefits decision makers and white monolingual students, colonizes students of color

and multilingual students into a "dominant set of dispositions" (279). Linguistic homogeneity is enforced by hegemonic English-only ideologies and SEAE, and recognizing there is a privileged discourse in composition classrooms may help writing instructors see their own discriminatory practices.

The college composition classroom is informed by linguistic homogeneity and performance of students is measured upon the demonstration of moves within a white dominant discourse. Assessment in the writing classroom is informed by a white dominant discourse; it influences the instructor's assumptions about the student they will teach and the kind of writing they will produce. In his article that argues an approach to linguistic social justice, Jerry Won Lee (2016) observes, "Classroom grading practices have been closely connected to an unchallenged, dominant discursive standard in writing classrooms and programs" (pg. 175). Naturally, these assumptions about students will influence the way students' writing is judged. According to Inoue's discussion about dominant discourses and their connection to the white body, the act of reading and evaluating student's writing is an action in which the instructor envisions the body of the student as much as the language in front of them (pg 52). The assumptions applied to the physical and linguistic difference of multilingual and L2 writers is inseparable, and they are always assessed against a white dominant discourse. Conscious or subconsciously, detrimental decisions are made in the assessment of multilingual and L2 writers upon the assumptions made about their cultural, linguistic, and racial markers, so proposing a resolution towards fair and socially just practices is required.

Moving towards inclusive and fair writing assessment practices in the classroom means estimating how assessment literacy can be used to benefit multilingual and L2 writers. As Perryman-Clark explains, that graduate student writing instructors were not prepared to teach L2

writers, so it is useful to explore how professional development in writing assessment can aid GTAs. Since assessing student writing is a significant part of working with L2 writing, Deborah Crusan, Lia Plakans, and Atta Gebril (2016) conducted a study to better understand second language writing teachers and their knowledge of assessment. In their article "Writing Assessment Literacy," Crusan et. al (2016) surveyed 702 instructors internationally and discovered that there is a connection between teacher preparation, their knowledge about writing assessment, their beliefs, and how they ultimately shape teachers' practices with L2 writers. The philosophy behind why L2 writing teachers should have assessment literacy comes from Wiegler (2007), who shares it will develop an understanding of the "uses and abuses" of language tests (as cited in Crusan et. al, 2016, pg. 45). L2 writing instructors will also acquire writing assessment skills like developing, administering, and scoring writing tests (as cited in Crusan et. al, 2016, pg. 45). Most importantly, informed writing instructors will also be able to "identify good assessment and understand its uses in the classroom," which includes:

Understanding formative and summative assessment, recognizing components of a good paper, appreciating the highly contextualized concept of good writing, and acquiring literacy in the use of data obtained from externally mandated tests (Weigler qtd. in Crusan et. al, 45).

A comforting result of Crusan et al's study revealed that about 80% of the writing instructors responded that they had teacher preparation in assessing writing and supports their research that argues for the "inclusion of assessment in teacher training" (Crusan, 44, 48). Assessment literacy best prepares writing instructors to work with L2 writers, giving a groundwork of information for what detrimental practices exist, better revealing power structures, and helps form writing instruction strategies that embody a socially just approach.

If assessment literacy is acquired, then there is a chance classroom writing assessment can inform future writing instructors pedagogy. Dynamic Assessment (DA) and Assessment as Learning (AaL) are each examples of assessment informed pedagogies that benefit linguistically diverse writers. In their article “Toward a sociocultural approach to feedback provision in L2 writing classrooms,” the authors (2013) argue for DA because of its sociocultural considerations and its collaborative nature. DA also takes into account the importance of feedback for L2 learners as it rewards a process approach to learning, rather than a product approach, while encouraging and consolidating learning for writers (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 1). DA is especially attentive to mediation and scaffolding (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 6). Mediation helps learners by emphasizing “important content, making connections, setting goals, (and) planning” during the writing process and provides the writer with a scaffold for improved independent performance (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 3). In the process of learning important strategies and skills that are challenging, scaffolding allows the instructor to create progressive stages of development to build desired writing outcomes (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5). For instance, scaffolding an assignment would include early stages where an instructor takes responsibility for modeling and explaining the writing task (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5). As the process moves forward, the teacher and student share responsibility as the student learns to approximate the task and the teacher gives constructive feedback (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5). In its final stages, the student moves towards taking most or all of the responsibility for their work (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5). Importantly, during stages of scaffolded instruction, the instructor and student collaborate to illuminate meaning of task expectations, and the instructor guides the writer’s performance in the process through feedback (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5). In the process of scaffolding, a level of negotiation can occur as the instructor gains insights into a learner’s understanding of the task;

using those insights, the course of instruction can alter to “support the development of great competence” (Panahi et. al, 2013, pg. 5).

AaL is likewise used as a student-centered approach to assessment in the classroom and recommended for L2 writers. A main goal of AaL is for the writer to gain autonomy, which is supported through setting learning goals, engaging students as learning resources for one another, negotiation, and metacognitive actions like self-monitoring and self-reflection (Lee pg. 260-61, 66-67). Icy Lee’s promotion of AaL is a strategy for the support of L2 writers and argues against traditional ways that L2 writers are assessed such as summative assessment, criticism of mistakes, and the focus on score (pg. 270). Similarly, Panahi et. al offer DA as a way to encourage the self-esteem of L2 writers, since traditional paradigms focus on symptomatic assessment and a “nature of error feedback” (pg. 4-5). Both Lee and Panahi et. al support assessment literacy for L2 writers (Lee I., 2016; Panahi et.al, 2013). While GTAs begin to gain writing assessment literacy in their teacher preparation courses, it is rarely named as classroom assessment literacy. However, learning about the concepts of scaffolded instruction, utilizing feedback to support students in the writing process, and grading are ways GTAs begin to develop their classroom writing assessment literacy. Writing programs should look for more opportunities to supply GTAs with further professional development as writing assessment literacy can help them devise inclusive practices for not only L2 writers but all students in the classroom.

Conclusion

This chapter has traced linguistic discrimination from society to college composition classrooms. The myth of linguistic homogeneity, the belief in English-only classrooms, has

moved L2 writers out of mainstream composition classrooms and into different spaces than their peers privileged in SEAE. To review, the problem that instigates this research is Perryman-Clark's article where GTAs at WMU practice containment, or the removal, of L2 writers into a WI course even though they are not failing. Therefore, this chapter also reviews the model of GTA preparation for future writing instructors. The literature indicates that graduate programs professionally develop GTAs through orientations, credit-bearing practica in composition pedagogy, apprenticeship and mentorship programs, and writing center work. However, GTA preparation is associated with an institution's local needs and leaves little requirement for discussion or instruction regarding L2 writers. For that reason, I reviewed scholarship on writing assessment and how literacy in classroom writing assessment is a sensible way to support L2 writers and students fluent in the dominant discourse when L2 writing instruction is not integrated through core GTA training. The literature reviewed in this chapter influenced the design of my survey, and why I ask participants questions related to their experiences with L2 writers, their GTA training, and their knowledge and comfort with classroom writing assessment. In Chapter 3, I will further detail how I reached decisions in the methods of my survey study.

Chapter 3: Methods

Introduction

In the previous two chapters, I have observed that L2 writers can be at a disadvantage in college composition classrooms when GTAs inexperienced with practices to support L2 writers are instructing their courses. The value of SEAE and English-only discourse in higher education as well as the tacit belief by writing instructors that students are fluent in the privileged variety of English can lead to practices of exclusion and containment of those that present language different. So, I interrogated the current model of GTA instruction and propose that writing assessment literacy for GTAs is a functional professional development tool to support L2 writers when L2 writing instruction is not apart of required teacher training. Therefore, I have enacted my methodology through a survey method on Qualtrics to gather information from GTAs to answer my research questions. This chapter reviews my research questions and objectives, as well as the choices and decisions made in my research through my methodology. I will also share the IRB process and the limitations of my research. This chapter will also disclose the intentions of my surveys' design and the methods and tools used to analyze the data. Chapter 4 will provide an involved examination of the survey results.

Research Question & Objectives

The central question for my study asks, "What are the perspectives and practices of graduate student writing instructors?" I further focus this question into two guiding research questions in relation to L2 writers and writing assessment: 1. What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors and L2 writers? 2. What knowledge do graduate student

writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment? I attempt to answer these research question in this thesis in order to

- identify what is included in the writing education of GTAs and if that instruction is considerate of L2 writers;
- explore the experiences of GTAs that have or have had L2 writers in their composition classroom;
- understand how GTAs support L2 writers;
- connect if graduate writing education that includes preparation in classroom writing assessment informs better practices with L2 writers in the classroom.

Methodology

As observed in Chapter 2, L2 writing instruction is minimally included in scholarly texts used to train GTAs as they prepare to teach. If GTAs are aware and proactively seek to support L2 writers, that support is typically offered outside of mandatory training required for teaching assistantships like composition theory and pedagogy. For instance, GTAs can learn to support L2 writers in TESOL/ESL course as graduate degree electives. This may appear to be a satisfactory model, particularly for institutions that have minimal L2 learners and writers, but it is important to recognize the repercussions for L2 writing populations if they are absent from discussion in required GTA training. The impact on L2 writers like denial of opportunity and exclusion (Perryman-Clark 2016) is why my methodology is informed by gaining a comprehensive understanding of GTAs writing education and their experiences with L2 writers. I also reviewed literature in Chapter 2 that identifies teacher knowledge of writing assessment, theory and practice, and the positive writing environment it can facilitate for L2 writers (Crusan et. al. 2016,

Lee I. 2016, Panahi et. al 2013). For that reason, my methodology also includes locating if classroom writing assessment education such as designing good writing tasks, rubric design, the concept of scoring and portfolio assessment, student self-assessment as part of evaluating writing, conferencing, and more, are provided for GTAs. Understanding GTA writing education and knowledge of writing assessment creates the basis for answering my research questions: 1. What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors and L2 writers? 2. What knowledge do graduate student writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment? The information to answer these research questions will be gathered through a survey.

My intention to discover if classroom writing assessment education is apart of GTAs training through a survey method is influenced by Crusan et. al's (2016) article "Writing assessment literacy." The authors are prompted by literature that indicates that the field of L2 writing has neglected to prepare L2 writing teachers (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007) and calculate that there is "even less teacher preparation in writing assessment" (Crusan et. al, pg. 44, 2016). Many graduate TESOL programs are absent or do not require a course on writing assessment (Weigle, 2007). As such, Crusan et. al's study (2016) is guided by literature that emphasizes the importance of assessment literacy as an essential teacher tool. Crusan et. al (2016) conducted a 54-item survey for L2 writing instructors to understand what they "currently know, believe, and practice" to evaluate if the presence of absence of writing assessment literacy affects their instruction of L2 writers (pg. 46). Likewise, my methodology is informed by research that also highlights the importance of writing assessment literacy but contextualized for a population of GTAs of composition classrooms that teach monolingual, multilingual, and L2 writers. Whereas Crusan et. al's survey represented an in-depth approach to understand how L2 instructors' knowledge, beliefs, and practices with writing assessment, my survey is broader to capture both

L2 training and writing assessment training. Additionally, given the heavy workload of GTAs during the semester, my survey only had twenty-three questions.

Methods

I constructed a survey (see Appendix A) on Qualtrics, a survey system available to East Carolina University students, to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The goal was to formulate a survey that would not take up too much of the participants time while gathering valuable information, so a total of twenty-three questions are used in the survey. The survey includes twenty-three questions, grouped in sections that gather quantitative data. The sections are as follows:

- Section one is related to background information such as demographics, school affiliation, education, courses taught and course design.
- Section two asks questions about participants' understanding of classroom writing assessment (e.g. designing good writing tasks, scoring rubrics, the concept of portfolio assessment, self-assessment), the types of classroom assessment practices they utilize (e.g. rubric design, conferences, portfolio, written feedback), and their comfort with executing classroom assessment practices.
- Section three asks questions about participants' experiences and comfort instructing and assessing L2 writers.
- Section four contains two prompts with a short-answer space each that asks participants to reflect upon the professional development they received in their graduate program regarding L2 writers and classroom writing assessment, and if they desire additional professional development in these areas and why.

The survey uses a combination of multiple choice, multiple answer, matrix, likert-scale, and short-answer questions to gather quantitative and qualitative data measuring GTAs understanding and comfort of classroom writing assessment, as well as their experiences with L2 writers. I may not have given participants an exhaustive list of choices, therefore questions 2, 4, 9, 10, 19, and 20 have fill-in the blank options (see Appendix X). An example of this option is when I provide the choice “Other” and a fill-in text box when asking participants to name professional development they have received about L2 writers and classroom assessment that may not appear in the traditional choices. These fill-in choices required a certain level of coding and interpretation discussed below.

A qualitative research approach was required for section four of the survey, the two final prompts, that allowed short-answer responses from the participants. On that account, I used a grounded theory research approach to uncover patterns “grounded in information from participants” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The final prompts ask participants to reflect over the following:

(Q22) Discuss what your program did well or did not do well in regards to your preparation in working with: (a) L2 writers (b) instruction on how to provide feedback, evaluate student writing, create writing tasks, the concept of portfolio assessment, and self-assessment strategies for students.

(Q23) Do you think additional professional development around writing assessment would help you better meet the needs of L2 writers in your classroom? Why or why not?

(Appendix A)

These short-answer prompts are framed to permit answers that are open-ended. Creswell (2014) explains that unstructured and open-ended questions in qualitative research are “intended to elicit

views and opinions from the participants” (pg. 190). Q22 and Q23 provided opportunity for the participant to express, in their own words, how they would evaluate the GTA preparation they received concerning L2 writers and classroom writing assessment, as well as voice an opinion for additional professional development they wish to receive in their program. The answers to these questions required interpretation, and I used a grounded theory method to code and reveal emergent patterns; examples of my coding scheme relevant to these questions will be provided later in Chapter 4.

Institutional Review Board

I received approval in February 2018 to move forward with this study through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at East Carolina University (ECU). The Qualtrics survey included an informed consent form (See Appendix B) that shared the purpose and goals of the survey, a timeframe of how long the survey should take to complete, as well as explication that the survey was completely voluntary. The consent form states that this research is overseen by ECU’s IRB staff who may need to review my research data. However, it is also disclosed to the participants that anonymity is enforced because the information provided cannot be traced back to the participant by IRB staff or me. The consent form concludes informing participants of their rights when taking part in the research and provides the phone number for the Office of Research Integrity & Compliance (ORIC) as well as the Director of ORIC’s phone number.

Participants

To gather a more comprehensive understanding of the writing education of GTAs and their experiences with L2 writers, I sought data from participants on a national scale through the

survey created on Qualtrics. I wanted to see how writing programs and the experiences of GTAs vary from different regions of the United States, so to reach this audience I utilized the help of Dr. Nicole I. Caswell (Director of University Writing Centers, Assistant Professor, and director of my thesis committee) to share my survey, along with an email prompt (See Appendix C), on the Writing Program Administrator Listserv (WPA-L). The survey was also circulated by me amongst English MA and PhD GTAs in an email at my home institution of East Carolina University (ECU). While I circulated the Qualtrics survey to my GTA colleagues, I stayed conscious that I wanted to collect data from GTAs nationally and outside of our program. Data and outcomes strictly coming from ECU GTAs would be informed by biased or repetitive results in writing education training, assessment literacy, and encounters with L2 writers, in part because ECU is a Predominately White Institution (PWI). Entering my research, I wanted data from fifty participants. Yet, I concluded with sixteen participants from a total of thirty-seven that started the survey; further details of the participants is provided in Chapter 4 including a breakdown of background and demographic information..

Survey Design

As provided earlier, the survey contains a total of twenty-three questions, and the questions were sectioned for participants in four different ways. Questions one through twenty-one, found in sections one through three, collect quantitative data through multiple choice, multiple-answer, likert-scale, and matrix questions. Whereas, the final and fourth section collects qualitative data from participants' short-answers to the open-ended prompts. Section one contains a mixture of multiple-choice and multiple-answer questions as well as one fill-in question that asks participants questions related to demographic and programmatic information.

For example, you will see in Appendix A, I ask participants to self-identify their gender in Q1 and provide a text-box for their answer; then, Q2 lets participants select their race and ethnicity from standard choices, yet includes a text-box by Other for any response outside of what is listed. The questions proceeded to ask participants about their educational background and asks what degree program they are enrolled in and how long have they been teaching. The questions then try to gain a sense of the participants context, asking questions related to their institution, their graduate program, and the design of their courses.

Sections two and three contained prompts and questions about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers. These include likert-scale, matrix, and multiple-answer questions. Section two specifically asks questions to better understand participants acquired knowledge of classroom writing assessment, the classroom assessment practices they apply in the courses they teach, and their comfort with said classroom writing assessment. Meanwhile, section three focuses on the experiences of participants and L2 writers. Questions ask how likely the participant is to instruct an L2 writer in their class, if they are comfortable when L2 writers are present, and share the thoughts they may have if a L2 writer is in their class from a multiple-answer list. Participants are asked to select classroom assessment strategies they use with L2 writers and to rate their comfort using those practices.

Section four, or the last two prompts of the survey, are open-ended. On the Qualtrics survey, the prompts provide a short-answer text box. As briefly covered in my Methods section, these prompts gave participants room to evaluate the L2 writers and classroom writing assessment training they receive(d) as GTAs and express an opinion on if they wish to receive more professional development about writing assessment from their program. Q22 is a two-part

question, parts A and B, and I will later discuss in Limitations how this may have been better designed as two separate prompts.

Survey Analysis

I closed the survey on Qualtrics after four weeks and exported the results as a spreadsheet to be examined on Google Sheets. Over thirty-seven participants started the survey, but only sixteen participants completed the survey in its entirety. Analysis of the survey data reflected the way these questions were sectioned, so I created four pages for each section of the survey within a Google Sheet document. Each page contained data with from the questions of each respective section. I numbered the participants, and the participants number was appropriately numbered to their survey response on each page. While the first three sections of survey questions and responses gather quantitative data, I could not simply calculate the data provided on the three respective pages. As mentioned earlier, I included fill-in-the-blank or short text boxes to provide space for participants to leave an answer in case the answers present were not an exhaustive. Thus, I chose to print each page of the Google Sheet document to color-code responses of the text boxes manually.

My analysis of section one, the section related to participant background, had seven questions that required coding in order to be quantified. This section was also designed to filter participants because the survey was originally intended to gather data from GTAs only. Q4 that asks “Are you a MA, MS, MFA, or PhD student?” and Q6 “How long have you been teaching?” were designed to gather the degree and experience of the participant. For Q4, I provided a space for participants to fill-in-the-blank with an Other option. I received complete data, meaning they completed the survey entirely, from two participants that selected Other in Q4 and identified

themselves PhD graduates. I considered excluding these participants data from my analysis and results; however, upon reading their answers to the survey's final two short-answer prompts, the participants reflect back significantly on their past GTA writing education. Also, Q3 asked participants to share their current university/school affiliation. On the printed copy of this Google Sheet page with Q3 (Section one), I coded the school affiliation with its US region (e.g. West, Northeast, Southeast, and more). As discussed, the questions in section one proceed to gain a sense of the participants context. Q7 asks participants to name the courses they teach, and I coded the text responses of the courses taught as foundational writing courses and/or disciplinary/upper-level courses. This section also asks how the participant has acquired their knowledge of L2 writers and classroom assessment in the multiple-answer Q9 and Q10. Coding was necessary here as more than half of the participants selected Other and provided a text response.

Sections two and three that contained prompts and questions about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers mainly required data analysis because they were likert-scale, matrix, and multiple-answer questions with minimum fill-in options. Answers to this data has been calculated and measured in Google Sheets. However, there is one multiple-answer question in section three, Q19, that asks the participant how they approach teaching an L2 writer present in their classroom. Q19 provided an option for participants to select Other with a fill-in text box. Some participants selected this choice, and I coded these responses by hand. Further analysis and examples of coding will be discussed on Chapter 4.

The fourth and final section of the survey possessed the final two open-ended prompts, Q22 and Q23, and required a qualitative research approach. Here, participants evaluated their writing program's preparation in writing assessment and L2 writers, and voiced desire to pursue

professional development in these areas. The page of the Google Sheet document was printed with the participant number and their respective replies. Guided by systematic steps from grounded theory research, I analyzed the texts of these responses through open coding that generated categories and subcategories, then axial coding that positioned the categories within a theoretical model (Creswell, 2014, pg 196). Codes that emerged from Q22 are:

- Did well: The participant is confident in the professional development they received in their graduate program
- Not well: The participant feels their program did not adequately prepare them

While Q23 responses are coded:

- Yes: Wants further professional development
- No: Does not want further professional development
- Maybe: Unsure if they want further professional development

I will further discuss and provide examples of the coding scheme I used for this research in Chapter 4.

Limitations

The shortcomings of this research are in large part due to inexperience with the technology used for the survey, Qualtrics, and the lack of foresight in how questions on the survey may be answered or interpreted. First, I started this research with the intention of having at least 50 participants; however, the number of participants that completed the survey is 16 out of 36 that started. I think more participants may have completed the survey, but after looking at the settings of my Qualtrics survey, I realized many questions did not have the “force-response” enabled. I believe this led to the incomplete data of 20 participants I had to eliminate. Second,

there are two participants that I briefly discussed earlier who identified themselves as PhD graduates. As mentioned, I kept data from these participants because their responses demonstrated reflection of their graduate training. The problem that arises in the data from these two participants is that Q3 asks “Current School/University Affiliation” and their survey data cannot necessarily be tied to the institution, I assume, that they are now currently employed. If I anticipated participants who have graduated to reflect on their graduate training, I may have rephrased the question to ask “What university or school is affiliated with your graduate student training?”

Third, I discerned while coding responses in Q19 in section three, a multiple-answer question that asks the participant how they approach teaching a L2 writer if they are present in the room that and provided the option “Other” with a fill-in, that I did not mirror this choice in Q20. Multiple answer Q20 asks “When you realize you have an L2 writer in the classroom, do any of these thoughts run through your mind?” with a list of suggested thoughts, yet I mistakenly left out a “Other” option with a fill-in text box here. If I had included an “Other” option, I think more fulfilling data about the perception of L2 writers could have been gathered. Finally, it appears that Q22 and Q23 of section 4 short answer prompts may have been more clearly written. For instance, in Q22 I ask participants to express what their program did or did not do well in regards to (a) L2 writers and (b) classroom assessment. Many participants answered only one and not both (a) and (b) parts which leads me to believe I should have made these questions separate. However, given these limitations, my survey did provide me data to begin to answer my research questions: 1. What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors and L2 writers? 2. What knowledge do graduate student writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment?

Conclusion

This chapter reiterates my research questions and objectives that serve as the basis for the methods used. I express my methodology and how that influenced the choices in survey design and survey analysis, like the purpose of different sections of the survey and the analysis of those sections data. This chapter explained the IRB process as well as the limitations of my research. I discuss the survey tool used, Qualtrics, to collect data from a total of sixteen participants. I preview emergent codes from the two short-answer prompts of my survey. I will discuss the codes more closely in the next chapter, providing their definitions and examples. Also, Chapter 4 will provide the results of the survey based on data analysis discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

As I reviewed in the last chapter, my research questions seek to understand the perspectives and practices of GTAs with L2 writers and what knowledge do they have of classroom writing assessment. I use a survey method approach for this research to obtain data from participants. The survey is designed in sections to gather quantitative and qualitative data. This chapter provides the results of the survey by giving detailed background information about the participants who completed the survey, and their institutional and teaching context. It also reveals a breakdown of participants' knowledge and how they feel about classroom writing assessment, as well as their experiences, comfort, and feelings about L2 writers. Finally, this chapter discusses the emerging codes from the short-answer responses where participants express opinions on the professional development they received in their graduate writing program about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers, and if they believe they need further professional development in these areas.

Sample Population

Section one of the survey gathered demographic and educational background information from students. Out of 37 participants that started the survey on Qualtrics, sixteen participants completed the survey resulting in a 43.2% completion rate. As addressed in Chapter 3, I was not mindful of making questions force-responsive which results in an "Unidentified" category in background and demographic information. The gender demographic makeup of participants are ten (62.5%) females, four (25%) males, one (6.25%) self-identified transgender male, and one

(6.25%) unidentified gendered participant. The ethnic background include nine (56.25%) White or Caucasian participants, two (12.5%) Black of African Americans, two Middle Eastern (12.5%), one Latino/a (6.25%), and one (6.25%) participant chose “Prefer not to say.” I asked participants for their current university or school affiliation and coded institutions by their region in the US. The regional institution breakdown of participants are five (31.25%) from a southeast school, five (31.25%) from the northeast, three (18.75%) from the midwest, two (12.50%) from the southwest, and one (6.25%) unidentified.

Since my research was targeted towards GTAs, I asked background questions relevant to their degree, teaching status, length of time in their program, and the courses they teach. Out of the sixteen participants, thirteen (81.25%) shared they are currently teaching, one (6.25%) shared they are completing coursework to teach in the next academic year, and two (12.5%) are unidentified. The degree makeup of the participants (N=16) is presented in Table 4.1. As discussed earlier in Chapter 3, I kept data from the PhD graduates because their written responses within the survey demonstrate reflection on their GTA experiences and education; however, the data from these participants may not be relevant to the institution they answered in the survey because I asked for “current institution/school affiliation” and not “what institution/school is affiliated with your graduate education.” Participants were also asked to indicate how many semesters they have been teaching and is shown in Table 4.2. The total number (N=15) in Table 4.2 is fifteen because one participant identified that they are completing coursework to teach in the next academic year.

Table 4.1, Degrees of participants

Degree	N	%
MA	5	31.25

PhD	9	56.25
PhD Graduates	2	12.5

Table 4.2, Semesters taught by participants

Semesters Taught	N	%
1-2	5	33.33
6-10	5	33.33
11+	5	33.33

Participant Context

Section 1 of the survey, the first ten questions of the survey, sought to understand the context of participants. To understand the teaching context of the participants, Q7 asked what courses they teach. Q7 had a fill-in text box if the participant responded with “Yes, I teach,” and responses such as “English 110,” “ENGL 1100,” “FYC sequences,” and “Comp 1 and Comp II” were coded as foundational writing courses, whereas responses like “Technical Communication,” “Professional Report Writing,” and “Engl 410: Intro to Technical Writing” were coded as upper-level or disciplinary writing courses. The participants often provided multiple answers in their text response, and Table 4.3 indicates that culmination of responses. Then, Q8 asks if they are able to design their own course curriculum, if they use a standard syllabus provided by their writing program/department, or if they meet common outcomes by their writing program/department but can modify projects and/or assignments. This was a single-answer question and the data is presented in Table 4.4. Again, one participant is completing

coursework until they teach in the upcoming academic year, therefore data in Table 4.3 and 4.4 are from fifteen participants (N=15) instead of sixteen.

Table 4.3, Composition courses taught by participants

Composition Courses Taught	N	%
Foundational writing courses	13	86.66
Upper-level or disciplinary writing courses	8	53.33
Respondents were asked to write the course(s) they teach and offered multiple answers; as such, the total is more than 100%.		

Table 4.4, Course Curriculum Design

Course Design	N	%
Design own	6	40
Common outcomes, but can modify projects/assignments	9	60

Participant Education

Section one ends by understanding how participants became knowledgeable about L2 writers and classroom writing assessment in their graduate programs. Q9 and Q10 of the survey are multiple answer questions and each included a choice for the participant to select Other with a fill-in text box. For Q9 that asks what kind of professional development the participant received about L2 writers, responses in Other such as “I have not received formal professional development on this topic” and “None” have been coded as “Have not (received professional

development),” and responses like “Previous work with L2 writers” and “Personal Experience” formulated their own category of “Personal Experience/Previous work with L2 writers.” For Q10 that asks what kind of professional development the participant received about classroom writing assessment, many of the participants selected the answers provided (see Appendix #); though, one participant selected Other and said “none” and another participant wrote “attending conferences” and were made into their own categories. I created stacked column charts to show the total responses in Table 4.5 and 4.6 to answers Q9 and Q10 respectively.

Table 4.5, Professional development about L2 writers

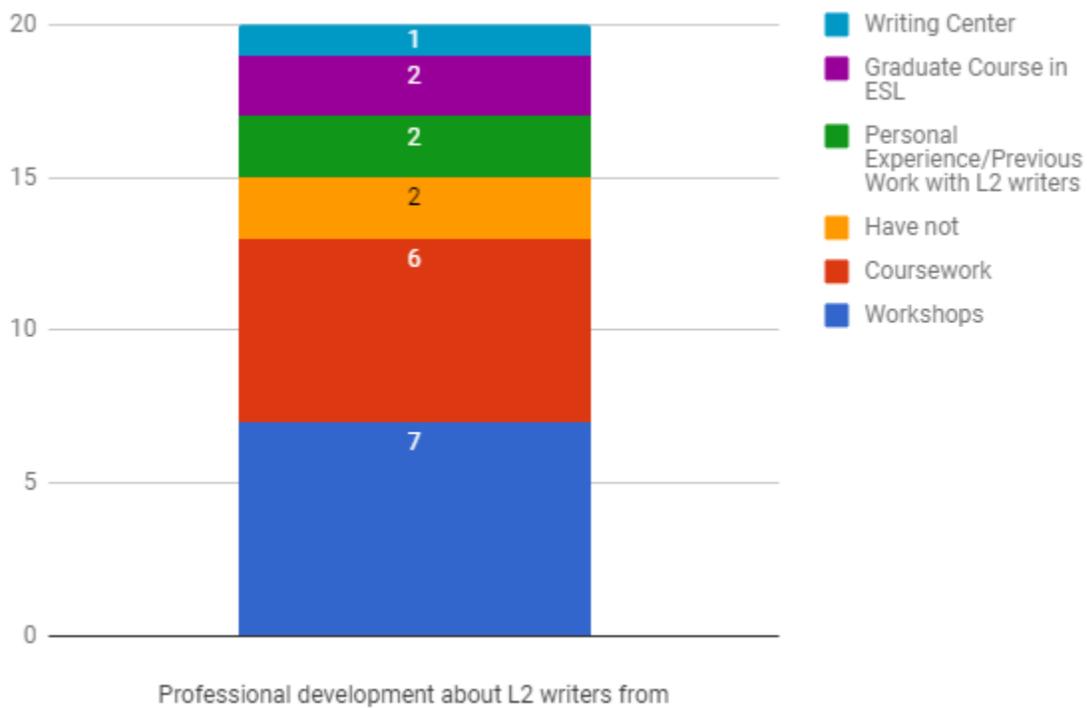
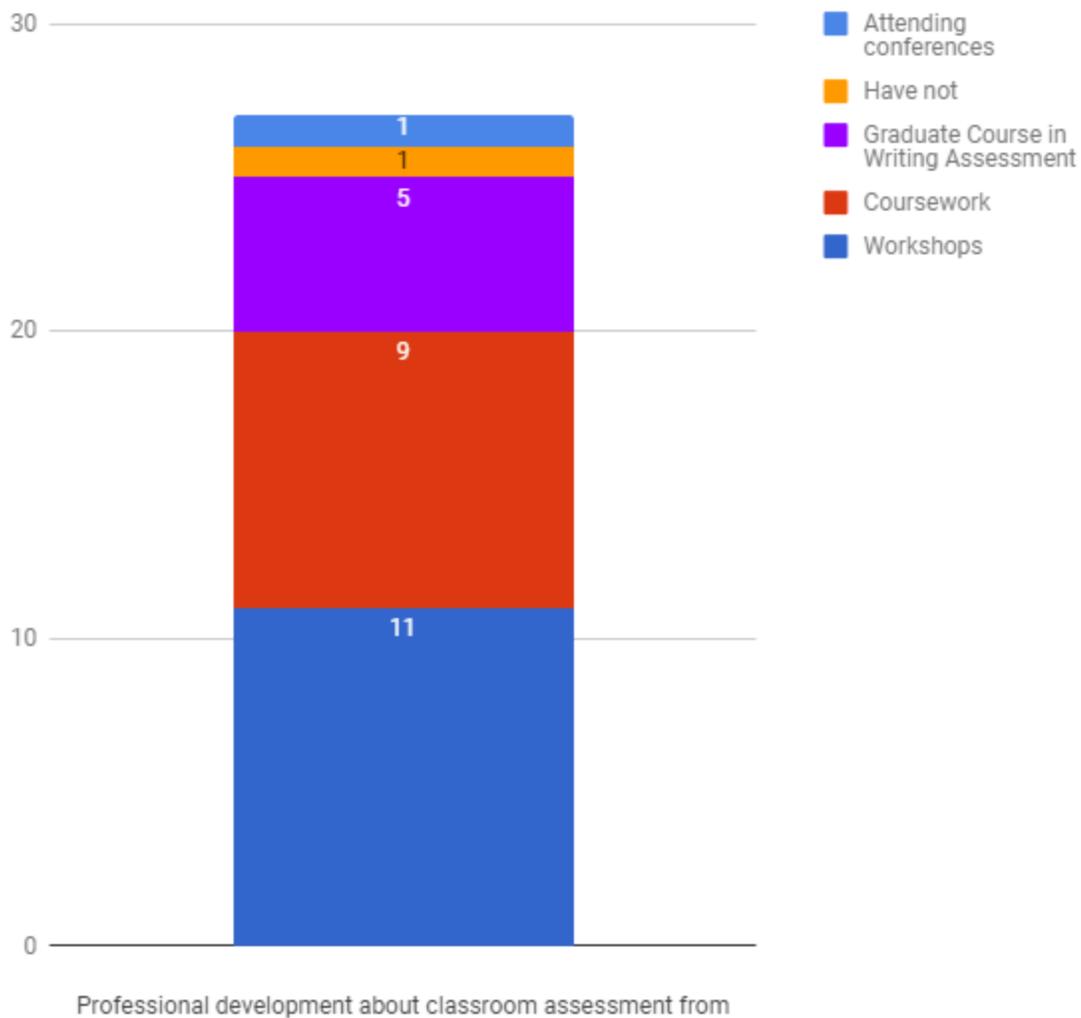


Table 4.6, Professional development about classroom writing assessment



Participants and Classroom Writing Assessment

Section two of the survey, Q11 through Q16, gather data on the participants comfort and knowledge of classroom writing assessment. All sixteen participants responded to this section of the survey. Q11 through Q14 are likert-scale questions that let participants select their comfort and understanding of classroom writing assessment practices like designing good writing tasks, the concept of scoring rubrics, the concept of portfolio assessment, and the concept of self-

assessment as part of evaluating writing. Those responses have been calculated into Table 4.7.

Next, Q15 is a multiple-answer question where participants select the classroom assessment practices they utilize; Table 4.8 visualizes the results as a stacked column chart. The last question of section two, Q16, was a matrix question where participants assigned a weight to their comfort with grading student writing, responding to student writing, creating rubrics, portfolios, and conferences. This data is shown as a stacked bar graph in Table 4.9.

Table 4.7, Comfort and knowledge of classroom writing assessment

Participants’ comfort and knowledge of classroom writing assessment (StA=Strong agree, A=Agree, SoA=Somewhat Agree, SoD=Somewhat Disagree, D=Disagree, StD=Strongly Disagree)

Response Percentages	StA	A	SoA	SoD	D	StD
I know how to design good writing tasks (Q11)	37.5	62.5	0	0	0	0
I understand the concept of scoring rubrics (Q12)	43.75	43.75	12.5	0	0	0
I understand the concept of portfolio assessment (Q13)	43.75	43.75	6.25	6.25	0	0
I understand the concept of self-assessment as part of evaluating writing (Q14)	50	18.75	25	6.25	0	0

Table 4.8, Classroom assessment practices used in classroom

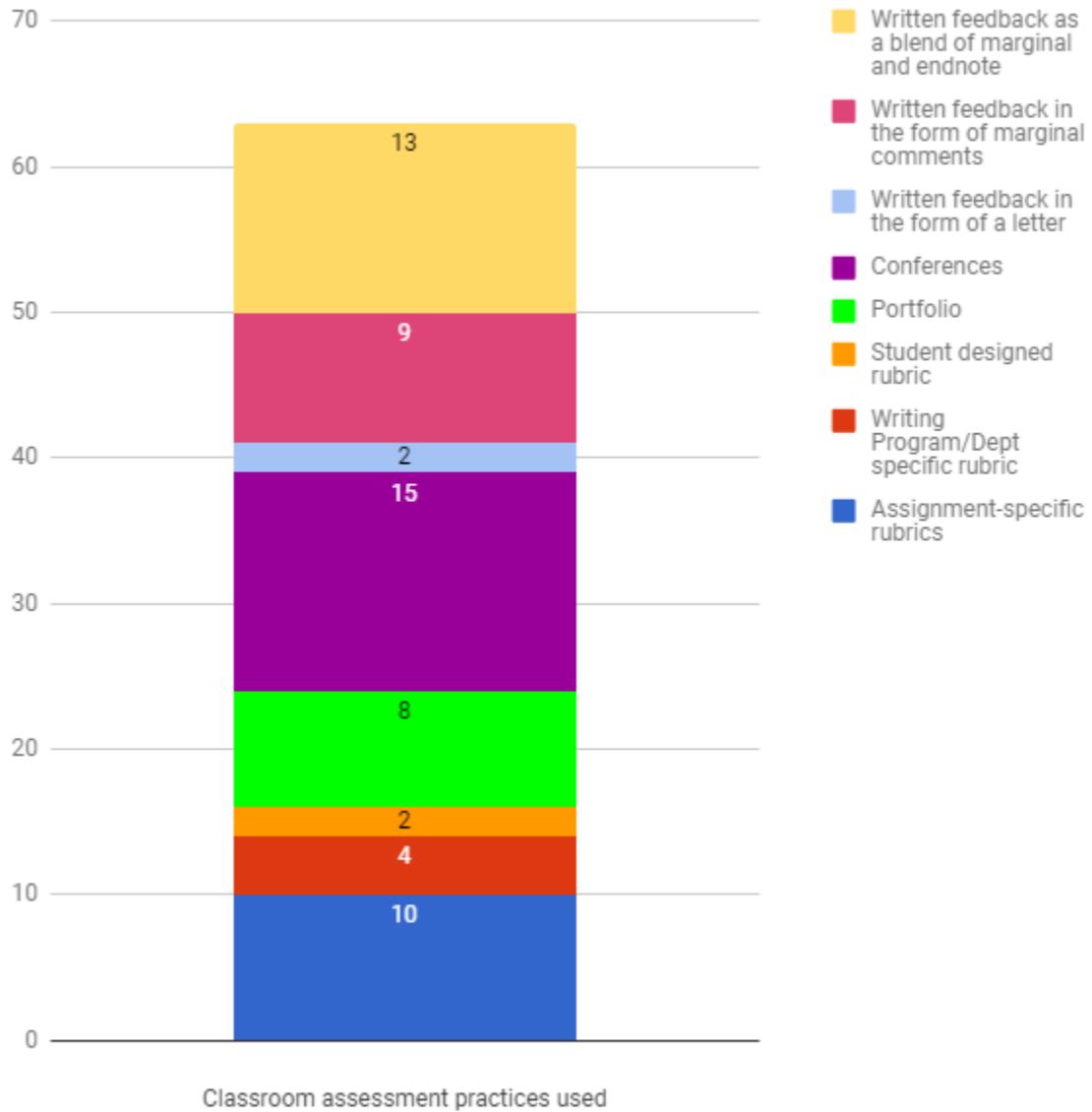
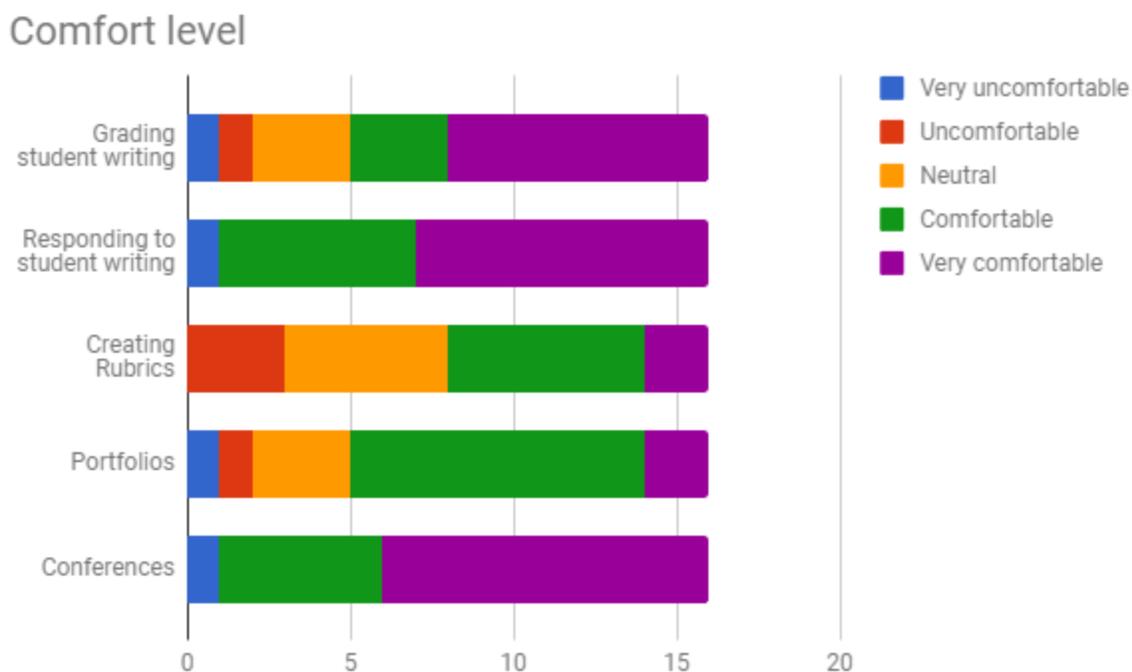


Table 4.9, Comfort level in classroom writing assessment practices



Participants and L2 Writers

Section three of the survey, Q17 through Q21, focuses on participants' encounters, thoughts, practices, and feelings about L2 writers. All sixteen participants responded to this section of the survey. First, Q17 and Q18 are likert-scale questions. Similar to questions in section one that gather an understanding of the participants' teaching context, Q17 asks how likely they are to have an L2 writer in their course. Then, Q18 asks participants if they are comfortable having a L2 writer in their class. The responses from Q17 and Q18 are displayed as percentages in Table 4.10 and 4.11 respectively. Q19 and Q20 are multiple answer questions. Q19 lets participants select different approaches to teaching L2 writers and Q20 participants choose thoughts that may enter their mind when they have a L2 writer present in their classroom. The total answers to Q19 and Q20 are displayed in Table 4.12 and 4.13 as stacked column charts. As mentioned in Chapter 3, I believe Q20 would have been an ideal question to add the choice

Other with a fill-in text box but I did not do so. Lastly, Q21 is a matrix question that ties classroom writing assessment practices and L2 writers together. It mirrors Q16 and asks participants to weigh their comfort with grading L2 student writing, responding to L2 student writing, creating rubrics with L2 writers, and creating rubrics for L2 writers. The results are displayed as a stacked bar chart in Table Table 4.14.

Table 4.10, Likelihood of having L2 writer present in classroom

Response Percentages	EL	ML	SL	SU	MU	EU
How likely are you to have an L2 writer in your course? (Q17)	25	37.5	25	6.25	0	6.25
(EL=Extremely Likely, Moderately Likely=ML, SL=Somewhat Likely, SU=Somewhat Unlikely, MU=Moderately Unlikely, EU=Extremely Unlikely)						

Table 4.11, Comfort having a L2 writer present in classroom

Response Percentages	StA	A	SoA	SoD	D	SD
Are you comfortable having a L2 writer in your classroom? (Q18)	56.25	25	12.5	6.25	0	0
(StA=Strong agree, A=Agree, SoA=Somewhat Agree, SoD=Somewhat Disagree, D=Disagree, StD=Strongly Disagree)						

Table 4.12, Approaches to teaching L2 writers

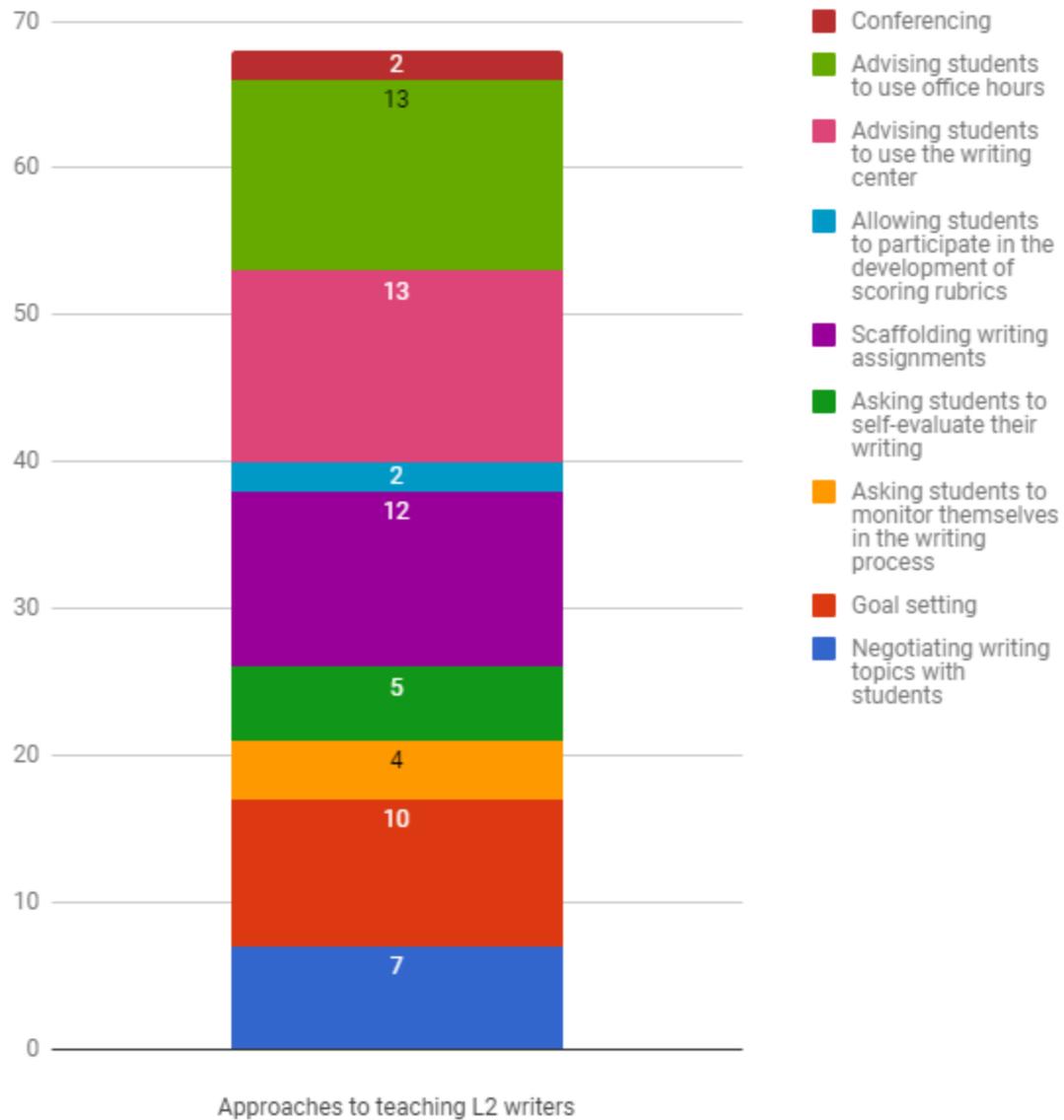


Table 4.13, Thoughts on having a L2 writer in the classroom

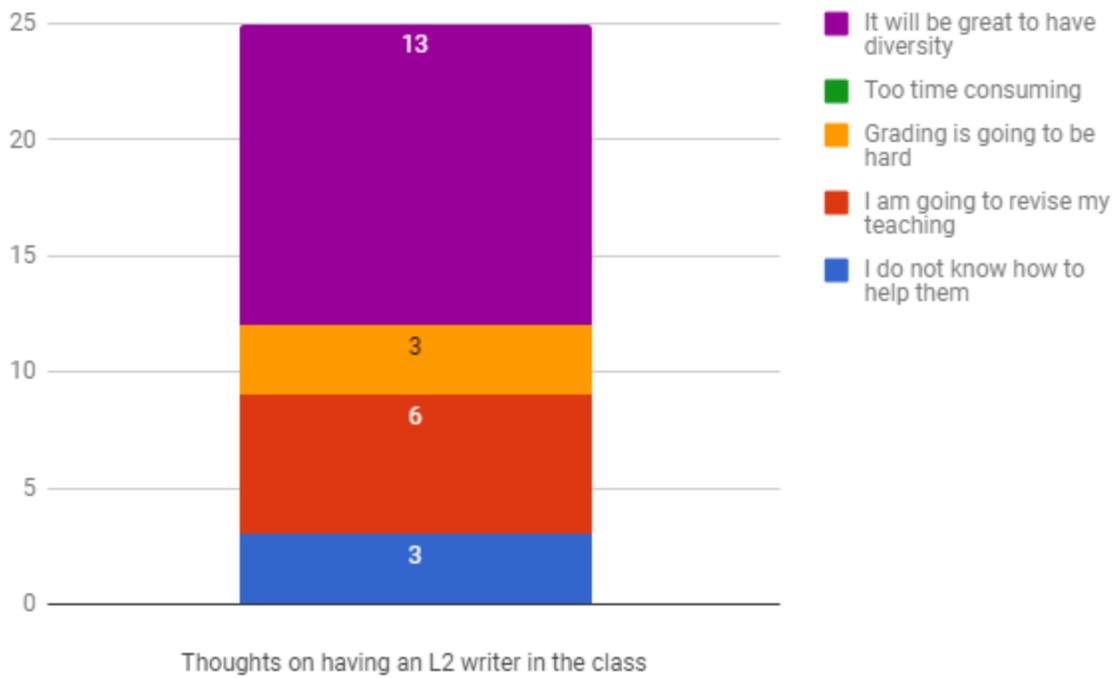
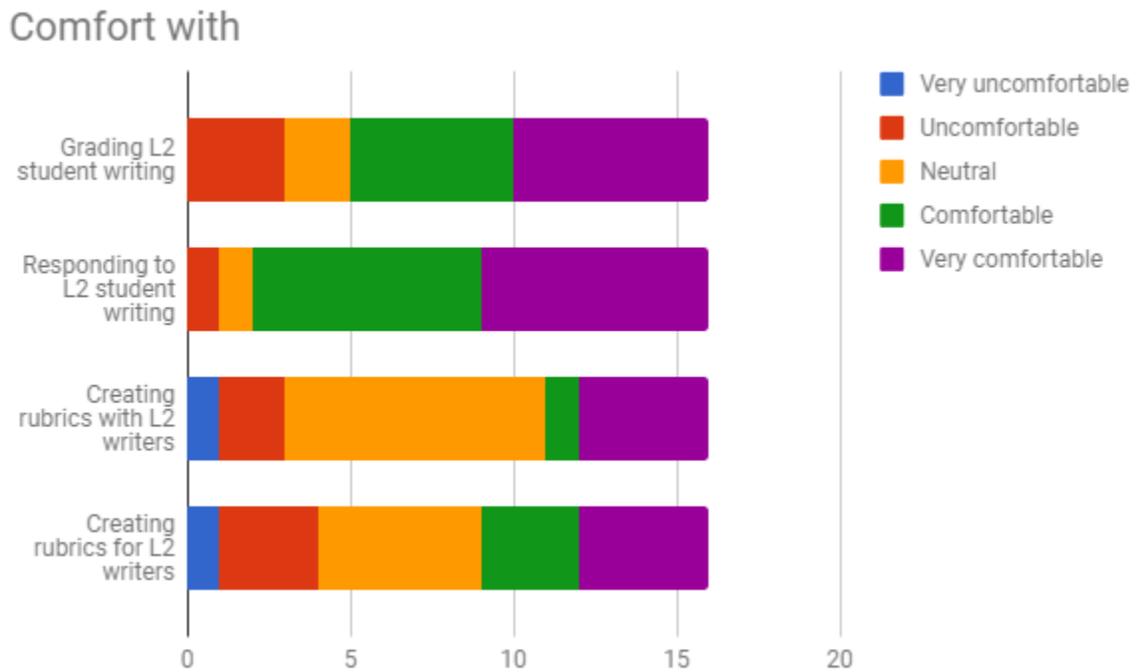


Table 4.14, Comfort level in classroom writing assessment practices with L2 writers



Participant Reflections

Coding Scheme

Section four of the survey, the final two prompts (Q23 and Q24), asked participants to reflect upon the professional development they received in their graduate programs. The responses to these prompts were open-ended, and I used grounded theory to find emergent patterns. As I will soon discuss, a few participants only partially answered Q22 which is a two-part question. Also, not all sixteen participants respond to Q22 and Q23, and I will show that breakdown in the following Results section. To code participants' answers, I read the responses to Q23 and Q24 multiple times to get the best understanding of the participant's reflection as possible. Codes, definition of codes, and an example of codes for these prompts are in Table 4.15 and 4.16.

Table 4.15, Definition and examples of codes (Q22)

Code	Definition of Code	Example of Code
Did well	The participant is confident in the professional development they received in their graduate program	“I felt adequately prepared to work with L2 students who ended up in my class. Those with extensive needs participated in specialized sections, so most of my students functioned with a high level of written and spoken English. I did wonder how to address grammar concerns– I evaluated student ideas and only addressed obvious patterns of error, but didn't know where or if students were receiving the support they might need for bringing their written English to a professional level in that regard.”
Not well	The participant feels their program did	“I do not believe that my program

	not adequately prepare them	has prepared me for working with L2 writers. I hope to take it amongst myself to increase my understanding of how to help L2 writers in my composition classroom.“
This table present codes for Q22: Discuss what your program did well or did not do well in regards to your preparation in working with: (a) L2 writers (b) instruction on how to provide feedback, evaluate student writing, create writing tasks, the concept of portfolio assessment, and self-assessment strategies for students.		

Table 4.16, Definition and examples of codes (Q23)

Code	Definition of Code	Example of Code
Yes	Wants further professional development	“YES. Because it would help create a more inclusive equitable learning environment.”
No	Does not want further professional development	“I feel pretty confident in it, although I would always benefit from learning more. But I think my department would definitely benefit from providing more training for instructors. . .”
Maybe	Unsure if they want further professional development	“i am not sure. we are trying to move away from categorizing L2 writers as fundamentally different from other writers, as if they are marked in some way. multilingual is the world standard.”
This table presents codes for Q23: Do you think additional professional development around writing assessment would help you better meet the needs of L2 writers in your classroom? Why or why not?		

Unfortunately, the return rate on responses to Q22 and Q23 is not as significant as other sections of the survey. A total of ten (62.5%) participants responded to Q22 while thirteen (81.25%) participants responded to Q23. As I acknowledged in Chapter 3, one of the limitations with Q22 is that it is a two-part question and participants often partially answered. Therefore, a

large overarching pattern emerged while coding: (A) they responded to their program's professional development regarding L2 writers, and (B) means they responded to their program's professional development in classroom writing assessment. For the participants that answered A and B, I coded those parts of the question separately with "Did well" or "Not well." For example, one participant states, "My institution did quite well by providing graduate students an elective on Writing Assessment--not so much with L2 writing pedagogy or assessment, though." This response is coded two ways; the participant explains there was little or no professional development about L2 writers (A=Not well), though there is a course in their program that covers writing assessment (B=Did well).

Another large category came from reading responses to Q23. Q23 is a question to let participants openly self-reflect if they would like to receive more professional development in writing assessment to better aid L2 writers (Appendix #). Interestingly, the participants that answer no they do not further training for themselves perceive that other instructors in their program require professional development in this area. One participant writes:

I am pleased with the amount of knowledge I have of teaching L2 writers. Being a multilingual writer myself helps me be prepared to teach L2 writers. For other professors, I think that more workshops are needed. They need to be exposed to materials that deal with L2 writers and their emotions, (e.g., Motha's book and Gloria Park's recent book).

As such, the larger code that came from this type of response is "Self" and "Others;" the example just provided is coded as Self=No, Others=Yes.

Results

Again, sixteen participants completed most or all parts of sections one, two, and three, but the completion rate was lower for Q22 and Q22. Table 4.16 reflects participant responses

(N=10) as a bar chart to Q22, while Table 4.17 shows participant responses (N=13) as a stacked bar chart to Q23.

Table 4.16, Opinion of graduate program professional development

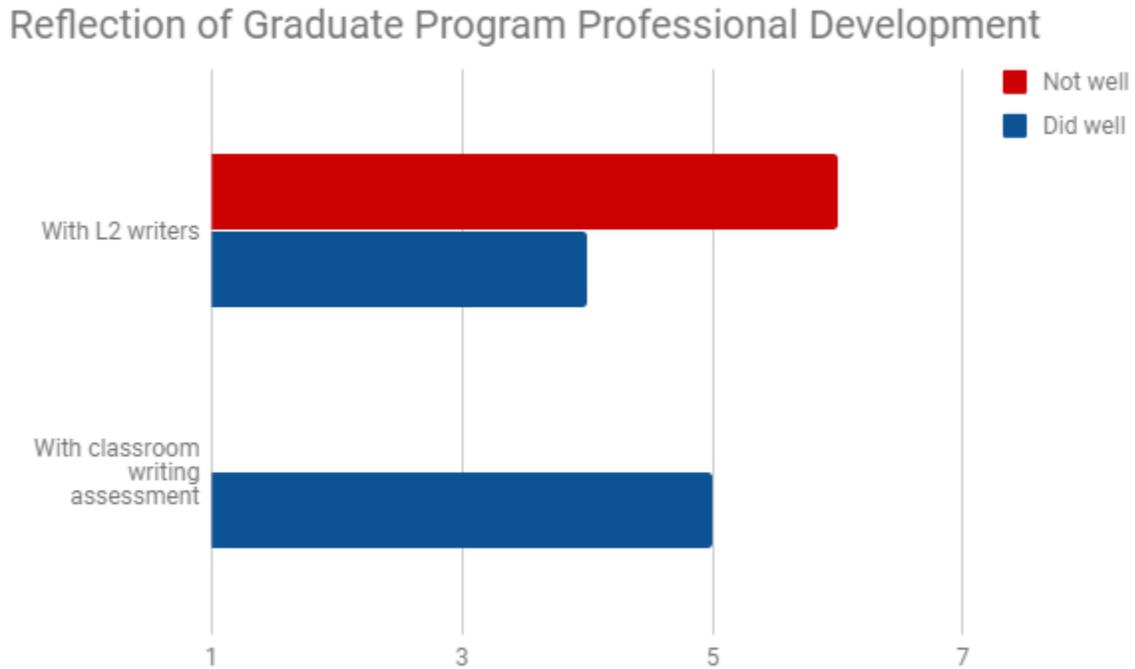
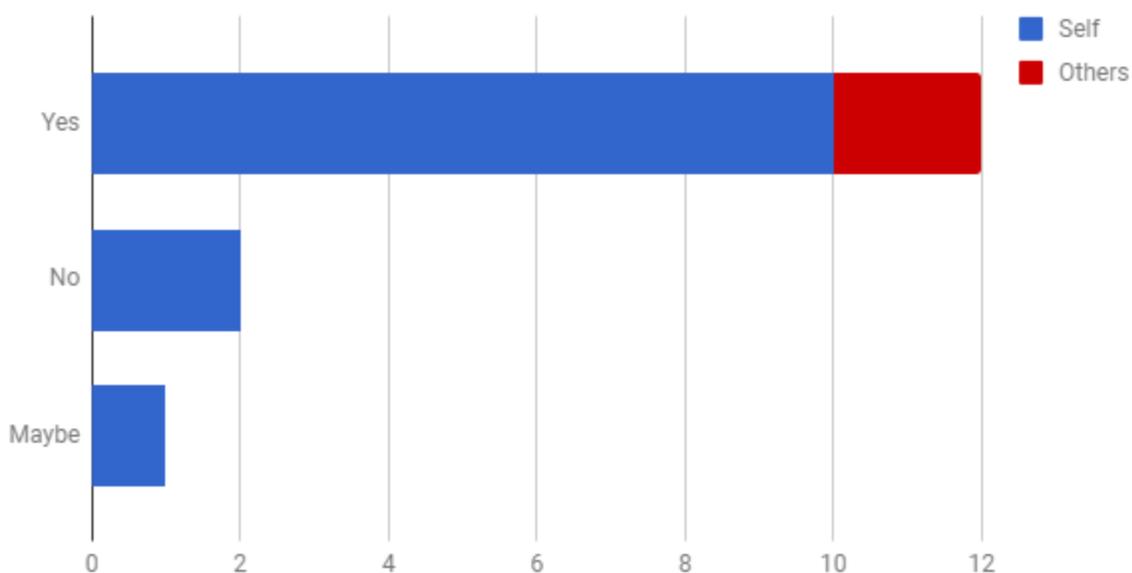


Table 4.17, Desire for further professional development to support L2 writers

Participant would like further professional development in classroom writing assessment to support L2 writers



Conclusion

In this chapter, I shared the results from each section of the survey. The data reveals that GTAs at various institutions, in different places in their graduate career, and with diverse teaching experiences participated in the survey. The results reveal that participants education about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers comes from significantly from workshops first and then coursework. Participants also express a high degree of comfort and knowledge in different areas of writing assessment and utilize different strategies in their classroom. Their response to having a L2 writer in the classroom is also overwhelmingly positive, many selecting that it “will be great to have diversity.” But while many participants express they are comfortable having a L2 writer in the class and use different techniques to support them, the data shows more neutrality and discomfort when it comes to grading and creating rubrics for L2 writers. The participants also share that they desire more from their writing program to support them in

classroom writing assessment and in the writing instruction and assessment of L2 writers, many expressing a desire for professional development in these areas. In Chapter 5, I will discuss the implications of these results as they relate to my research questions and explore what further research can be done.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

In this final chapter, I use the survey results from Chapter 4 to answer my research questions. This chapter further analyzes how GTAs have become knowledgeable about classroom writing assessment and L2 writers, what practices they use in their composition classrooms, and their comfort engaging with the two. More importantly, this chapter elaborates on the feelings GTAs have about the training they have received in their graduate writing programs and why they wish to receive further professional development to support L2 writers. In the conclusion of this chapter, I also address further research and discuss the implications of the survey data.

Summary of Data

Chapter 4 supplied a breakdown of the results from each section of the Qualtrics survey. Out of thirty-seven participants that began the survey, data from sixteen participants was analyzed because they completed the survey nearly in full. I explained that because I did not make all questions force-responsive, participants skipped certain questions related to gender and institutional affiliation and returned data as unidentified. My participants included over fifty-percent PhD students, roughly thirty-percent MA students, and the remaining as PhD graduates. Between the fifteen participants that shared they are currently teaching, one-third have taught between 1-2 semester, one-third have taught 6-10 semesters, and one-third have taught 11 plus semesters. Nearly ninety-percent of the participants teach foundational writing classes and over fifty-percent teach upper-level or disciplinary writing courses. The survey revealed forty-percent

of participants design their own course, whereas sixty-percent utilize common outcomes but can modify projects and/or assignments.

Results from the survey also revealed that the majority of participants received professional development about writing assessment and L2 writers from coursework and workshops: 65% received it from these areas about L2 writers and 74% received it from these areas about classroom writing assessment. Comfort and knowledge related to classroom writing assessment is mainly positive, and participants utilize a diversity of classroom writing assessment strategies with all students. However, the data reveals less confidence in the use of classroom writing assessment approaches with L2 writers. These areas will be further discussed in the following implications sections. Finally, participants shared overwhelming feelings that more could be done within their graduate programs to prepare them to work with L2 writers and that they would like to receive more professional development in this area.

Writing Assessment Literacy

Writing assessment is a part of every college composition classroom, thought of principally through functions of grading, feedback, and use of rubrics. However, classroom writing assessment can be understood as more than that. The scholarship I have reviewed in Chapter 2 and below looks closer at the functions of classroom writing assessment and how deeper knowledge of assessment provides strategies in the writing development of all writers. Scholarship indicates that working knowledge of classroom writing assessment practices includes crafting good writing assignments, constructing assignment specific rubrics, portfolios as formative assessment, self-assessment, and understanding what type of feedback will support a student's needs at different stages of the writing process (Crusan 2010; Lee I. 2016; Panahi et.

al 2013). For instructors, becoming literate in classroom assessment practices will enable them to align activities, processes, and assignments with course goals and outcomes. Writing assessment literacy also allows instructors to distinguish between formative assessment that is linked to instruction and feedback provided to the student in the process of their writing and summative assessment where writing is evaluated as a product of knowledge and provided a final grade (Crusan, 2010, pg. 56). As such, writing assessment literacy broadens the possibilities for writing instructors to critically engage with their students and the assessment practices they already use in the composition classroom.

GTAs may become familiar with classroom writing assessment tools through teaching preparation as they enter teaching assistantships because these practices are beneficial for all students. Crusan (2010) writes, “Without the ability to assess writing, to notice good writing, to understand what we are saying and what we are meaning to say, we, as teachers and writers, sacrifice a valuable avenue of communication” (pg. 9). When GTAs have developed their classroom writing assessment literacy, they are better able to understand when, why, and how to use the classroom assessment tools they are familiar with from their teaching preparation programs. Based on the data from the survey, GTA participants currently seem uninformed about how they can apply different approaches of classroom writing assessment in their classrooms, especially for L2 writers. I address self-claimed strengths, problem areas, or gaps of knowledge in these approaches based on the data from GTA participants in the following sections and describe why a writing assessment literacy approach helps all writers, including L2 writers, in the college composition classroom.

Classroom Writing Assessment

One of my guiding research questions for my thesis is: What knowledge do graduate student writing instructors have of classroom writing assessment? Overall, the quantitative data from Chapter 4 suggests that participants believe themselves to have literacy in classroom writing assessment and have been supported in their GTA programs. Many of them rate their comfort and knowledge highly with different classroom writing assessment practices like designing good writing tasks, the concept of scoring rubrics, and the concept of portfolio assessment. Designing good writing assignments provides clarity and sets task expectations for students and are best paired with an assignment specific rubric that further articulates assignment objectives and demonstrates how the student will be evaluated (Crusan, 2010 pg. 44, 50). Likewise, a writer's growth is evident in portfolio assessment, acknowledging and supporting writing as a process (Crusan, 2010, pg. 79). Confidence in classroom writing assessment practices minimizes for participants in their understanding the concept of self-assessment as a part of evaluating writing. The GTAs surveyed reported a sense of being unaware of the benefits of self-assessment and how it helps students "develop ownership of their writing" like their goals, audience awareness, content, research process, and what they believe are their strengths and weaknesses (Lee, I. 2016, pg. 268).

Data in Chapter 4 further demonstrates that participants use various classroom assessment practices like written feedback as a blend of marginal and endnote, written feedback in the form of comments, conferences, portfolios, and assignment-specific rubrics. However, participants are least likely to use practices like written feedback in the form of a letter and student designed rubrics. GTA participants give the impression that they utilize a combination of feedback methods. One method of feedback is conferences, and conferences are a mode of

response between an instructor and student where students can express thoughts, questions, and concerns related to their writing at any stage in the writing process, and the instructor can prompt learning by asking students questions. The written response practices — marginal, endnote, and comments — used by the surveyed GTAs can function in positive ways such as giving an example of how an idea may be better written for clarity, asking questions to inspire critical thinking, or praise for an idea. However, the same written response practices used by GTAs can possibly be more negative for student learning by focusing solely on errors, and being overly corrective or vague (Panahi et. al, 2013).

Survey data indicates that participants show the most comfort in performing conferences, grading student writing, and responding to student writing than creating rubrics and utilizing portfolios. Creating rubrics appears to be a daunting task for GTAs. It is also worth acknowledging that writing programs, like the one at ECU, may require GTAs to use a standard rubric for assignments for assessment purposes so practice in rubric design from lack of experience may explain participants' discomfort. However, collaborating with students in rubric creation is powerful because areas of a task that may be confusing “can be recognized, wording clarified or simplified, and meanings illuminated” (Crusan, 2010, pg. 44). For example, writing instructors can provide a base rubric for students, and students can become involved in the process by brainstorming categories and criteria with the class that works in conjunction with the assignment. Students will likely be more invested in the task because of their input and efforts of negotiation while removing doubts of the assignment's expectations (Crusan, 2010, pg. 44). If the programmatic context of the GTA allows, student-designed rubrics can alleviate the effort of designing a rubric themselves, while engaging students in learning and how they are assessed.

The majority of participants disclose in the short-answer questions of the survey that their graduate program did well in their professional development with classroom writing assessment, further supporting they feel knowledgeable in the area. One participant shares:

Each week, all instructors for the same course meet to discuss feedback and evaluation, and we have annual program assessment which pulls a random sample of writing from each section of that course. We received a lot of training on how to conduct those assessments.

This participant's program pursues training in the evaluating of writing on a continuous basis. As stated earlier in Summary of Data, participants indicated that they received professional development in classroom writing assessment in majority from workshops, coursework, and/or a graduate course in writing assessment. This participant's program does well in forming assessment literacy for their teaching assistants and building their confidence by providing training in feedback and the evaluation of writing, but there is little to indicate how they are supported in other important areas like scaffolding, creating good writing tasks, self-assessment, rubric design, and the use of portfolios.

L2 Writers

The other guiding research question of my thesis is: What are the experiences of graduate student writing instructors and L2 writers? The quantitative data concerning L2 writers reveals interesting results. First, the ratings for how likely a participant is to have a L2 writer in their class is strongest in "moderately likely," though the answers to this question are widespread and not definitive ranging in responses from extremely likely to extremely unlikely. Granted, participants strongly express that they would be comfortable having a L2 writer in their

classroom. The strategies used by participants most frequently to teach L2 writers are advising students to use office hours, advising students to use the writing center, scaffolding writing assignments, goal setting, and negotiating writing topics with students. What is important to note here is that while directing students to the writing center is a common practice for writing instructors, it could indicate a deficiency in how the GTA feels about instructing an L2 writer. The approaches participants use less commonly with L2 writers are conferencing, allowing students to participate in the development of scoring rubrics, asking students to self-evaluate their writing, and asking students to monitor themselves in the writing process. Unfortunately, these assessment strategies are strongly advocated for in the writing instruction of L2 writers (Crusan 2010; Inoue 2015; Lee, I. 2016, Panahi et. al, 2013), and GTA participants may be unaware of how they can be facilitated in classroom instruction to support them. GTA participants that appear to redirect L2 writers to the writing center instead of working with them one-on-one may need to build confidence in their own ability to provide L2 writers feedback. Otherwise, GTAs are enacting Othering discussed earlier in Chapter 2 towards those that present language difference by ushering them towards alternative spaces for support. In these situations, instead of modifying composition classroom instruction to better suit the needs of L2 writers, L2 writers become the designated responsibility of others in spaces like remedial English language courses, intensive English programs, and writing labs/clinics/centers (Matsuda, 2006).

Additional results from the survey demonstrate thoughts on the presence of L2 writers in the classroom as well as their comfort assessing them. The data reveals participants have or will have positive thoughts if a L2 writer were present in their classroom, thirteen (52%) selecting they think “it will be great to have diversity” and six (24%) reflect that they will revise their teaching. No participants selected that having a L2 writer in the class would be “too time

consuming,” but three (12%) acknowledged grading would be difficult. Three (12%) participants even admit, “I do not know how to help them.” This data aligns with answers to Q21 of the survey (See Appendix A) in which participants answered that they are comfortable grading (68%) and responding (87.5%) to L2 writing. While the participant may initially welcome the thought or prospect the diversity a L2 writer will bring to the composition classroom, they are not necessarily convinced that writing instruction or assessment of their writing will come as easily.

Therefore, professional development about L2 writers should be considered as a reason for participants’ hesitation that L2 writers’ grading will be difficult or that they do not know how to help them. The short-answer responses from the final two prompts of the survey disclose participants’ thoughts and feelings about L2 writing instruction in their graduate program. One PhD of English participant from St. John’s University reveals that despite the large L2 population on their campus that her program “did not prepare us at all for working with or teaching L2 writers.” This information is alarming since the literature on training GTAs shared in Chapter 2 revealed that programs most commonly focus on the local needs of the institution. Next, a PhD student from Clemson University explains that she relies primarily on her experiences with L2 methods and approaches from her MA program, learned from Writing Center training, theoretical readings, and personal experiences with L2 writers because she has not received L2 writer support training from her PhD program. The participant from Clemson provides insight as to how L2 writer support can be better integrated by comparing her MA and PhD program.

Then, a PhD student from the University of Delaware shares that her institution has a FYC course for L2 writers, but that the training for GTAs who teach this course is “minimal”

and has led to concerns about learning outcomes for L2 writers. When GTAs are expected to teach a composition course composed of L2 writers but are not adequately trained nor provided insight on how L2 FYC course learning outcomes align with a mainstream FYC course, the graduate program fails to set up GTAs and their L2 writers for success. Another participant from Texas Tech University English MA program directly states, “Instructors were on their own to figure out how to respond to L2 writers.” This statement echoes another graduate student from ECU who writes that he does not feel his program has prepared him to work with L2 writers, but desires to take it upon himself to increase his understanding of how to help L2 writers in his composition classroom. The statements from these GTAs share a sense of unhappiness and frustration with the lack of resources and support in their graduate program to teach and evaluate the writing of L2 writers. This may explain the sense of helplessness and insecurity GTAs anticipate or feel when engaging with L2 writers. However, it is clear that some GTAs wish to take initiative to not only better themselves by becoming more knowledgeable about L2 writers and ways to assist them, but more importantly for the sake of the writing education of their L2 students.

Strengthening Professional Development

Reflections from GTAs reveal a desire to receive further professional development around writing assessment to better meet the needs of L2 writers in their classrooms. One-hundred percent of GTAs shared their wish to receive training to support L2 writers for themselves, for others in their program like their GTA colleagues and faculty, and for the benefit of their students. Reasons why participants wish to receive further professional development around writing assessment to support L2 writers includes:

- Creating writing tasks for L2 students that reflect the larger writing outcomes of the program
- Learning how to better scaffold assignments
- Understanding areas of difficulty that are most common and how to address those concerns
- Learning how to offer more assistance to their L2 students
- Creating a more inclusive equitable learning environment

Even the two participants that reflect that they are pleased with the knowledge they have of classroom writing assessment and L2 writers and do not believe they personally need any further professional development in the area explain, “I think my department would definitely benefit from providing more training for instructors” and “For other instructors, I think that more workshops are needed.” Participants are cognizant that greater efforts should be afforded to GTAs in their training to better meet the writing needs of their L2 writers.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the data from GTA participants reveals they have received professional development in classroom writing assessment and consider themselves knowledgeable, demonstrating that they utilize different assessment approaches in their composition classrooms. They have learned about classroom writing assessment from workshops, coursework, and/or a graduate course in writing assessment. While the participants feel confident in classroom writing assessment, there appears to be a lack of insight that classroom writing assessment practices like creating good writing tasks, negotiating writing topics, scaffolding assignments, conferencing, asking student to self-evaluate their writing and/or monitor themselves in the writing process. Practices like self-assessment and utilizing different feedback methods appropriate for the needs of a writer are criteria in Dynamic Assessment (DA)

and Assessment as Learning (AaL) (Lee I., 2016; Panahi et. al, 2013) that fundamentally supports L2 writers as much as it does students fluent in the dominant discourse. Based on the standard model that is used to train GTAs in which L2 writing instruction exists outside of required coursework to become an instructor (e.g. TESOL/ESL elective courses), it would be wise of graduate programs to integrate and endorse writing assessment literacy as a tool to support both L2 and monolingual writers.

One PhD student from the University of Wisconsin-Madison (UWM) shares two important points. She writes, “I think we should integrate L2 instruction more thoroughly. It seems like an afterthought.” This participant shares an ideal situation in which L2 writing instruction is woven throughout GTA training, but unfortunately the reality is that GTA teacher training models like required coursework in composition pedagogy are compacted with pedagogical theory that largely benefits mainstream student fluent in the dominant discourse. This highlights the second point the GTA of UWM makes: that L2 writers feel like an afterthought. Integrating L2 writers into the conversation and instruction of classroom writing assessment GTAs currently receive will leave GTAs less confused about the practices and tools they possess that support L2 writers. Studies have demonstrated that understanding assessment aids L2 writers in the classroom (Crusan 2010; Crusan et. al, 2016, Lee I., 2016; Panahi et. al, 2013) because it moves away from traditional, overly critical teaching paradigms. The impression from the survey results is that GTAs are already knowledgeable in classroom writing assessment practices. As such, graduate English programs must make beneficial tools provided by classroom writing assessment literacy visible in how they aid both monolingual and L2 writers in the systems they use for classroom writing assessment professional development (e.g. workshops, coursework, graduate writing assessment courses).

The 2009 Conference on College Composition & Communication (CCCC) Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers possesses a strong framework for writing programs and consideration for L2 writers, specifically paradigms for teacher preparation. The statement acknowledges that L2 writers should be instructed by someone who is “able to identify and is prepared to address (their) linguistic and cultural needs” (“CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers, para. 10). CCCC’s 2009 statement suggests how teacher preparation on L2 writers can be built into writing programs:

Second language writing should be integrated throughout the professional preparation and development programs of all writing teachers, whether that be through a practicum experience, through WAC workshops, or through writing center training. (para. 19)

I agree with 2009 CCCC’s statement and the precedence that including L2 writers and their writing education in teacher preparation is required. Realistically, survey participants are aware that their writing program’s teacher preparation rarely includes L2 instruction in their professional development. However, GTAs learn and/or are given the opportunity to learn about classroom writing assessment from their graduate programs. For instance, ECU may not presently receive L2 writer education in their required training and coursework, but they are receiving opportunities to train in classroom writing assessment practices like providing feedback and working with diverse students in writing center training, workshops about assessment (e.g. feedback, metacognition), graduate course in writing assessment, and practicum experience. Therefore, I namely argue that because classroom assessment literacy improves writing instruction for L2 writers and is more available to GTAs, that when graduate English programs include classroom writing assessment instruction in its various forms, that trainers assure future instructors of its value for L2, multilingual, and monolingual writers.

The 2009 CCCC's Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers exemplifies guidelines on how L2 writer support can be thoroughly integrated in teacher preparation. One of the first suggestions is having future instructors become self-reflective in the "pedagogical assumptions that inform their practices" (para. 19). GTAs develop pedagogical self-awareness through coursework in pedagogy and composition, helping future instructors understand their perceptions of good writing and how they critique it. The 2009 CCCC statement proceeds to explain that preparation should inform future instructors about the "cultural beliefs related to writing" because L2 writers most often come from backgrounds where writing is formed by different linguistic and cultural features (para. 20). Learning how cultural beliefs inform writing can be integrated in pedagogy and composition coursework as well as writing center training. The early suggestions in the 2009 CCCC statement can be easily integrated into GTA professional development if they are not already.

Next, the 2009 CCCC's statement provides suggestions for assignment design and responding to L2 writing; all examples suggests a future writing instructor be more literate in classroom writing assessment. For example, under Assignments the 2009 CCCC statement explains that if L2 writers are present, writing assignments should keep the L2 writer in mind and remove cultural assumptions or what may be considered tacit knowledge, be written as clearly as possible for multiple audiences to understand, and scaffolded (para. 21). The Response section observes that reading L2 writing may take more time to "hear" what the writer is communicating, therefore instructors are encouraged to conference with their L2 writers to approach global issues first, and then local issues (para. 22). The statement supports that future instructors should learn that while L2 writing can "violate (the) aesthetic expectations for academic English," feedback should be prioritized under the hierarchy of writing concerns and

observe rhetorically effective features and “prioritize two or three mechanical or stylistic issues” the L2 writer can focus on for the rest of the course (para 22.). The statement advises, “Teacher preparation should include discussion on how response tools, such as rubrics, conferencing, might consider these differences” (para. 22). While the 2009 CCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers does not explicitly state that a teacher be literate in classroom writing assessment to support L2 writers, I reason that it implies as much because it encourages teacher preparation to include instruction on the design of good, clear writing tasks and prioritizing effective feedback to assist a L2 writer.

Further Research

The research discussed in this thesis reveals GTAs’ knowledge of classroom writing assessment including the concept of scoring rubrics, portfolio assessment, and designing good writing tasks. The research also shares the feelings GTAs have towards L2 writers and what approaches they use to support them. Participants identify themselves as educated in classroom writing assessment from coursework, workshops, and/or a graduate course in writing assessment in their graduate writing programs, and demonstrate that they use a variety of classroom assessment approaches like written feedback as a blend of marginal and endnote, written feedback in the form of comments, conferences, portfolios, and assignment-specific rubrics. The GTAs surveyed share positive thoughts on the presence of L2 writers in their classroom, yet they demonstrate insecurity in how to best support them. The data from survey suggest that feelings of inadequacy instructing L2 writers comes from a lack of preparation and professional development from their graduate writing programs. In all, there are several implications for further research.

Foremost, the survey method could be improved to attain a larger sample size. To do this, other mediums outside of the WPA-L may have been used to reach GTAs nationwide and share the survey. Also, the technology used for the survey, Qualtrics, could be utilized more efficiently to ensure that the questions of the survey are force-responsive so that a higher completion rate could be achieved. The survey could also be expanded to English MA or PhD graduates, not only GTAs, by including a prompt or question that would ensure that the graduate is reflecting upon their GTA training and not the school or university in which they are employed.

Additionally, this study provided optimistic results by showing that GTAs have working knowledge of classroom writing assessment. However, further research could interrogate what is being taught in those lessons, workshops, and/or courses in writing assessment and if there are connections being made between its value for writers of all linguistic backgrounds. A future study could also further examine how classroom writing assessment is defined for GTAs and the ways in which they see assessment being integral to pedagogy versus the labor associated with grading. Finally, further research could gain a deeper understanding of the methods used for teacher preparation by writing programs that GTA participants consider successful in their inclusion of L2 writers and their writing instruction.

Finally, further research can investigate the narrative around the difficulty of assessing L2 writing. Data from the survey revealed GTA participants are hopeful of the prospect of having L2 writers present in their composition classroom but are also admittedly hesitant in how to evaluate their writing and what approaches to use to support their writing development. Assessing student writing is already perceived as time-consuming and scary because of the amount of effort that goes into the preparation of assignments and criteria and the decision-making process of evaluating student writing (Crusan, 2010, pg. 5). What should also be

considered is how students of the college composition classroom are assumed to be fluent speakers of a privileged variety of English or SEAE (Matsuda, 2006). Therefore, the presence of L2 writers that present language difference further adds to the complexity and anticipation that assessing L2 writing will be difficult. Future research could interrogate the narrative that student writing should look a certain way is constructed in the academy and even in writing programs.

Implications

There are several implications from this study that include:

- Graduate writing programs need to integrate L2 writers into training discussion if they are failing to address L2 writers in the core teacher training provided for GTAs like coursework, workshops, and writing center professional development.
- GTAs announce a lack of L2 writing integration in their graduate writing training from their program, but declare that they are interested in professional development in writing assessment to better support L2 writers.
- GTAs have become knowledgeable about classroom writing assessment in their graduate writing programs and are comfortable using certain approaches in the composition classroom, though the significance and utilization of these practices for L2 writers does not appear visible to them.
- Required GTA teacher preparation is more likely to include training in classroom writing assessment like scaffolding assignments, designing good writing tasks, self-assessment as a part of evaluating writing, and various modes of providing feedback for students. Since these are skills and practices are advocated for L2 writers in DA and AaL (Lee I., 2016; Panahi et. al, 2013), instruction of

classroom writing assessment for GTAs should illuminate and promote its value for L2 and monolingual writers.

As discussed earlier, ECU's new marketing initiative of 2017 intends to recruit national and international scale and will likely introduce a diversified body of students, some of which may be L2 writers. New students of ECU are required to take two foundational writing courses ENGL 1100: Foundations of College Writing and ENGL 2201: Writing about the Disciplines, though some students can be elected out of ENGL 1100 based on high school coursework. Courses 1100 and 2201 are taught by faculty and GTAs, and as such, I want to propose ways that ECU writing program can prepare GTAs to engage L2 writers.

ECU's writing program supports GTAs through teacher preparation in multiple forms like orientations, required composition and pedagogy coursework, writing center training, optional workshops, and weekly GTA meetings. When an L2 presence grows at ECU, the writing program needs to be prepared to include L2 writers into teacher preparation discussions. In this thesis I have addressed how classroom writing assessment literacy supports L2 writers. I have also briefly discussed that GTAs gain literacy in classroom writing assessment through their writing program's teacher training. At ECU, this includes becoming knowledgeable about various methods of feedback through professional development and work in the University Writing Center. Weekly GTA meetings also cover the development of designing assignments, utilizing a standard rubric provided by the English department, and grading sample papers. The English department also offers resources like workshops on writing assessment including responding to student writing and metacognition that is available to instructors and GTAs across departments. Thus, when an L2 population grows at ECU, the writing program must raise

confidence in their GTAs that the program supports them with growing assessment literacy that supports all writers, especially L2 writers.

If the future holds a growing L2 population at ECU, the writing program needs to make L2 writers more visible for GTAs in training. This may include adding readings and discussion about L2 writers into pedagogy and composition coursework, inviting faculty to GTA meetings to share their approaches with L2 writers, maintaining writing center professional development that addresses students of diverse backgrounds especially language backgrounds, and creating or revisiting existing workshops to include L2 writer discussion. Above all, the ECU writing program can relieve hesitation and anxiety for GTAs that may have L2 writers in their classroom by building their confidence and validating that they are growing as instructors through theories, practicum, and the support of other graduates and faculty.

Conclusion

The research presented in this study suggests that GTAs are informed about classroom writing assessment; yet based on the discomfort GTAs appear to have with L2 writers, they seem to be unaware that they possess tools that supports L2 students. Composition classrooms are linguistically diversifying and will continue to do so (CCCC Statement, 2009; Zawacki & Habib 2015; Crusan 2010), so envisioning ways that GTA instruction can be improved upon to build GTAs confidence with L2 writers as well as benefit students of different language backgrounds is a vital shift that needs to happen in writing programs. One participant writes, “It has been my observation that most instructors and/or GAs do not have any adequate preparation on the topic (of L2 writers). We set L2 writers and instructors for failure if we assume that the latter would intuitively know how to work with L2 writers.” The 2009 CCCC’s Statement on Second

Language Writing and Writers also argues that the conversation around L2 writers needs to be sustained, emphasizing that L2 writers are better supported if they are a consistent feature throughout teacher preparation (para. 22). For that reason, I reviewed scholarship on writing assessment and how literacy in classroom writing assessment is a sensible way to teach GTAs to support L2 writers. Writing assessment literacy includes becoming knowledgeable of how assessment traditionally punishes writers who are not fluent in the dominant discourse, and familiarizing a writing instructor on student-centered approaches like negotiating, scaffolding, mediation, and collaboration.

GTAs acquire writing assessment literacy in their teacher preparation programs though it may not be called assessment literacy. According to the survey, the spaces where GTAs learn about classroom writing assessment include workshops, course lessons, writing center work and training, graduate coursework in writing assessment, and/or writing assessment professional development. Here, they become educated designing good writing tasks, rubric design, the concept of portfolios, and self-assessment as part of evaluating writing should be a fundamental part of GTA instruction. Becoming literate in classroom writing assessment will build a GTA's confidence in these areas and better prepare them to work with L2 writers and writers fluent in the dominant discourse. Both L2 and monolingual writers deserve the support that a classroom writing assessment literate writing instructor can offer them.

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APPENDIX A: QUALTRICS SURVEY

Questions 1 - 10 focus on gathering background information.

Q1 Self-identify gender:

Q2 Choose one or more ethnicity that you consider yourself to be:

White /Caucasian American Indian or Alaska Native
Black or African American Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
Latina/Latino/Hispanic American Other
Asian American Prefer not to say

Q3 Current University/School affiliation:

Q4 Are you a MA, MS, MFA, or PhD student?

MA MS MFA PhD No Other:

Q5 Are you an English graduate student writing instructor?

Yes: Currently teaching

No: But completing coursework to teach in the next academic year

No: But learning about teaching

Q6 How long have you been teaching?

1-2 semesters

3-5 semesters

6-10 semesters

11+ semesters

Q7 Do you teach composition courses (e.g. foundational writing courses, disciplinary writing courses)?

Yes, I teach:

No

Q8 Do you design your own course curriculum or do you use writing program/department standard syllabus?

Design own

Standard syllabus

Common outcomes, but I can modify projects/assignments

Q9 I received professional development about L2 writers through. (Note: L2 writers are second-language writers whose first language is not English.) Select all that apply.

Coursework

Workshops

Graduate Course in ESL

Other:

Q10 I received professional development about classroom assessment through. Select all that apply.

Coursework

Workshops

Graduate Course in Writing Assessment

Other:

Questions 11-15 focus on your understanding/comfort with classroom writing assessment.

Q11 I know how to design good writing tasks

Strongly agree
Agree
Somewhat agree
Somewhat disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Q12 I understand the concept of scoring rubrics

Strongly agree
Agree
Somewhat agree
Somewhat disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Q13 I understand the concept of portfolio assessment

Strongly agree
Agree
Somewhat agree
Somewhat disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Q14 I understand the concept of self-assessment as part of evaluating writing

Strongly agree
Agree
Somewhat agree
Somewhat disagree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Q15 What classroom assessment practices do you use in the classroom? Select all the apply.

Assignment-specific rubrics
Writing Program/Department specific rubric
Student designed rubric
Portfolio
Conferences
Written feedback in the form of a letter
Written feedback in the form of marginal comments
Written feedback as a blend of marginal and endnote

Q16 What is your comfort level with: (Matrix)

- Grading student writing
- Responding to student writing
- Creating rubrics
- Portfolios
- Conferences

Very uncomfortable Uncomfortable Neutral Comfortable Very comfortable

Questions 17 - 21 focus on your experiences with L2 writers.

Note: L2 writers are second-language writers whose first language is not English.

Q17 How likely are you to have an L2 writer in your course?

- Extremely likely
- Moderately likely
- Slightly likely
- Slightly unlikely
- Moderately unlikely
- Extremely unlikely

Q18 Are you comfortable having a L2 writer in your classroom?

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Somewhat agree
- Somewhat disagree
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree

Q19 If you have a L2 writer in your classroom, how do you approach teaching them? Select all that apply.

- Negotiating writing topics with students
- Goal setting
- Asking students to monitor themselves in the writing process
- Asking students to self-evaluate their writing
- Scaffolding writing assignments
- Allowing students to participate in the development of scoring rubrics
- Advising students to use the writing center
- Advising students to use office hours
- Other:

Q20 When you realize you have an L2 writer in the classroom, do any of these thoughts run through your mind? Select all that apply.

- "I do not know how to help them"
- "I am going to revise my teaching"
- "Grading is going to be hard"
- "Too time consuming"
- "It will be great to have diversity"

Q21 What is your comfort level with:

- Grading L2 student writing
- Responding to L2 student writing
- Creating rubrics with L2 writers
- Creating rubrics for L2 writers

Very uncomfortable Uncomfortable Neutral Comfortable Very comfortable

Q22 Discuss what your program did well or did not do well in regards to your preparation in working with: (a) L2 writers (b) instruction on how to provide feedback, evaluate student writing, create writing tasks, the concept of portfolio assessment, and self-assessment strategies for students.

Q23 Do you think additional professional development around writing assessment would help you better meet the needs of L2 writers in your classroom? Why or why not?

APPENDIX B: IRB STATEMENT

Dear Participant,

I am Gabrielle Carrero, a Graduate Teaching Assistant at East Carolina University in the English department. I am asking you to take part in my research study entitled, “An Argument for Writing Assessment Literacy for Multilingual and L2 Writers.”

The purpose of this research is to understand the writing instruction preparation for graduate teaching assistants across the U.S. By doing this research, I hope to learn if graduate English writing programs are preparing future writing instructors to work with second-language and multilingual writers. Your participation is completely voluntary.

You are being invited to take part in this research because you are a member of the Writing Program Administration listserv. The amount of time it will take you to complete this survey should be no more than twenty to thirty minutes.

If you agree to take part in this survey, you will be asked questions that relate to demographics, coursework you have completed in your graduate program, and the support you offer second-language and/or multilingual writers.

This research is overseen by the ECU Institutional Review Board. Therefore, some of the IRB members or the IRB staff may need to review my research data. However, the information you provide will not be linked to you. Therefore, your responses cannot be traced back to you by anyone, including me.

If you have questions about your rights when taking part in this research, call the Office of Research Integrity & Compliance (ORIC) at phone number 252-744-2914 (days, 8:00 am-5:00 pm). If you would like to report a complaint or concern about this research study, call the Director of ORIC, at 252-744-1971 and (252) 328-4282. I can be reached directly through email at carrerog16@students.ecu.edu.

You do not have to take part in this research, and you can stop at any time. If you decide you are willing to take part in this study, continue with the survey below.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in my research.

Sincerely
Gabrielle Carrero
Principal Investigator

APPENDIX C: EMAIL TO WPA-L AND ECU GTAS

Hello,

You are invited to participate in an online survey study. This study is being conducted on Qualtrics through East Carolina University. In this study you will be asked to fill out a series of questions regarding second-language and multilingual writers, writing instruction preparation, and teaching practices. This should take between 20 to 30 minutes to complete varying for each individual. You will not be compensated, nor are there any expected benefits. This study is completely anonymous, and you must be 18+ years old to participate. If you wish to participate, please follow this link to Qualtrics to view the Consent Form, Explanation of Research and IRB information: https://ecu.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_24tPa7abt6Nx8Pz.

Sincerely,

Gabrielle Carrero,
Principal Investigator
East Carolina University

APPENDIX D: OFFICIAL IRB APPROVAL LETTER



EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board
4N-64 Brody Medical Sciences Building · Mail Stop 682
600 Moye Boulevard · Greenville, NC 27834
Office 252-744-2914 · Fax 252-744-2284
www.ecu.edu/ORIC/irb

Notification of Exempt Certification

From: Social/Behavioral IRB
To: [Gabrielle Carrero](#)
CC: [Nicole Caswell](#)
Date: 2/20/2018
Re: [UMCIRB 18-000072](#)
An Argument for Writing Assessment Literacy for Multilingual and L2 Writers

I am pleased to inform you that your research submission has been certified as exempt on 2/20/2018. This study is eligible for Exempt Certification under category #2.

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your application and/or protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

The Chairperson (or designee) does not have a potential for conflict of interest on this study.