Teachers' Writing Practices and Contextual Features in Grades 7-12 of Chilean Public Schools

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Abstract: Since 2010, efforts have been made in Chile to support students' writing skills development, in order to better prepare them for participation in modern society. However, more knowledge about current practices of writing instruction in Grades 7-12 is needed to guide future improvements in these educational levels.

We aimed to provide a context–based picture of paradigms of writing instruction which are currently being implemented in Grades 7-12 of Chilean public schools. With this goal, we surveyed teachers of Spanish (n= 182) from all Chilean regions.

Results revealed that teachers mostly implement practices related to the linguistic, cultural and procedural paradigms of writing instruction, while the communicative paradigm appeared to be less coherent and less strongly implemented. We recommend that future public efforts focus on diminishing teachers' workload and providing them with adequate support for their needs in the classroom, especially for teachers working in Grades 9-12.

This study can provide guidance to the international community of literacy researchers by presenting the state of the art of Chilean teachers' practices in relation to its contextual background. This, in turn, can contribute to the construction of a broad view of the requirements for high quality writing instruction across the world.

Keywords: survey – writing instruction –curriculum –secondary education– Spanish

1. Introduction

Over the last two decades, Latin American countries have made substantial progress with regard to literacy development and opportunities for access to education (Flotts et al., 2016). Among them, Chile has been recognized for the ambitious scale of its educational reforms and the considerable progress made in terms of quality and equality (OECD, 2004). Regarding educational quality for instance, Chile performed better than other countries in the region in recent international comparisons (UNESCO, 2015a). In addition, Chile is the Latin American country with better access to educational resources and infrastructure, and whose students spend more hours at school, by far (see Ganimian, 2015). Nonetheless, a number of crucial challenges remain to be faced, including adapting educational public policies towards a sustainable development of the region. This includes guaranteeing access to high quality education for all and preparing learners to act in the changing world they live in (Leicht, Heiss & Byun, 2018, p.7).

Implementing public policies to develop future generations' communicative skills is crucial for meeting these challenges (Leicht et al., 2018, p. 45). Among those skills, writing has been recognized as essential for the optimal personal and professional development of citizens who can, as a result, contribute to a better society (Flotts et al., 2016, p. 5; see also UNESCO, 2016). However, there are international concerns about the number of young people who leave school lacking essential writing skills, which puts them at a considerable disadvantage (Cutler & Graham, 2008, p. 907; Graham, 2019).

Merely implementing new educational measures is not sufficient to achieve such goals. Successful implementation of a public policy should be based on evidence gathered from classroom practices to establish the actual needs of teachers in a specific context (Flotts et al., 2016; Viennet & Pont, 2017). Such information helps determine where to focus public efforts to support the work of teachers and, thereby positively influence students' learning. Thus, when aiming to improve students' writing skills, countries nowadays tend to focus first on gathering evidence of how writing is actually being taught in schools to determine what needs to be improved (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Graham, 2019; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; Purves, 1992).

The latter can be done through an analysis of the curriculum (Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016), including its various dimensions. Firstly, to encompass both theory and practice (Goodlad, 1979), innovation must be grounded on a realistic view of the current situation of teaching practice (Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016, p. 788). Secondly, it is important to take a historical perspective, because curricular changes are implemented gradually with overlapping different approaches (Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016, p. 788). Thirdly, one must consider the various curricular levels, which are usually developed by different actors, such as the

intended curriculum, which is developed by the government, and the actual curriculum, which includes the practices of teachers or the students themselves (Goodlad, 1979, Glatthorn, Carr, & Harris, 2001).

Over the last decade, Chile has implemented efforts aimed at strengthening students´ writing skills at the school level (see Ministerio de Educación de Chile [MINEDUC], 2012; 2013). However, information about how writing is actually being taught in classrooms is still scarce. There is some research about writing instruction in Primary Education, but there is hardly any in upper grades.

Given this context, the main objective of this paper is to contribute to the improvement of writing instruction in public schools in Chile. We opted to focus on public education due to our intention to contribute to quality and equal opportunities for all students in the country, in a markedly segregated system in which students with more resources generally attend private schools (Ávalos, 2016; Bellei Contreras, Canales & Orellana, 2019). Therefore, we present evidence that can serve as a basis for innovations that are tailored to the context of Chilean public education.

In particular, we aimed to determine which domain specific paradigms of writing instruction are currently in use in Chile and the level of implementation of their representative practices in the classroom. Therefore, we will start by describing the main characteristics of the Chilean educational system and curriculum for writing instruction and from different levels: the public policy level and the classroom level, which includes both teachers and students (Glatthorn, Carr & Harris, 2001; Goodlad, 1979). Subsequently, we will present the study's design and the results obtained. Finally, in the discussion, we will provide some evidence-based recommendations for improving writing instruction in Chile.

1.1   Chile's educational system

The authoritarian regime that governed Chile between 1973 and 1990 (Gysling, 2016; Santiago, Benavides, Danielson, Goe & Nusche, 2013) conducted deep market-oriented reforms related to all the social services, including education. The educational system was reorganized based on neoliberal principles: 1) schools competition for new applicants, which implies autonomy in deciding how to distinguish themselves from other schools and 2) freedom for families to choose a suitable school for their children (Bellei et al., 2019; Santiago, Fiszbein, García Jaramillo & Radinger, 2017).

To enable the implementation of these principles, three measures were introduced (see Bellei et al., 2019; MINEDUC, 2014; Santiago et al., 2017). First, the school system was decentralized, which meant that school management no longer depended on a single public institution for funding, but on municipalities and private institutions, among others. Second, the state's financial support was provided through a voucher-like mechanism which enabled parents to pay for their

child's education (see OECD, 2012; 2017; Santiago et al., 2017). Third, a system of accountability was introduced as schools' main form of regulation. This was done by implementing the System of Measurement of Education Quality [in Spanish, SIMCE], an assessment system of curricular achievements (Gysling, 2016; Meckes & Carrasco, 2010), which aimed to provide information on schools' academic success and, thus, support families' school choices and incentive programs for schools (Santiago et al., 2013).

During the transition to democracy – from 1990 to 2006 –, the improvement of educational quality and equality became a central priority of the Chilean government. As a result, a number of public policies were introduced, such as the implementation of a school libraries program, the provision of free textbooks, and the implementation of deep curricular reforms. The latter was based on an international movement towards constructivism (Flórez Petour, 2011), which aimed to fulfil the needs of the knowledge society (Arellano, 2001; Cox, 2001a; 2001b). In addition, SIMCE was consolidated as a national assessment system which was conducted annually. In the beginning of the 21st century, such educational public policies were recognized for their successful performance in Ibero America (Miret & Armendano, 2009; Meckes & Carrasco, 2010; Sáez-Rosenkranz, 2018). The improvements achieved in terms of educational quality and equality ranked Chile as a leader among Latin American countries (OECD, 2004, p. 3).

Despite these successful outcomes, the OECD criticized the alleged *positive effects* of competition on the quality of education and the high level of segregation it caused in the Chilean educational system (Santiago et al., 2013). The wide socioeconomic and cultural gap in Chilean students' academic performance was emphasized by the outcomes of both national and international tests: the percentage of Chilean educational results that can be explained by this gap is one of the highest percentages among OECD countries (Santiago et al., 2017).

This gap is rooted, in part, in the accelerated privatization process that transformed the Chilean educational system (OECD, 2004; see also Bellei et al., 2019; Canales, Bellei & Orellana, 2016). The higher the socio-economic level of the students, the more private funding the school receives and the less state regulation it has to adhere to – including prospective students' selection criteria. Students from the higher socio-economic level perform better in academic exams (Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación [ACE], 2017a, 2017b; Santiago et al., 2017), while on the other hand, public education has become stigmatized. As a result, the number of students enrolled in public education has decreased dramatically over the past three decades, while attendance at private schools quadrupled (Avalos-Bevan, 2016; Bellei et al., 2019).

The end of the transition to democracy was marked by a strong student movement, which began in 2006 (Redondo, 2009) and continues to this day (Cummings, 2017; Santiago et al., 2017; see also "Middle School Students", 2019). It

arose as a reaction to the inequalities of the system and has led to changes in education legislation (Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile [BCNC], 2014a, 2014b, 2016), including curricular reforms which have been put into effect by the Ministry of Education from 2010 onwards.

Table 1 provides an overview of the Chilean school system, which consists of three sequential stages: pre-primary education, followed by two compulsory stages: primary and middle education. Primary education (Grades 1- 8) is typically attended by students from 6 to 13-14 years old, while middle education (Grades 9-12) is usually offered to students up to 17-18 years old (Santiago et al., 2013). In middle education, two main curricular strands are offered: a scientific-humanistic curriculum, which is mainly for students who wish to attend university, and a technical-professional curriculum for students working towards a technical career (Santiago et al., 2013).

Table 1: The Chilean School System

Age	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Year				1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
Cycle		Pre-primary education		Primary education								Middle education			
				First cycle				Second cycle				General[1]	Scientific-humanistic		
													Technical-professional		

Note. From Santiago et al., 2013 (p. 15). © OECD 2013.

Note [1]: General includes scientific humanistic and technical professional studies.

The present study focuses on Grades 7 to 12, the grades that correspond to what the OECD considers secondary education (UNESCO, 2012). In Chile Grades 7 and 8 are seen as a transitional stage between primary and middle education. Although these grades officially belong to primary education, they share two relevant characteristics with middle education: Grades 7 to 10 share the same general curricular framework (MINEDUC, 2013) and Grades 7 to 12 all lack an official measure of students' writing performance.

1.2   Writing in Grades 7-12 in Chile

In this section, we will review the Chilean curriculum of Spanish. First, we will describe the main educational public policies on literacy development from a historical perspective, followed by a description of the state of the art of writing practices in Chilean classrooms, including students' performance and teachers' practices and beliefs.

Traditionally, as in many other countries, educational public policies in Chile emphasized reading over writing. Literacy instruction mainly focused on language

structure and knowledge transmission (Flórez Petour, 2011; Meneses, 2008). As part of the democratic reforms of the 1990's, the literacy curriculum shifted from the traditional to the communicative paradigm, establishing language proficiency as a key for students' social integration (MINEDUC, 2009a; 2009b). Such reforms positioned Chilean students among those who perform best in international academic tests within the Latin American region, which includes one of the highest performance levels in the writing test conducted by the UNESCO TERCE study (UNESCO, 2015a). Nevertheless, writing instruction remained less important than reading.

From 2010 onwards, and following an international trend that positioned writing as central for social development, Chile gradually increased efforts to promote writing skills development among young people. At the public policy level, this included changes which made writing one of the priorities of high-quality education by incorporating principles based on the sociocultural theory of writing (Prior, 2006) and writing as a cognitive process (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2009; Hayes, 1996). Such changes included two key measures. The first one emphasized the writing subdomain of the Spanish curriculum (MINEDUC, 2012; 2013). This has been supported by pedagogic materials such as textbooks provided by the Ministry of Education and resources elaborated by research centres (e.g. Sotomayor, Ávila & Jéldrez, 2015). The second was the implementation of a SIMCE writing test for all students in Grade 6 (age 12). Due to the crucial informative role that SIMCE plays in the Chilean educational system, the latter can provide valuable input for improving writing instruction in primary education.

As these different efforts have only been implemented relatively recently, they have, so far, mainly favored the first educational stages. The new curricular framework for Grades 7-10 (MINEDUC, 2013) was only implemented a few years ago, while the one for Grades 11 and 12 has not yet been implemented at all. In addition, it will take a few more years before a national test that measures students' writing skills at the end of high school can be implemented ("CRUCh Aprobó Nueva Prueba", 2019). Regarding research, recent studies aimed to support and describe writing instruction in early educational levels until Grade 6 (Bañales, Ahumada, Martínez, Martínez & Messina, 2018; Bañales, Ahumada, Graham, Puente, Guajardo & Muñoz, 2020; Espinosa, 2018); however, a knowledge gap remains for upper grades.

1.3   Writing at the classroom level

The outcomes of the SIMCE 2016 writing test raised some concerns regarding Grade 6th students' writing performance. Most students adapted their texts to the requested functions – informative and narrative – and structured them adequately. However, regarding content, less than half of the students managed to write a coherent text, that presented an adequate development of ideas (ACE, 2017a). In

addition, SIMCE's outcomes raised concerns about socio-economic differences. The higher students' socio-economic level, the better their SIMCE outcomes, and this relation has been stable over time (ACE, 2017a, 2017b; Meckes & Carrasco, 2010). The latter has been confirmed by international studies (ACE, 2014; UNESCO, 2006), which indicated that students' academic performance in Latin America is strongly related to socio-economic variables.

Regarding Grades 7-12, there is no data available for students' writing performance at a national level. However, there are other indications that the socio-economic gap is also present in these higher grades. For example, results from the SIMCE tests for other academic subjects reveal that the gap is stable across subject areas (ACE, 2017b), which is confirmed by the few scientific studies available on Chilean students' writing performance. Comparisons of students' discourse construction by students from two social groups showed that the performance of the students with higher social status was in line with results from other international studies. By contrast, students with lower social status seem to be at least four years behind in performance terms (Aravena, Figueroa, Quiroga & Hugo, 2016). These students seem to use linguistic devices and structures in their written communication that are more typical for oral communication (Concha, Aravena, Coloma & Romero, 2010).

Concerning Spanish teachers' practices, classroom observations indicated that practitioners mostly adhere to a teaching paradigm that is focussed on reading skills and transmission of language and literature content knowledge (Flórez Petour, 2011; Medina, 2006; Meneses, 2008; MINEDUC, 2009b). In Grades 9-12, the predominant teaching style seems to be teacher-centered, although, teachers do seem to give importance to motivating their students (Flórez Petour, 2011). Teachers appear to know the communicative paradigm, even though literacy content is decontextualized in their classroom practices (Flórez Petour, 2011; MINEDUC 2009b), which might be due in part to shortcomings in teachers' training (Sotomayor, Parodi, Coloma, Ibáñez & Cavada, 2011). In a similar way, a few case studies appear to indicate that teachers value top-down and procedural practices (Correa Pérez, Tapia, Neira & Ortiz, 2013). However, it is possible that there is a gap between what teachers believe and what they implement in their classrooms: a few signs indicate that advanced writing practices are implemented as formulaic and mechanical ones, without involving high level cognitive processes from the writer, as has been the case in other international studies.

In conclusion, results from the national and international writing tests conducted at primary level (Grades 3 and 6) revealed some concerns regarding students' writing performance, specifically, regarding text coherence and the development of ideas. In addition, results indicated that students' writing performance differs per socio economic level: the lower students' socio-economic background, the harder it seems to be for them to achieve academic success, a

divide which seems to persist in upper grades. Concerning teachers' practices in Grades 7-12, the scarce information available provided signs of shortcomings regarding the implementation of curriculum requirements. In that context, the lack of evidence about what writing practices look like in Grades 7 and higher in Chilean public schools indicates a knowledge gap which clearly needs to be resolved.

Therefore, it would be helpful to describe the current situation of writing instruction in Chile between Grades 7-12 (see Cutler & Graham, 2008; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; Graham, 2019). The present study aimed to gather the evidence required, by analysing teachers' self-reports of their classroom practices collected through an online survey. Findings would be relevant in two respects. First, the study intends to provide realistic and evidence-based foundations for further improvements of writing education in Chile. To ensure this, we based the study on teachers' actual experiences in their daily classroom practices, which have been indicated as fundamental for building the necessary bridges between educational theory and practice (Mansilla Sepúlveda & Garrido Osses, 2019). Second, we aimed to provide valuable guidance for the international community of language and literacy researchers, by providing context-grounded information from Chile that could contribute to the construction of a broad view of the requirements for high quality writing instruction across the world.

2. Conceptual framework of the questionnaire

We examined Spanish teachers' practices in Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools, by inviting teachers from each of the 15 regions of the country to respond to a questionnaire about writing practices in their classrooms.

We consider writing instruction as a practice *in-situ*, that always occurs in a specific context, which is not possible to understand nor improve without a broad view which includes all the different factors at play (Barton, Ivanic & Hamilton, 2000; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; Graham & Harris, 2018; Graham, 2019).

Our conceptual framework was based on international recommendations for writing instruction, suggested by three studies. Our first source is the UNESCO TERCE study, which collected information about the writing performance of primary students from 15 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (Flotts et al., 2016). The second source is a meta-analysis conducted by Graham and Perin (2007) of research on writing instruction between Grades 4 and 12 in the United States. The third and last source is Graham's (2019) review of literature on writing instruction, in which the author identified factors that inhibit writing instruction and provided recommendations to promote substantial improvement of writing instruction at policy, school and classroom levels around the world.

In addition to these sources, we also considered relevant earlier research on the Chilean context as a crucial starting point for the development of our instrument (see Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; Graham 2019). Specifically, we reviewed studies

on students' writing skills and performance (Aravena et al., 2016; Concha et al., 2010), the Chilean curricular framework of Spanish (MINEDUC, 2009a, 2009b; 2013), and studies on Spanish teachers' practices (MINEDUC 2009b; Flórez Petour, 2011; Correa Pérez et al., 2013) and their working conditions in Chilean public schools (Ávalos, 2013; Avalos-Bevan, 2016; Santiago et al., 2013).

In sum, these sources provided us with ample evidence to form the theoretical basis for the design of the main conceptual components of our questionnaire: *Teachers' practices* and *Contextual features*.

2.1   Teachers' practices

Within teachers' practices, we focused mainly on the implementation of *domain specific practices*. We also considered *generic practices of writing instruction*, based on the assumption that domain specific practices do not occur in isolation, but are incorporated into a more general group of practices (see Graham & Harris, 2018; Kyriakides, Creemers, & Antoniou, 2009; Shulman, 1987).

1. *Domain specific practices* deal with the main curricular paradigms of writing instruction which have been prescribed in Chilean and Latin American curricula over the last decades (Flotts et al., 2016). They include the communicative and cultural paradigms– in the general framework of the Spanish curriculum – and the procedural and linguistic paradigms – in the writing subdomain (MINEDUC, 2009a, 2009b, 2013).

The *communicative* paradigm focuses mainly on language in use, by emphasizing its cultural and social dimensions (Hymes, 1972; MINEDUC, 2009a; 2009b). It states that language development only occurs when students use a language for social participation (Rietdijk, Janssen, van Weijen, van den Bergh & Rijlaarsdam, 2017) which would require them to develop audience awareness, and assigns a unique role to every speaker of a community (Hymes, 1972; Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008). Thus, teaching communicative writing involves providing learners with tasks situated within real and meaningful contexts- *of somebody-talking-to-somebody-else-about-something* (Moffett, 1983, p. 5), so they can experience how text-based communication works. This means that the writer must approach the text from two simultaneous perspectives: both as the author, who must address its communicative purposes, and as the reader, who ensures that those purposes are understood and met (MINEDUC, 2013, p.38; see also López, Rijlaarsdam, Torrance & Fidalgo, 2018; Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008; 2009).

The *cultural* paradigm defines language as a human cultural tool, as a means for learning the (social) world, for developing cognitive skills, and for developing a personal and social identity. In international studies, this cultural paradigm is often referred to as *writing to learn* (Klein & Boscolo, 2016; Rijlaarsdam & Braaksma, 2015;

Silva & Limongi, 2019), which considers writing as a cultural tool to develop content knowledge and enable students to mature and reflect on various themes (MINEDUC, 2013). It can also be referred to as writing for *personal development* (Nicholls, 2009), which considers language as a means for students' personal and cultural identity development, by stimulating imagination, expression and invention (MINEDUC, 2013).

The *linguistic* paradigm focuses on language as a system, on linguistic features – such as grammar, vocabulary and text structure, without necessarily placing them in a meaningful context (Flórez Petour, 2011). It can be applied at two levels of the language system (Grabowski, Mathiebe, Hachmesiter & Becker-Mrotzek, 2018). The first and basic *micro level* corresponds to the morphological and syntactical level, the word and sentence level, including vocabulary, spelling and grammar, while the *macro level* corresponds to a higher level of analysis of discourse structure, including the distinctions between poetic, narrative, expository, and argumentative texts (Grabowski et al., 2018; MINEDUC, 2013). In the Chilean curriculum, this paradigm has been included in the writing subdomain as "Language command" (In Spanish, "Manejo de lenguaje", MINEDUC, 2013, p. 38), which is expected to be acquired in communicative contexts: the focus is thus not on the language system itself, but rather on how one can use sentence and text structure to communicate (MINEDUC, 2013).

Finally, the *procedural* paradigm stems from the psychology of writing. Instead of focusing on the products of writing, it emphasizes the challenges that students meet while writing their texts (MINEDUC, 2013, p. 37). Based on the problem-solving theory, the procedural paradigm focuses on the writer's cognitive process, which is goal directed and incorporates multiple subprocesses – including planning, translating and reviewing. Such subprocesses are hierarchically organized but are also flexible and recursive; and they can be simultaneous or nested within each other (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hayes, 1996). As a result, the complex process of writing places high cognitive demands on the writer. Separating it into identifiable phases and providing writing strategies can help students deal with these cognitive demands and gain control over it (Rietdijk et al., 2018).

2. *Generic practices* deal with general pedagogic practices applied to writing instruction. Within them, we considered learning time as a basic resource for learning (Van de Grift, 2007). Its essential role in writing instruction has been highlighted by international studies (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Flotts et al., 2016), which propose that teaching students to write effectively is time consuming. (Flotts et al., 2016, p. 12). Specifically, the UNESCO TERCE study recommends the following practices as a starting point for offering high quality writing instruction for students: substantial time should be devoted to writing instruction and writing practice during Spanish lessons, and teachers should implement writing instruction

systematically, which implies frequent practice and the implementation of writing practices within instructional sequences (Flotts et al., 2016, p. 96).

From 1990, the Chilean national study plan assigns 6 weekly hours of Spanish for most grades –Grades 1 to 10–, while for Grades 11 and 12, only three weekly hours are assigned (BCNC, 2014a). Within this time, the three curricular subdomains: Reading, Writing and Oral Communication1 are expected to be applied in a balanced and interrelated manner (MINEDUC, 2012; MINEDUC, 2013). Nevertheless, little is known about how much time is devoted to writing education, and studies that are available show that the time currently spent on it is not enough (MINEDUC, 2009b).

In addition, the four generic methods that we included in the survey– collaborative learning, differentiation, instructional sequence, and assessment – can have a positive impact on students' learning (Rietdijk et al., 2018; see also Kyriakides et al., 2009). *Collaborative learning* recognizes the role of peers in the learning process (Graham & Perin, 2007, Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008, p. 56). Applied to writing, it involves two or more students sharing the responsibilities of a part of or the whole writing process (Corcelles & Castelló, 2015). *Differentiation* refers to adapting teaching practices to the students' learning needs and to the differences between them, and distinguishes the most effective teachers from others (Kyriakides et al., 2009; Rietdijk et al., 2018; Van de Grift, 2007).

Designing lessons within a clear *instructional sequence* is fundamental for effective teaching (Van de Grift, 2007, p. 133), and has been recommended for incorporating writing processes in the classroom (Flotts et al., 2016). Such an instructional sequence would include different phases, including activation of prior experiences and/or knowledge, demonstration, application, and transfer of the new skills or knowledge. Finally, *assessment* provides teachers with crucial input for effective instruction. It allows teachers to monitor whether the teaching-learning goals have been achieved, to adjust their teaching to the features of each particular context and to give their students appropriate feedback that could promote their learning process (Graham, Hebert & Harris, 2015; Merrill, 2002; Rietdijk et al., 2018).

2.2 Contextual features of teachers' practices

Societies currently expect teachers to deal with complex tasks in complex environments (Kyriakides et al., 2009; UNESCO, 2015b), for which, it is essential that they receive adequate support. Therefore, when aiming to promote educational innovations – in this case, for writing instruction – it is crucial to have a realistic view of teachers' practices in their context, and more specifically, of the discrepancies between what is expected from teachers and what they need to be able to teach well (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016).

In this study, the contextual framework is included as the necessary benchmark which would allow us to correctly interpret the data and draw valid conclusions

based on the information collected on teachers' practices. Based on previous – more general –studies about the Chilean context (Ávalos, 2013; Santiago et al., 2013), we incorporated two subcategories within the component of contextual features: professional development and working conditions.

Professional development. In Chile there are concerns about the gaps between teacher development and actual classroom practice needs (Avalos-Bevan, 2016; Bustos Balladares, 2019; Cox, Beca & Cerri, 2013; Sotomayor, Parodi, Coloma, Ibáñez, & Cavada, 2011). Therefore, in our survey we included questions to assess teachers' ratings of the quality of their training for literacy instruction and about the origin of the training they received.

Working conditions. There are widespread complaints across many countries about teachers' working conditions, which are said to be due to the commercialization of education over the last decades. In Chile, which is often referred to as an example of a paradigmatic case of neoliberalism (Budds, 2013; Canales et al., 2016), the general working conditions of teachers have been described as negative (Avalos-Bevan, 2016; Ávalos, 2013; Bellei & Valenzuela, 2013; Santiago et al., 2013), particularly in Grades 9-12 (Cornejo Chávez, 2009).

In the present study, we propose that teachers' working conditions are shaped by two dimensions: 1) material conditions, and 2) social conditions, including class characteristics and professional environment, which in turn includes relations with colleagues and work demands. Within these conditions, we asked about factors that could possibly hinder or support writing instruction in the classroom.

An overview of the conceptual categories of our questionnaire, organized by component, is shown in Table 2.

3. Aims and research questions

This study aimed to provide insight into Spanish teachers' practices of writing instruction in Grades 7–12 in Chilean public schools. Specifically, we aimed to provide insight in the implementation of the domain specific paradigms of language instruction that have been prescribed by the Chilean curriculum over the past three decades. We aimed to do so from a broad perspective, to provide a solid evidence base for future innovations in Chile. In this paper, we assume that the context in which writing instruction occurs shapes the way in which it is taught (Barton et al., 2000; Graham, 2019; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016). Therefore, we are interested not only in what teachers' actual classroom practices are, but also in the contextual features which might influence them, as well as how these two are related.

Table 2: Conceptual Categories of the Study

Components	Subcomponents		Conceptual categories	
Teachers' practices	Domain specific practices		Communicative	
			Cultural	
			Linguistic	Micro
				Macro
			Procedural	
	Generic practices	Learning time		
		Generic methods	Collaborative learning	
			Differentiation	
			Instructional sequence	
			Assessment	
Contextual features	Professional development			
	Working conditions	Social	Professional environment	
			Classroom characteristics	
		Material		

We decided to measure teachers' implementation frequency of writing practice as a first step, which could form a basis for investigating qualitative measures at a later stage. This choice was based on Kyriakides et al.'s (2009) Dynamic Model to measure educational quality, which includes five dimensions to measure educational effectiveness. Among them, frequency of practice implementation is the only quantitative dimension which contributes to the measurement of the functioning of quality factors. Given that, in Chile, Grades 7-12 belong to two stages, to check for potential differences between them we performed analyses for all grades together as well as for the two separate stages (Grades 7-8 and 9-12) where relevant.

Based on our aims, we formulated three research questions (RQ) and sub questions:

1. What are teachers' writing practices in Spanish classrooms of Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools? (RQ 1)

    1.1. What are teachers' domain specific practices for writing instruction, including their communicative, cultural, linguistic (micro and macro levels), and procedural practices?
    1.2. What are teachers' generic practices applied to writing instruction, including practices regarding generic methods - collaborative learning, differentiation, instructional sequence and assessment - and learning time?
    1.3. To what extent do teachers' practices reflect theoretical domain specific paradigms and generic instructional methods?

1.4. To what extent do teachers' practices of writing instruction differ for teachers working in upper primary school (Grades 7-8) versus middle school (Grades 9-12) in Chilean public education?

2. What are the contextual features of teachers' writing instruction practices? (RQ2)

    2.1. What are the contextual features of teachers' practices in Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools, including their professional development and working conditions?
    2.2. To what extent do contextual features differ for teachers working in upper primary schools (Grades 7-8) versus middle schools (Grades 9-12) in Chilean public education?

3. What are the relations between the implementation of teachers' practices and their contextual features in Grades 7-8 and 9-12 in Chilean public schools? (RQ3)

4. Method

We chose to carry out a survey study following Cutler and Graham (2008), who based their study on the assumption that teachers are able to describe their practices by answering questions about them. In their study, the authors demonstrated the validity of such self-report methods by referring to previous survey studies on literacy practices (e.g., Pressley, Rankin, & Yokoi, 1996).

4.1 Participants

The target population consisted of teachers teaching Spanish in Grades 7–12 in Chilean public schools, of which there were 9,036 in Chile in 2017 (Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, 2017). Since the purpose of this study was to describe the writing practices in regular schools, those attended only by students with special needs were not included.

To attract respondents, we first collected teachers' contact details across the 15 regions of the country. No official directory of Spanish teachers from across the country was available. Therefore, we decided to first collect teachers' contacts and then check how representative these respondents were of the population as a whole. In total we collected 374 teachers' contacts from all Chilean regions, by sending email invitations to all schools of the 56 provinces of the country[2], to the educational departments of 145 municipalities, and to 6 universities. We distributed our questionnaire in May 2017 among the 374 teachers' contacts and sent out two reminders by email.

By June 2017 we had obtained 182 completed questionnaires (>= 80% completion, response rate: 47%), which meets the required criterium to obtain a 90% confidence interval with 6% sample error, according to Qualtrics[3]. To check sample

representativeness, we followed procedures described by previous survey studies on writing instruction conducted in other countries (Graham, et al., 2013; Kiuhara, Graham & Hawken, 2009; Veiga Simão et al., 2016). We asked about teachers' personal and professional characteristics, such as gender, educational level, and number of years of experience teaching in secondary education. In addition, we asked about teachers' working conditions including their classroom characteristics, such as number of students per group, and school characteristics, such as the school curriculum.

Sample features seemed to be representative of the teaching population in various aspects, including participants' geographical distribution (See Figure 1) and personal information, professional profile and some of their working conditions (See Table 3). In general, respondents who worked in Grades 7 and 8 had a general teaching degree for primary education, and those in middle school (Grades 9-12), had a teaching degree to teach Spanish in the corresponding educational level $(F(1,179) = 83.67, p < .00)$. In total, 43% of respondents had a teaching degree for primary education and 53% a teaching degree to teach Spanish in middle education.
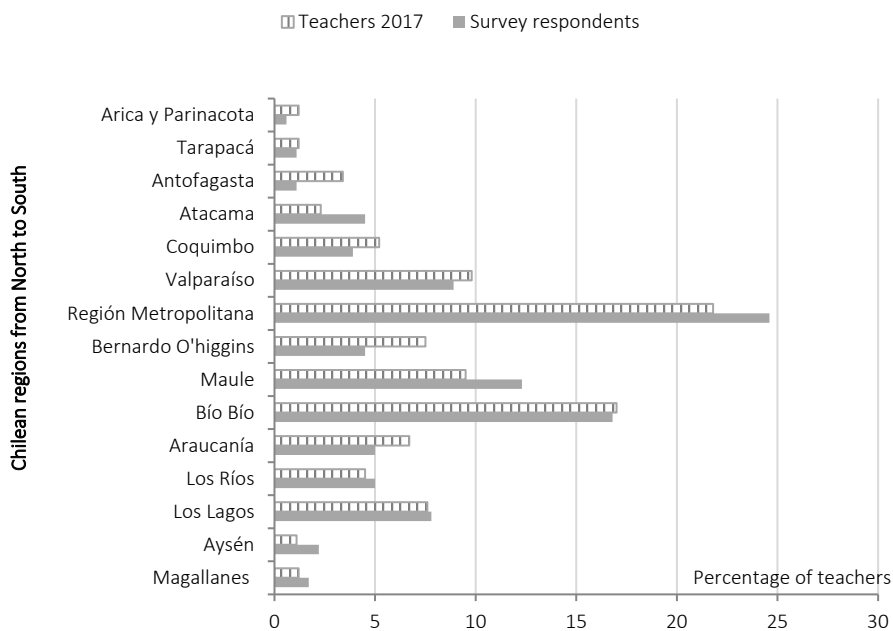

Figure 1. Comparison of geographical distribution between survey respondents and the actual population of Spanish teachers across Chile. Data of teachers' population was obtained from Centro de Estudios MINEDUC (2017).

Table 3: Participants' Personal, School and Class Information

	Variable	Information		National data	Source	Survey %	Mean *(SD)*
Personal characteristics	Age	< 40 years old		51	Santiago et al., 2013	58	
	Gender	Female		69	Centro de estudios MINEDUC, 2017	80	
	Years of experience			15	Santiago et al., 2013		10 (*9*)
Professional development		Participants with a teaching degree		94	Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, 2017	100	
		Characteristics of the initial teacher training followed	Duration: at least 6 academic semesters	94	Santiago et al., 2013	99	
		Participants who continued their studies after their teaching degree		19		31	
School	Curriculum	Branches	Humanistic-Scientific	58	Santiago et al., 2013	70	
			Technical-Professional	42	Santiago et al., 2013	29	
		Indigenous language instruction[1]		15	Programa de Educación Intercultural Bilingüe [PEIB] MINEDUC, 2017	13	
	With preferential state support (SEP) [2]			99	BCNC, 2018	93	
Class	Number of students per group	Grades 7-12		32	Santiago et al., 2013		31 (*15*)
			Grades 7-8	29			26 (*15*)
			Grades 9-12	Sometimes, >45 in urban schools	Cornejo-Chávez, 2009; Ávalos, 2010		35 (*14*)
	Weekly L1 teaching hours	Grades 7-12		6	BCNC, 2014a		6.5 *1.4*)

Note. [1] Schools with more than 20% of indigenous students implement the Indigenous Language curriculum.
[2] SEP (In Spanish, *Subvención escolar preferencial*) is a special form of state support that is provided to public schools with students from low socio-economic backgrounds.

4.2   Survey design

The design of our instrument was in line with previous descriptive studies on writing instruction that were conducted in various countries, mainly based on survey data (e.g. Graham, Capizzi, Harris, Hebert & Morphy, 2013; Kiuhara et al., 2009; Veiga Simão, et al., 2016). We grounded our methodology in the social exchange theory, which states that to increase the chance that respondents will provide the required information, it is critical to consider three principles: to generate participants' trust, to reduce the implied costs of their responses, and to provide them with rewards (Dillman, 2000; Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2014).

First, generating participants' *trust* both contributes to an increase in participant engagement, while, at the same time, decreasing the risk of social desirability, one of the most common sources of errors in self-report methods (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; De Jong, Pieters & Stremersch, 2012; Krumpal, 2011; Rosenfeld, Imai & Shapiro, 2015). With this goal, we provided personalized treatment to every respondent. We also increased the environment's safety, by implementing an online and self-administrated questionnaire, which explicitly assured respondents' anonymity and confidentiality (D'Ancona, 2005; Joinson, 1999; Richman, Kiesler, Weisband, & Drasgow, 1999). In addition, we carefully considered the phrasing of each item, both at the wording level and regarding item presentation. At the wording level, we included indirect questions because it has been proven that they increase the feeling of privacy protection (Hoffmann, Waubert de Puiseau, Schmidt & Musch, 2016). For item presentation, we included some multiple choice-multiple answer items that allowed respondents to feel free to select their options, without the pressure of having to report about practices they did not incorporate in their own classroom.

Second, to reduce participants *costs*, we kept our questionnaire as short and clear as possible. In addition, we ensured that it directly addressed its audience and goal and that it was attractive to respond to (Dillman, 2000; Dillman et al., 2014; Rosenfeld et al., 2015). Furthermore, we aimed to reduce the risk of respondent boredom and fatigue by including a variety of question types available in the online platform we used.

Third, we considered how to provide *rewards* to our questionnaire respondents. We assumed that the more meaningful our study was for participants, the more rewarding it would be for them to participate in. Therefore, when we invited teachers to respond the questionnaire, we told them clearly about the ways in which our study aimed to benefit public education in Chile, and particularly, how it intended to promote positive changes for their daily teaching practice. In addition, we offered them compensation for their efforts in the form of free books and a certificate of participation.

Instrument evaluation

The design process of the instrument was an iterative process, which alternated between design and evaluation stages. Each design stage was followed by an evaluation that prompted new rounds of adjustments. The evaluations took different forms: (1) The design of the sections and items was discussed with the research team of our institute; (2) The instrument was reviewed by nine knowledgeable professionals of language and literacy who work in Chile as researchers and/or as public policy makers at the Ministry of Education; (3) The instrument was tried out by eight first language teachers, of whom two were Dutch and six were Chilean; (4) Two of the Chileans evaluated the instrument while thinking aloud.

Online survey presentation

The questionnaire was created in Qualtrics (http://www.qualtrics.com/), which allows the design, distribution and management of online surveys. Tables 6, 7, 8 in Appendix A provide an overview of the questionnaire's organization by conceptual categories and type of items.

The questionnaire consisted of five sections. The first section determined whether the respondents belonged to the target audience of the study by asking the following multiple choice questions: *Do you teach Spanish in Grades 7-12?*, *My school is public* (yes/no), and *My school only offers education to students with special needs* (yes/no). A negative answer to the last question was considered an exclusion criterium. Teachers often teach many different classes, which can make it hard to answer questions about them. Therefore, in the second section, and following previous survey studies (Graham et al., 2013; Kihuara et al., 2009), we asked teachers to focus their answers on a single class which was representative of the classes they taught. The third section was about teachers' practices in writing classrooms and conditions. The fourth section included an open-ended question to provide us with other information the respondents would like to share about writing education. The questionnaire ended with a fifth section that asked respondents for more information about their personal background and school characteristics.

4.3   Data analysis

To answer the first two research questions (RQ1 and RQ2), we calculated frequencies – including the percentage of respondents who did or did not select each answer option provided, and the means and standard deviations for those who responded – for comparison purposes.

Establishing benchmarks. To evaluate to which degree a certain feature of writing instruction was implemented, we established a benchmark, in two steps:

1. We formulated a definition for *regular implementation*, based on the type of item used to measure them. Depending on the type of question (see Appendix A), we considered a practice to be *implemented regularly*:
   a. when respondents reported implementing them at least monthly for multiple choice items with single answer items (in Appendix A: items A1);
   b. when respondents reported implementing them *(almost) always* for classification items (In Appendix A: items A4).
   c. when respondents chose a selected practice as being regularly implemented in multiple choice with multiple answers items (in Appendix A, items A3), because in those cases the question explicitly asked about it.
2. From these individual data, we constructed two benchmarks to report on national implementation frequency: (1) low implemented practice for the cases in which 25% of the teachers or less report regular implementation and (2) highly implemented practice, in the cases where at least 75% of teachers report regular implementation. For example, 2% of respondents reported (almost) always asking their students to send their written texts to a real recipient (item A.4), which makes this practice a low implemented one. On the other hand, 81% of respondents reported often providing feedback on spelling for the texts that their students write (item A.3), which makes this practice a highly implemented one.

To answer RQ1.3, we needed to assess to what extent the elements which represented a theoretical curriculum practice formed a unit. To do so, we checked the internal consistency of each practice. We started by conducting reliability analyses, considering a set of practices as reliable when we obtained an alpha value of at least .7 (Field, 2013). If a set did not reach that threshold, we calculated correlations among the items that we expected to constitute that practice. In such cases, we reported correlations' effect sizes following Field's (2013) suggestions (± .01 small effect; ± .03 medium effect and ± .05 large effect).

To answer RQ1.4, we compared the implementation scores of practices between Grades 7-8 and 9-12 via analysis of variance. Finally, to answer RQ3, we needed to determine the relations between contextual features and writing instruction. Therefore, we conducted correlational analyses between teachers' practices and two contextual features: (1) possible negative conditions for writing practices, and (2), teachers' quality ratings of their training for writing instruction.

5. Results

In this section, we describe the current status of writing education for Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools. We report on participants' domain specific and generic practices of writing instruction (RQ1), on their contextual features (RQ2), and on the interaction between them (RQ3). For detailed information about frequencies of implementation of teachers' practices (RQ1), see Tables 9 and 10 in Appendix B.

RQ1: Teachers' practices

Domain specific practices

Figure 2 presents results regarding participants' domain specific practices (RQ1.1). The results revealed that among the *communicative* practices, sharing texts among students was the only practice implemented by the majority of respondents, while they hardly ever reported implementing the other three communicative practices regularly[4]. The *cultural* paradigm revealed the greatest variance among domain specific paradigms: while five cultural practices were implemented by the majority of respondents –two of which were highly implemented – , low or rather low percentages of implementation were reported for the three other cultural practices. Results also indicated that *linguistic* practices were commonly implemented.

Regarding the *micro linguistic level*, feedback on spelling was reported as a highly implemented practice (81%), while almost half of teachers reported providing feedback on grammar. With regard to the *macro linguistic level*, most respondents reported regularly implementing almost all linguistic practices, with the only exception of students exercising textual structures while they write. Finally, the seven *procedural* practices were regularly implemented by most respondents; moreover, three of them were highly implemented.

We assessed the extent to which participants' practices reflect theoretical domain specific paradigms (RQ1.3). We did so first by calculating the reliability for the items within a domain specific paradigm (Cronbach's alpha). When we did not obtain a reliable scale, we also carried out correlational analyses. Results showed that, first, only one of the four paradigms formed a completely coherent set of practices: the *procedural* practices (n_{items} = 7, α =.76, see Table 4). Second, three of the *cultural* practices formed a coherent set (α =.78): expressing own thinking, demonstrating knowledge and discussing topics which students write about (see Table 4). For the other cultural practices, we found moderate, low or no correlations between items.

Some *linguistic* practices appear to co-occur in the classroom. At the *micro level*, the more respondents provide feedback on one aspect, the more likely they are to provide it on others (spelling and grammar, $r(180)$= .33, p <.001; spelling and vocabulary, $r(180)$= .32, p <.001). At the *macro level*, the more often respondents ask students to analyze text structure while reading, the more likely they are to ask them to apply text structure while writing, $r(134)$= .32, p < .001).
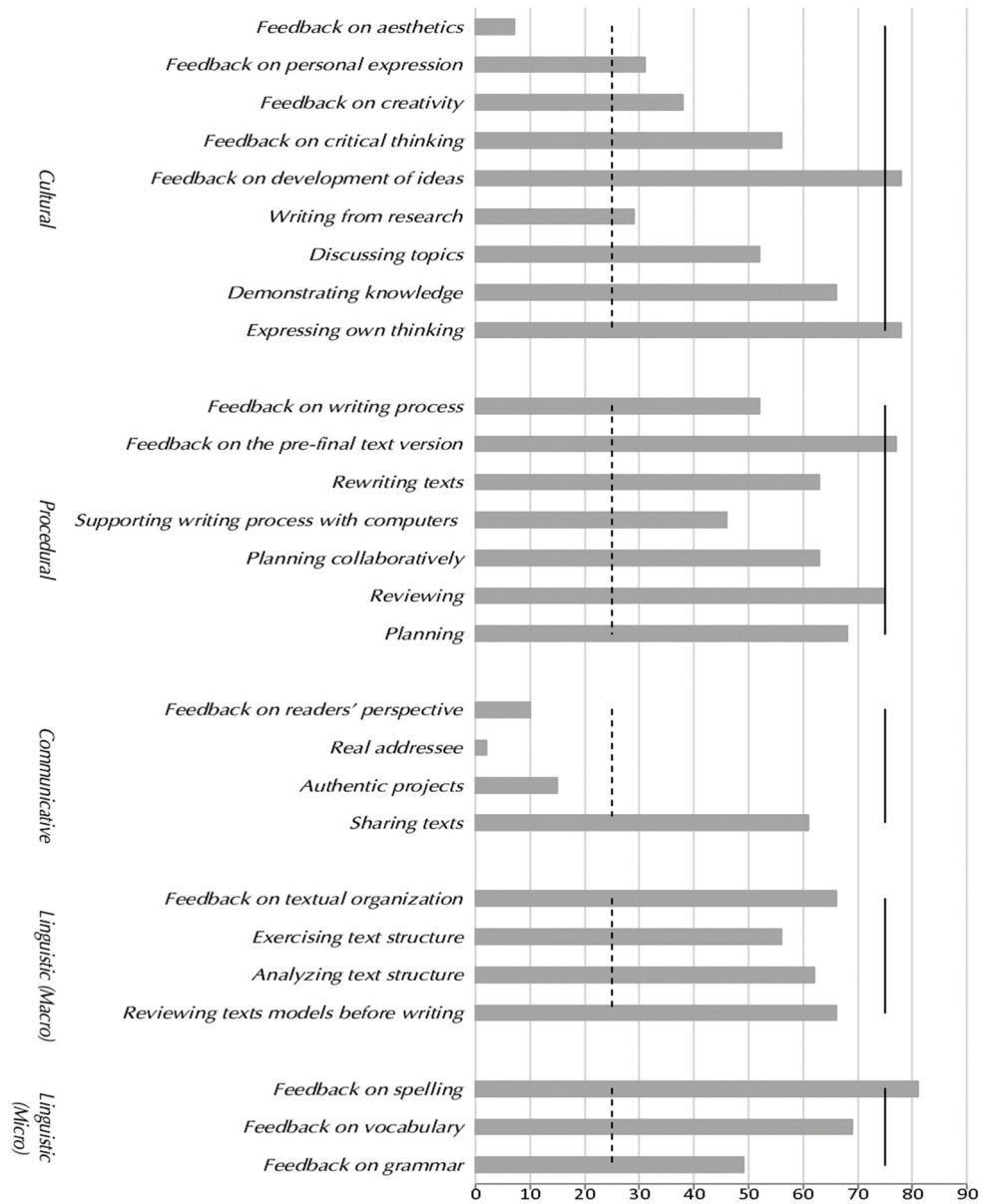
Figure 2. Percentage of teachers who regularly implemented domain specific practices.

Legend:
Bars: Percentage of regular implementation;
Dotted line Implementation < 25%;
Continuous line: Implementation > 75%.

Table 4: Differences Between Practice Implementation by Educational Level

Subcomponent		Conceptual category	Grades		df	F	p
			7-8	9-12			
Domain Specific	Linguistic Procedural	Feedback on spelling	87%	74%	1,18	5.09	.03
		Procedural practices (7- item scale[1])	M 65 (sd=26)	M 52 (sd=32)	1,15	2.48	.02
		Rewriting (included within the procedural scale)	65%	45%	1,15	12.36	.00
Generic	Assessment	Rubrics	74%	59%	1,17	4.79	.03
	Time	Weekly hours teaching writing strategies	M 1.6 (sd=0.9)	M 1.3 (sd=1)	1,16	4.22	.04

Note. The 7 items are: students' planning their texts, students' reviewing their texts, students' planning their texts collaboratively, students' rewriting their texts for communicative purposes, students' receiving feedback before they submit the final version of their texts, students' using computer to support their writing process and teachers' providing feedback on students' writing process.

Finally, *communicative* practices do not seem to co-occur in the classroom, as we found no significant correlations between any of the following items: students' sharing texts with their peers, students' writing in the context of authentic projects, students' sending their written texts to a real addressee, feedback on readers' perspective. For further information about correlations within domain specific paradigms, see Appendix C: Tables 11, 12, 13 and 14.

Generic practices

When respondents were asked about the amount of time they spend on writing instruction (RQ1.2), they reported that almost a third of the time of their Spanish classes was spent on the writing curricular subdomain (M = 30%, SD = 10), while they spent 38 percent of their time on Reading (SD = 14) and 21 percent on Oral communication (SD = 9.5). On average, respondents reported teaching writing strategies 1.4 hours (SD = 0.9) per week. Students wrote for 2.2 (SD = 1) hours per week, completing 1 (SD = 0.4) writing task per week. In addition, respondents reported they assessed the quality of students' written texts - one text per student of the class - on a monthly basis, and that they usually spent 4.2 hours (SD = 3.3) per week doing so.

The results for the four different generic methods– *collaborative learning, differentiation, instructional sequence and assessment* – are represented in Figure 3 (RQ.1.2). On average, 55% of respondents reported regularly implementing *collaborative learning* practices, among which, sharing written texts was reported as the most frequently implemented practice (61%). Among *differentiation*

practices, supporting disadvantaged students was found to be highly implemented (81%), almost twice as often as the other two practices in this category. Regarding *instructional sequence*, the first phase of it – activation of students' prior knowledge – was the most often implemented by far, indeed, and was in fact a highly implemented practice (76%). Finally, *assessment* practices were found to be highly implemented on average (77%) as well.

Practice implementation by educational level

Analysis of variance showed significant differences when comparing results by educational level (RQ1.4). Respondents working in Grades 7-8 reported implementing 11 practices we asked about more often than their colleagues working in upper grades (see Table 4). In all cases it turned out that if differences were found, Grades 7-8 showed higher levels of implementation.

RQ2: Contextual features

In this section we present participants' responses on the contextual features –social and material conditions - of their writing instruction in Grades 7-12 (RQ2.1). Among them, we asked about factors that could possibly hinder or support writing instruction in the classroom. In addition, we report on the variation between contextual features of Grades 7-8 and 9-10 (RQ2.2).

Within *social working conditions*, we included possible hindering factors of writing instruction related to class characteristics and professional environment. Among class characteristics, students' learning difficulties was selected most often (75%), while students' disruptive behavior (58%), and group size (51%) were selected by more than half of respondents. By contrast, respondents hardly selected students' disinterest (1%). Regarding professional environment, the majority of respondents reported that lack of time hindered their writing instruction (72%), while more than half of them (53%) selected lack of collaboration with their colleagues. Within *material working conditions*, 35% indicated that lack of material resources negatively impacted their writing instruction. Specifically, regarding access to computers, the three strongest hindering factors reported were lack of IT resources such as printers or internet (51%), lack of available computers (46%) and school management (35%).

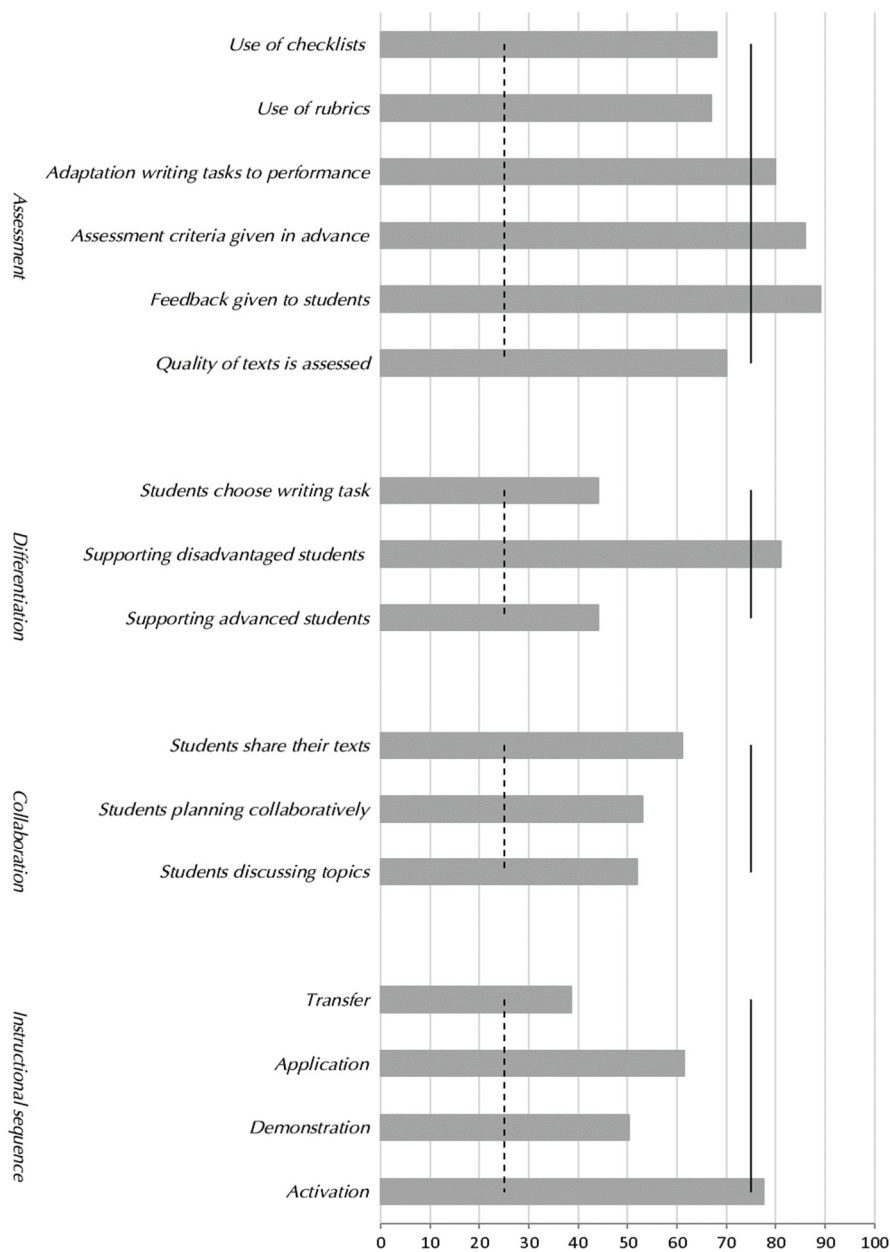Figure 4 represents respondents' use of resources as prompts in their writing lessons.

Figure 3. Frequency of implementation of generic practices.

Legend:
Bars: Percentage of regular implementation;
Dotted line: Implementation < 25%;
Continuous line: Implementation > 75%.
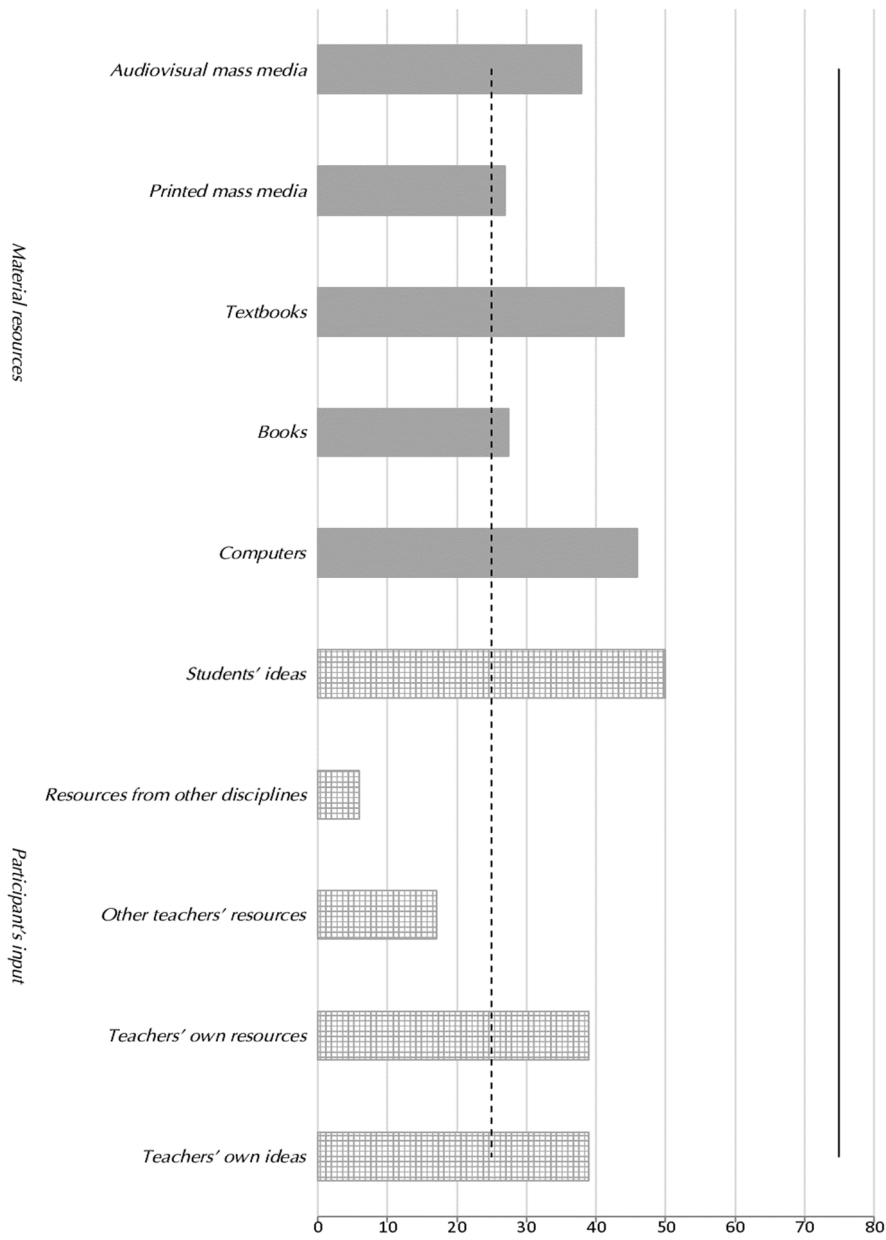
Figure 4. Frequency of implementation of teachers' resources.

Legend:
Bars: Percentage of regular implementation;
Dotted line: Implementation < 25%;
Continuous line: Implementation > 75%.

Results show that participants use a variety of resources – various teaching materials and both teachers' and students' input – with similar levels of implementation (38 – 50%). Among them, students' input was the most implemented (50%), followed by computers (46%) and textbooks (44%). Resources from other subject areas or made with/by other teachers were reported to be least implemented.

Professional development
Most respondents received their training for literacy instruction during their initial teacher training program (77%). In addition, at least two thirds of respondents continued their teacher training after obtaining their initial degree. They did so individually, by themselves (58%) and/or by following courses offered by the Ministry of Education (34%) or a Postgraduate program (26%). Half of the respondents reported being satisfied with their training for reading instruction, while one third (37%) reported being satisfied with their training for writing instruction.

Differences between contextual features by educational level
Comparisons between educational levels (Grades 7-8 and 9-12) did not reveal differences regarding teachers' quality rating of their training for writing instruction (see Table 5). However, significant differences related to working conditions were found. Writing instruction appeared to be shaped by better conditions in Grades 7-8 than in upper grades. Teachers in Grades 7-8 reported better social conditions, such as smaller group sizes, and greater access to resources, including textbooks and computers.

Table 5: Differences Between Work Conditions by Educational Level. Percentages and Means (sd)

Features		Grades				
		7-8	9-12	df	F	p
Social	Group size	29 (16)	35 (14)	1	6.5	.03
	Students' learning difficulties			1	3.9	.04
Material	Teachers' own resources	47%	57%	1,101	4.38	.04
	Textbooks	61%	45%	1,101	5.72	.02
	Using computers	53%	36%	1,171	9.48	<. 001
	Lack of access to computers	38%	58%	1,175	7.45	.01

RQ3: Relations between contextual features and practice implementation

Correlational analyses demonstrated remarkable differences between educational levels. In Grades 7-8, the more satisfied respondents are with their training in writing instruction, the more they were likely to implement 10 domain specific practices; in Grades 9-12, on the other hand, only sharing texts among peers revealed to be significantly correlated, we found only one significant correlation in Grades 9-12 (see Table 15 in Appendix D).

6. Discussion

This survey study aimed to describe Spanish teachers' practices of writing instruction in Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools. Its main goal was to determine which domain specific paradigms are currently in use in Chile and the level of implementation of their representative practices. We aimed to provide a broad and context-based picture of what writing instruction looks like, because writing instruction is always situated in a specific context (Barton et al., 2000; see also Graham, 2019; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016). In this section we will first discuss the results related to teachers' practices (RQ1), followed by those related to contextual features of teachers' practices (RQ2), and the relations between teachers' practices and their contextual features (RQ3).

RQ1: Teachers' practices

Results revealed that, in general, Chilean teachers seem to implement mainly three out of four practices: linguistic (micro and macro levels), cultural, and procedural practices (RQ1.1 and 1.3). When we assessed to what extent the elements which represented each of these theoretical curriculum practices formed a reliable unit, we only found indications that procedural practices did so. For the cultural practice, we found that a subset formed a coherent sub-paradigm: expressing own thinking, demonstrating knowledge and discussing topics which students write about. We also found that although the three micro linguistic practices were correlated, they did not form a reliable set of three items. The other cultural practices did not form reliable scales, although some elements were correlated with each other; the same holds for the items within the macro linguistic paradigm. This finding raises the question whether these paradigms are valid constructs or whether our operationalizations were not sufficiently valid.

On the other hand, the results we obtained for both RQ1.1 and RQ1.3 regarding communicative practices indicated room for improvement. Three of the communicative practices we asked about – ending written texts to real addressees, writing in the context of authentic projects, and providing feedback from the reader's perspective – revealed to be insufficiently implemented. In addition, we

observed that the five elements that were expected to indicate the communicative paradigm did not correlate at all.

Results regarding other recommended domain specific and generic practices (RQ 1.2) seem to suggest some positive elements for strengthening writing instruction. First, it seems that teaching writing practices always have some cultural and social features, which in turn, could contribute to making them more meaningful for students. We found evidence of a coherent cultural scale, implemented by the majority of respondents, of which two cultural practices revealed to be highly implemented: asking students to express their own thinking and providing feedback on students' development of ideas. Regarding generic practices, the fact that activating students' knowledge when starting a writing lesson and adapting writing tasks to students with difficulties were highly implemented, suggests that respondents give relevance to the social function of writing.

Other results regarding generic practices (RQ 1.2 and 1.3) seem to suggest a positive basis for strengthening students' writing skills as well. The seven assessment practices formed a coherent set that was highly implemented in the classroom, including formative practices such as using rubrics to provide students with the assessment criteria in advance, as recommended by the TERCE study (Flotts et al., 2016). When we asked how much time teachers spent on writing instruction, our respondents reported that they spent, on average, two weekly hours on the writing curricular subdomain. This result corresponds with current curricular requirements and seems to be consistent with data obtained from primary education (Bañales et al., 2020). Given that time is a crucial factor to improve students' writing skills (Flotts et al., 2016; Graham & Perin, 2007), we see this as a positive sign, even more when considering that, traditionally, writing was considered to be of secondary importance in the Chilean educational system (Bañales et al., 2020, Flórez Petour, 2011; MINEDUC, 2009a; MINEDUC 2009b).

Returning to domain specific practices, the remarkable difference between the results obtained for the communicative practices and practices related to the other paradigms calls for further reflection. One possible explanation may be that our understanding of linguistic, cultural and procedural practices has been closer to that of teachers, than our understanding of communicative practices. As we noted, the design of our instrument was based on international recommendations for writing instruction. The linguistic and cultural paradigms have generally been conceived as traditional paradigms, and it is not surprising that we found high or relatively high implementation and at least moderate consistency for them. By contrast, the communicative and procedural paradigms, were implemented more recently in comparison to the traditional paradigm. Their implementation has been supported by the Ministry of Education through pedagogic recourses -such as textbooks (see Barros, Contreras & Saravia, 2019; Berríos, Peralta, & Vera, 2019) and SIMCE recommendations for writing instruction (ACE, 2016).Why then did we find

such a big difference between the implementation of the procedural and the communicative paradigms?

One possible answer is that our conception of the procedural paradigm might have been closer to the way in which it was implemented in Chilean educational resources, than our conception of the communicative paradigm. The way in which communication practices are usually supported through educational resources is to provide simulated contextual frameworks for student tasks. However, following international studies, (e.g, López et al., 2018; Moffet, 1983; Rijlaarsdam et al., 2008; 2009), our conception of the communicative paradigm focused on performing authentic communicative tasks, which requires that the tasks really involve the communicative actors.

A second possible answer is that the procedural paradigm aims to provide methodological support and instructional strategies for writing instruction and learning; in fact, in the Chilean curriculum it was specifically incorporated into the writing subdomain. On the contrary, the communicative paradigm is commonly conceived as more abstract or general (see for example Grabowski et al., 2018; Rietdijk et al., 2017) without providing specific didactical means for implementing it into writing instruction (Grabowski et al., 2018).

Indeed, we could consider the communicative paradigm as a paradigm that absorbs other paradigms, as presented in the Chilean curriculum[6]. Subsequently, it is possible to consider it as an educational paradigm of a higher level, beyond language education (see Barton et al., 2000, p. 14). In our understanding, the communicative paradigm places writing instruction in its authentic context, with real actors (Moffet, 1985), as opposed to the more traditional way of conceiving educational processes, which tries to teach generally applicable rules. Such a difference challenges the traditional conception of the school, in which the teacher represents the objective source of knowledge and establishes a vertical relationship with the students. Instead, the communicative paradigm activates students as the main actors in their learning processes and in the social construction of knowledge (Flotts et al., 2016).

RQ2: Contextual features of teachers' writing instruction practices

Our results indicate that, when aiming to improve writing instruction in Grades 7-12 of Chilean public education, improving contextual features in which it occurs including teachers training for writing instruction and their working conditions (RQ 2.1) would be a necessary step.

Two thirds of our respondents think that the training they received for writing instruction was not sufficient. These results differ from what was recently reported about teachers from primary level. Primary teachers appeared to be more positive than our respondents about their preparation for teaching writing (see Bañales et al., 2020), which could be explained by variations in teachers' profiles and work

setting by educational level. Nevertheless, the results we obtained are in alignment with findings from a broader international perspective. Teachers are generally unsatisfied with their training for teaching writing (Graham, 2019, p. 21), which is a worrying signal, given the relevance of the teaching-learning processes for high quality education (Flotts et al., 2016; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016).

Regarding working conditions, results suggest that improving social features of the context – regarding classroom characteristics and teachers' professional environment – could positively impact teachers' practices. For classroom characteristics, among 10 other possible hindering factors for writing instruction, students' disinterest was the only one that was hardly selected (1%). Such results seem to oppose the common myth which suggests that students' lack of motivation to learn is one of the most challenging issues teachers currently face (e.g., Fredricks, 2014). Instead, Chilean teachers do not seem to hold students responsible for the difficulties of writing instruction.

By contrast, teachers' responses point to contextual characteristics as major issues which they believe negatively impact their writing instruction. Students' learning difficulties was the option most often selected (for more information, see the Appendix, Table A.4), which is consistent with previous studies conducted in Chile (Ávalos, 2010; Avalos-Bevan, 2016; Bustos Balladares, 2019) and Latin America (Cox et al., 2013) from a more general perspective. Yet, and as previously reported, adapting the writing lessons to students with learning difficulties is a highly implemented practice. This contrast raises the concern that the adaptation of writing instruction for disadvantaged students remains an issue despite teachers' best efforts. Such a paradox points to the need for further research to identify what the actual problem is in this regard.

For teachers' professional environment, results suggest that two factors seem to negatively impact writing instruction in the classroom: lack of time and teachers' lack of collaboration with their colleagues. Among 10 answer options, lack of time was selected by the great majority of teachers (72%) as greatly hindering their practices. Given contextual antecedents - the high number of weekly hours for Spanish lessons, we could infer that lack of time does not refer to actual teaching time in this case, but to teachers' work demands above and beyond their teaching hours. Chilean teachers who work in Grades 7-12 have higher working demands than the OECD average (Ávalos, 2013), which is related to both the increased number of students per group and the ratio between teaching time vs. time for other responsibilities – such as planning or assessing – in teachers' contract demands (Avalos-Bevan, 2016). The situation is even more critical in Grades 9-12, in which teachers are only allocated 15% of their contract hours for additional non-teaching responsibilities (Cornejo Chávez, 2009).

Results also revealed that the majority of respondents reported that their writing instruction was hindered by their lack of collaboration with colleagues. Such results

seem coherent with previous studies indicating that Chilean teachers face difficulties to work collaboratively (Avalos-Bevan, 2016, Fortunati Arenas et al., 2019). On the other hand, this would indicate a valuable opportunity for supporting teachers' work. Establishing professional networks in the educational community has been proposed as a means to achieve substantive improvements in education (Avalos-Bevan & Bascopé, 2017; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Such networks are known to be positively related with many other dimensions of the teaching-learning processes: teachers' perception of their status at work, their motivation and engagement with their practice, and the improvement of the learning environment in the classroom (Ainsworth & Oldfield, 2019; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). In addition, promoting collaborative work among teachers can also be seen as an opportunity to create learning communities, and thus, promote professional development (Avalos-Bevan & Bascopé, 2017; Fortunati Arenas et al., 2019; Mu, Liang, Lu & Huang, 2018; Warwas & Helm, 2018).

Comparisons between educational levels (RQ 2.2) did not show differences in teachers' training for writing instruction. However, working conditions did seem to be significatively more adverse for teachers working in Grades 9-12: the number of students per group was larger, and, as a result, the percentage of teachers who assigned a negative role to this factor was also larger than for teachers in Grades 7-8. On the other hand, the use and/or availability of material resources -such as textbooks and computers- decreased significantly in higher grades, which corresponds to earlier research conducted in public schools, from a more general educational perspective (Cornejo Chávez, 2009). In the case of Grades 11 and 12, in addition, the weekly hours advocated to Spanish classes -and therefore to writing- also decreased compared to lower grades.

RQ3: Relations between working conditions and practice implementation

The more favorable situation in Grades 7-8 is reinforced by a positive relationship between the quality rating regarding teacher development and the implementation of 10 recommended writing practices included in the questionnaire. Such results seem consistent to primary teachers' satisfaction about the preparation they had received for writing instruction, as reported in a recent survey study (Bañales et al., 2020). In Grades 9-12, on the other hand, teachers' satisfaction with their professional development hardly correlated to the implementation of those practices. Therefore, it seems that teachers' preparation to teach writing in these educational levels should be adapted to teachers' actual classroom needs.

7. Strengths and limitations

This study represents a first step towards obtaining greater insight in writing instruction in Grades 7-12 in public schools throughout Chile, which could

contribute to future realistic innovations. It does so by providing evidence of teachers' personal experiences in their authentic classroom settings, which is essential for the implementation of public policies which are aligned to the Chilean context (Flotts et al., 2016; Mansilla Sepúlveda & Garrido Osses, 2019; Viennet & Pont, 2017). Furthermore, this study contributes to the body of knowledge of literacy instruction for both the Chilean and the international scientific community by describing writing instruction from a broad perspective. It does so by considering not only domain specific practices, but also their relations with generic practices and contextual features of teachers' work (Barton et al., 2000; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; see also Kyriakides et al., 2009), which we think can contribute to a basis for high quality writing instruction, suited to specific contexts across the world.

We have drawn conclusions with caution, because the characteristics of the data collection method implemented – teachers' self-reports, a self-administrated questionnaire, and voluntary participation in the study – commonly imply biases towards more positive responses or can lead to questions being interpreted in inconsistent ways (Dillman, 2000; Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2014). To control for these possible sources of bias, we checked our sample's representativeness and the study's ecological validity.

We found our sample to be representative regarding various features, such as its geographical and gender-related distribution and its percentage of schools with an Indigenous curriculum (Programa de Educacion Intercultural Bilingue MINEDUC, 2017). We found some differences between the sample's features and population features. However, they were generally rather small. The first difference is that, compared to the national data, we obtained a wider difference between the two branches of the curriculum for secondary education, which favors the Scientific-Humanistic one over the Technical-Professional. The second difference is that our respondents were somewhat younger, less experienced and more qualified than the national average, which could be related to the online modality of our survey (Messer & Dillman, 2011).

Our results provided indications for the study's ecological validity. First, results regarding practices' implementation seem to be consistent with previous studies. For example, communicative practices appeared to be the weak spot among domain specific practices, as was suggested in earlier studies (Flórez Petour, 2011; MINEDUC, 2009b). Concerning *instructional sequence*, the percentage of implementation of the first phase – *activating students' prior knowledge* – was almost double that of *transfer,* the last phase of instructional design, which could be in line with findings from previous observational studies conducted in Chile (Flórez Petour, 2011; Preiss et al., 2014). Second, the main results regarding sample characteristics are consistent with contextual features reported in previous studies conducted in Chile (see Table 3), which suggests that we managed to engage with

our target audience. Third, correlations between contextual features and practice implementation show a coherent picture, which can also be considered a sign of ecological validity. For example, implementing students' input for writing activities is correlated with allowing them to choose their writing tasks ($r = .26$, $p = .001$). Fourth, the variability in frequency distribution of the implemented practices can be taken as an argument against social desirability. Although all practices we asked about could have been considered *desirable* by respondents, they nonetheless reported four low implemented practices – on average, only 9% of respondents reported regularly implementing them (see Figures 2 and 3).

8. Final conclusions and further research

When aiming for the sustainable development of a country – in this case, Chile –, it is crucial that future generations develop effective and mature communicative skills that allow them to respond adequately to local and global challenges. Among them, writing education corresponds to one of the priority areas of UNESCO for all countries, especially given the increasing complexity of contemporary social systems (Flotts et al., 2016). Nowadays it is not enough for young people to develop basic formulation skills: they need to master these skills to be able to communicate effectively and participate actively in society (Flotts et al., 2016).

The main objective of our study was to describe the domain specific practices of writing instruction in Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools. We focus specifically on public education given the essential role that it plays in integral sustainable development for all who participate in society. The latter takes special relevance in Chile, given the decline that public education has suffered during the last three decades and that, in general, the students who attend public schools are those to whom society offers fewer opportunities (Ávalos, 2016; Bellei et al., 2019).

Our survey results indicate that linguistic (at both micro and macro levels), procedural and cultural practices are commonly implemented in Chilean classrooms. On the other hand, our results seem to confirm the outcomes of previous studies regarding the need to reinforce communicative practices, which we also stress given the emphasis that both UNESCO and the Chilean curriculum have placed on them (Flotts et al., 2016). However, it seems that adequately promoting authentic and contextualized writing implies great challenges for teachers – not only in Chile.

This is remarkable if we look at writing instruction in a broader context. The classroom setting has become more challenging across the world (UNESCO, 2015b), and working in middle or high schools is even more demanding (Ryan, Kuusinen, & Bedoya-Skoog, 2015). This is particularly the case in Chilean classrooms, where students have become strong political actors over the last 15 years (Cummings, 2017; Santiago et al., 2017; see also "Middle School Students", 2019). In addition, Chilean teachers have some of the most negative working conditions among OECD

countries, and within Chile, teachers consider working in Grades 9-12 particularly challenging. This is consistent with our survey results, which indicated that compared to Grades 7-8, in Grades 9-12 group sizes are larger, material resources were reported to be less accessible and professional development appears to have little or no effect on teachers' classroom practices.

The above indicates a key aspect to focus on when aiming for effective writing instruction – and effective education in general. In this study, we worked from the premise that teachers have a key role in the teaching and learning process (UNESCO, 2016), and that literacy instruction always occurs within the complex social dynamics of the classroom (Barton et al., 2000; Graham, 2019; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016). As a result, international recommendations have proposed improving teacher working conditions (OECD, 2018; UNESCO, 2016) and professional development as ways to facilitate change (Flotts et al., 2016; Graham et al., 2019; UNESCO, 2016).

In this study we focused on the frequency of classroom practices related to writing instruction, which we consider a basic indication of effective practice (Kyriakides et al., 2009). From this basis, we recommend that further research aimed at how to change teachers' practices in Chile, needs to focus on teachers' beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992), and quality indices of classroom practices implemented in Grades 7-12 in Chilean public schools (Kyriakides et al., 2009). We suggest including teachers' perceptions of writing instruction, because these are known to have an impact on teachers' behavior and students' learning (Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Fink, 2002; Pajares, 1992). In addition, we recommend that observational studies which combine quantitative and qualitative methodologies should be carried out in Chilean classrooms.

In sum, this study presents a step forward towards building an evidence base that is a prerequisite for determining where public efforts must be focused in order to strengthen Chilean adolescents' writing skills effectively. By considering writing instruction *in situ*, this study highlights the need to provide teachers with the support they need to successfully face the challenges of their daily practice. We agree with the OECD, that there is never a 'one-size-fits-all model' suitable for implementing educational policies (Viennet & Pont, 2017, p. 44), which holds especially for communicative literacies (Malpique & Simão, 2019). Finally, this study also represents a contribution to the international scientific community, by shedding a new –contextualized – light on the challenges that writing teachers are facing around the world.

Notes
1. Since 2013, the Spanish curriculum is gradually including a Research subdomain for Grades 7-10 (MINEDUC, 2013).
2. We only left aside some rural primary schools with less than 10 students in total.

3. URL: https://www.qualtrics.com/blog/calculating-sample-size/
4. Originally, we considered five questions for the communicative paradigm. The fifth question -rewriting texts for communicative purposes- was shared with the procedural paradigm. Nevertheless, correlation analyses revealed that it belonged only to the latter, so we no longer consider it as part of the communicative set.
5. In this definition, the items in section A.2 of the survey are not included, as those types of items were used to measure contextual features, and not the implementation of teachers' practices.
6. In our contextual framework, see our previous definition of cultural practices – which are inserted into the social context – and linguistic practices – which should be embedded into a meaningful context.

Acknowledgements

Acronyms

ACE	Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación [Agency of Educational Quality]
BCNC	Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile [Library of the National Congress of Chile]
MINEDUC	Ministerio de Educación de Chile [Ministry of Education of Chile]
PEIB MINEDUC	Programa de Educación Intercultural Bilingüe del MINEDUC [MINEDUC Program of Bilingual and Intercultural Education]
SIMCE	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación [System of Measurement of Education Quality]

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Appendix A: Online survey presentation

The 95 questions of the questionnaire consisted of seven standard types of items (see Tables 6, 7 and 8) that are available in the Qualtrics platform.

1. Multiple choice items (A), which included single answer items (A.1), dropdown list items (A.2), multiple answer items (A.3), and classification items (A.4), which required respondents to group items by dragging them into boxes on the screen.
2. Slider items in the form of time bars (B).
3. Text entry items (C).
4. Constant sum items (D), which required respondents to fill in a form by providing numeric entries that the platform automatically summed.

Table 6 provides information on the types of questions about domain specific practices included in the questionnaire, related to the linguistic, communicative, procedural and cultural conceptual categories.

Table 6. Questionnaire Structure. Sub-component: Domain Specific Practices

Section	Item type	N of variables	Example question	Options	M number of choices selected only A.3 & A.4 items
General writing practices	A.1	8	*My students plan the texts they write.*	Frequency scale	-
Specific writing practices	A.4	8	*My students send their texts to a real addressee, such as a classmate or a relative.*	*Very often, a few times, never*	M 3.4 practices (sd=1.5) regularly implemented.
Foci of teacher feedback on students' texts	A.3	11	*On what aspects of writing do students often receive more feedback?*	*Spelling and text organization, among others*	M 5.4 (sd= 1.7)

Note. As for Tables A2, the frequency scale included the options: never, sometimes during the year, sometimes during the semester, sometimes during the month, sometimes during the week.

Table 7 provides an overview of the questions about generic practices included in the questionnaire.

Table 7. Questionnaire Structure. Subcomponent: Generic Practices of Instruction

Section	Item type	N of variables	Example question	Options
Collaborative learning	A.1	3	*My students plan their texts together.*	Frequency scale
Differentiation	A.1	3	*The most advanced students in my class receive extra writing assignments (extra assignments, or more challenging assignments)*	Frequency scale
Instructional sequence	A.1	4	*How frequently does the average writing lesson include the following phases (e.g. activating students' previous knowledge)?*	Frequency scale
Assessment	A.1	6	*The design of my writing activities is adapted to my students' performance level.*	Frequency scale
Learning time	A.1 B D	3	*Please indicate the percentage of time that you devote to each L1 curriculum subdomain*	Percentages/ Frequency scale / Monthly number of hours

Note. The frequency scale included the options: *never, sometimes during the year, sometimes during the semester, sometimes during the month, sometimes during the week.*

Table 8 contains an overview of the questions about contextual features of teachers' practices included in the questionnaire.

Table 8. Questionnaire Structure. Component: Contextual Features of Teachers' Practices

Section	Item type	N of items	Example question	Options	M choices selected *only A.3 & A.4 items
Personal characteristics	A.1	3	*Please indicate your gender*	Male, female, other	-
School	A.1 A.2 C	8	*Please select the region in which you work*	15 regions of Chile	-
Class	A.2 C	3	*How many students are there in your class?*	Open ended	-
Teacher training	A.1 A.3	7	*Indicate how much training you received for writing instruction*	*I received enough training, I received a little training, I did not receive training*	M 2.4 (*sd*=1)
Hindering factors for writing instruction	A.4	10	*Which of the following factors hinder writing instruction in your class (e.g. group size)?*	*Group size, lack of material resources,* among others/ Large impact, medium impact, no impact.	M 2.2 factors with large effect (*sd* =1.4)

Hindering factors for using computers to support students' writing	A.2	6	*Which of the following factors hinder your students' use of computers for writing at school?*	*Lack of computers at school, lack of training,* among others.	*M* 1.7 options (*sd*=0.9)
Teaching materials	A.4	9	*What do your students use as prompts for writing tasks in your Spanish lessons?*	*Books, audio-visual mass media,* among others/ *very often, a few times, never.*	*M* 2.9 resources implemented very often (*sd*=1.5)

Appendix B: Frequencies of practices implementation

Table 9. Domain specific practices

Legend

Feedback	Practice	Item type	Percentages					
On what aspects of writing do students often receive more feedback?	Please fill out the following questions by selecting how often are the following practices implemented.	A.1	W=Week	M=Monthly	S=Semester	Y=Year	N=Never	R=Regularly implemented
		A.4	(Almost) Always		Sometimes		Never	
		A.3	Most often					

Note. W=Weekly, M=Monthly, S=By semester, Y=Yearly, N=Never, R=Regularly implemented.

Category	Practice	N	Percentages (categories)					
			W	M	S	Y	N	R
Linguistic	Spelling	182	81					81
Micro	Grammar	182	49					49
	Vocabulary	182	69					69
Macro	Textual organization	182	66					66
	Students exercise ways of structurally organizing the texts they write	149	46		32		4	46
	Students analyze the structural organization of the texts they read	153	52		31		1	52
	Before writing, students review text models of the type of text they are going to write	174	63		32		1	63
Communi-cative	Readers' perspective	182	10					10
	My students share their writing texts with each other	182	18	43	24	13	2	61
	My students send their written productions to a real recipient (such as a relative or an authority).	153	2		40		42	2
	My students write in the context of authentic projects (such as the making of a magazine or a festival)	155	15		41		30	15
	My students rewrite their texts to better suit their communicative purposes	164	57		29		4	57
	My students rewrite their texts to better suit their communicative purposes	164	57		29		4	57
Cognitive	Writing process	182	52					52
	My students plan the texts they will write	182	23	46	24	7	1	69
	My students review the texts they write	182	31	43	20	5	0	74
	My students plan their texts together	182	12	41	28	13	4	53
	My students use a computer to support their writing process	182	17	34	34	15	4	51
	My students rewrite their texts to better suit their communicative purposes	164	63		32		5	63
	My students receive feedback before submitting the final version of their texts	168	71		19		2	71
Cultural	Creativity	182	38					38
	Personal expression	182	31					31
	Aesthetics of language	182	7					7
	Development of ideas	182	78					78
	Development of critical thinking	182	56					56
	My students express their own thoughts while writing	182	36	42	15	7	0	78
	My students write texts to demonstrate what they know about something.	182	23	43	24	8	2	66
	My students write texts based on research they do themselves.	159	29		52		7	29
	My students discuss the topics they write about.	182	13	39	28	18	3	52

Note. W=Weekly, M=Monthly, S=By semester, Y=Yearly, N=Never, R=Regularly implemented. Percentages in the column Regularly implemented (dark grey) show a sum of the values in columns presenting high frequency implementation (light grey).

Table 10. Generic practices

Legend: see Table 9. Frequencies of practices implementation.

Category	Practice	Percentages (categories)					
		W	M	S	Y	N	R
Instructional design	My students' previous experiences are activated	78		23		0	78
	My students observe a demonstration of what is to be learned	50		49		1	50
	The new knowledge or skills is applied by my students	62		37		2	62
	My students transfer the new skills to new situations or problems	39		60		2	39
Assessment	The quality of my students' written texts is assessed	28	42	26	4	0	70
	Students' writing assessments are evaluated using checklists.	26	43	22	4	6	69
	Students' writing assessments are evaluated using rubrics.	22	46	24	5	4	68
	Students receive the criteria that will be used to assess the texts they write in advance		43	11	2	1	43
	The design of my writing activities is adapted to the performance that my students have demonstrated previously.	37	43	17	2	1	80
Collaborative	My students share their writing texts with each other.	18	43	24	13	2	61
	My students plan their texts together	12	41	28	13	4	53
	My students discuss the topics they write about.	13	39	28	18	3	52
Differentiation	My students can choose between various writing assignments.	10	34	33	20	3	44
	The students of my class who have more difficulties receive special support in their writing tasks	2	3	14	29	52	5
	The most advanced students on my class receive extra writing assignments (extra assignments, or more challenging assignments)	18	14	24	30	14	32

Note. W=Weekly, M=Monthly, S=By semester, Y=Yearly, N=Never, R=Regularly implemented. The number of respondents of all the items included in this table was N=182.
[2]Percentages in the column *Regularly implemented* (dark grey) show a sum of the values in columns presenting high frequency implementation (light grey).

Appendix C: Correlations within domain specific paradigms

Table 11. Correlations within the linguistic practices at micro and macro levels

		Practices	Micro	level		Macro	level		
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Micro	1	Feedback on grammar				-	-	-	-
	2	Feedback on spelling	.33**			-	-	-	-
	3	Feedback on vocabulary	.12	.32**		-	-	-	-
Macro	4	Feedback on textual organization	-	-	-				
	5	Applying text structure	-	-	-	.08			
	6	Exercising structure	-	-	-	.14	.32**		
	7	Reviewing examples of types of texts	-	-	-	-.08	.08	.01	

$^*= p < .05, ^{**} = p < .01.$

Note. N= 136-182.

Table 12. Correlations within communicative practices

	Practices	1	2	3	4
1	Sending texts to a real addressee				
2	Writing in the context of authentic projects	.13			
3	Students sharing among their peers	.13	.03		
4	Providing feedback on the readers' perspective	.15	.07	.09	

$^*= p < .05, ^{**} = p < .01$

Note. N= 140-182.

Table 13. Correlations within procedural practices

	Practices	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Students planning						
2	Students reviewing	.74**					
3	Students planning collaboratively	.59**	.58**				
4	Students rewriting	.28**	.27**	.27**			
5	Providing feedback before the final version of students' texts	.12	.22**	.07	.38**		
6	Feedback on writing process	.20**	.22**	.21**	.17*	-.04	
7	Using computers to support writing process	.38**	.37**	.44**	.28**	.08	.20**

$^*= p < .05, ^{**} = p < .01.$ *Note*. N = 157-182

Table 14. Correlations within cultural practices

	Practices	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Expressing own thinking								
2	Demonstrating knowledge	.47**							
3	Discussing topics students' write about	.58**	.57**						
4	Feedback on development of ideas	.10	.01	.08					
5	Feedback on aesthetics of language	.19**	.11	.22**	.10				
6	Feedback on creativity	.10	.19*	.19*	.04	.27**			
7	Feedback on personal expression	.04	-.02	.10	.27**	.14	.14		
8	Feedback on critical thinking	.20**	.23**	.23**	.02	.07	.20**	.24**	
9	Writing based on research	.14	.08	.16*	-.01	.12	.07	.08	.20*

$^*= p < .05,$ $^{**} = p < .01$. *Note*. N=159-182

Appendix D: Correlations teachers' quality rating of professional development and teachers' practices

Table 15. Correlations between Respondents' Quality Rating of their Training for Writing Instruction and Teaches' Domain Specific Practices

Categories		Practices	Grades 7-8	Grades 9-12
Linguistic	Micro level	Feedback on grammar	.06	.16
		Feedback on spelling	-.02	.01
		Feedback on vocabulary	.18	.13
	Macro level	Feedback on textual organization	.18	.04
		Applying text structure	.24*	.01
		Analyzing text structure	.34**	.12
		Reviewing examples of types of texts	.22*	.16
Communicative		Sending written texts to a real addressee	-.00	.18
		Writing in the context of authentic projects	-.09	.06
		Sharing writing texts among peers	.23*	.27*
		Feedback from the readers' perspective	.18	-.19
Procedural		Planning written texts	.17	.12
		Reviewing written texts	.23*	.09
		Planning collaboratively	.11	.08
		Rewriting texts	.26*	.20
		Providing feedback before the final version of the written texts	.04	.19
		Feedback on the writing process	.24*	.18
		Students using computers to support writing process	.16	-.02
Cultural		Students expressing their own thinking	.01	.16
		Demonstrating knowledge	-.01	.13
		Students discussing the topics they write about	.20*	.07
		Feedback on the development of ideas	.10	.04
		Feedback on aesthetics of language	.27**	.01
		Feedback on creativity	.08	.03
		Feedback on personal expression	.09	.01
		Feedback on critical thinking	.08	.03
		Writing from research	.25*	.04

$^* = p < .05,$ $^{**} = p < .01$

Note. N=76-105