AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

THE RELATIVE EFFECT OF TRAINED PEER RESPONSE: TRADITIONAL VERSUS ELECTRONIC MODES ON COLLEGE EFL LEBANESE STUDENTS' WRITING PERFORMANCE, REVISION TYPES, PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS PEER RESPONSE, AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS WRITING

by
DANIA H. HAMANDI

A thesis
submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts
to the Department of Education
of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences
at the American University of Beirut

Beirut, Lebanon
December 2015

AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF BEIRUT

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My gratitude and admiration goes to everyone who helped make this possible. My advisor, Dr. Ghazi Ghaith, who offered his insight and guidance and also supported me throughout my entire Master's program. My committee members Dr. Hoda Baytiyeh and Dr. Barend Vlaardingerbroek for offering sound, constructive feedback. Yet, most importantly, my best acknowledgement goes to my loving husband who unselfishly accepted having me "away" at college, all the way from Kuwait to Lebanon and to my all inspiring son who is and will always be Allah's gift to his parents. Thank you all!

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Dania Hassan Hamandi for Master of Arts
Major: Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

Title: The Relative Effect of Trained Peer Response: Traditional versus Electronic modes on College EFL Lebanese Students' Writing Performance, Revision Types, Perceptions Towards Peer Response, and Attitudes Towards Writing

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not trained peer response and its application in different contexts (face-to-face, online, mixed mode) helps college EFL learners improve their writing performance, produce more text-based meaning level revision types, develop more positive attitudes towards writing as well as develop more positive perceptions towards peer response. In this quasi-experimental study, 44 college Lebanese students were randomly assigned into four peer response groups; a control group as well as three trained peer response experimental groups were investigated: traditional, face-to-face, online, and a combination of both modes. The experimental groups and the control group were administered pre-test measures: first drafts and WAS writing attitude scale. After the training of the experimental groups in peer response, both the experimental and the control groups were administered post-test measures: final drafts and WAS writing attitude scale and a questionnaire on perceptions towards peer response. Statistical procedures were used to analyze all the data including descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations), One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Post-hoc Tukey, and Cronbach's Alpha. One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test revealed statistically significant differences among treatment conditions in favor of groups who were trained in peer response. Post-hoc Tukey test reported that the significant difference was between the control group and both online and mixed mode groups in their writing performance. Frequencies of distributions revealed that the traditional face-to-face group did the most number of surface-level and micro-text based level revision types whereas the mixed mode group made the most number of macro-text based level revision types which in turn improved students' overall quality of texts. Moreover, Post-hoc Tukey test reported that the significant difference was between the control group and the traditional face-to-face group in favor of traditional group whose students demonstrated more positive attitudes towards writing. Finally, frequencies of distributions revealed significant differences among treatment conditions in favor of groups who were trained in peer response where students demonstrated more positive perceptions towards peer response compared to untrained control group students. The results were then discussed in the light of pervious research findings and recommendations for upcoming research were made.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The role of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers has become more challenging because elements such as learner autonomy, experimentation and action research, reflection, evaluation, cross-cultural learning, and educational technology media forms usage are now expected to be essential components of EFL classroom experience. Therefore, EFL teachers are faced with many multidimensional educational changes as new theories from different domains such as sociology, psychology, and technology, to name a few, are introduced into the vital field of English language teaching. In addition, technology and cultural divides definitely affect L2 (second language) teachers' knowledge of the subject matter in one way or another. Darling-Hammond (1999) maintained that teachers need a conceptual-theoretical background in which to work, or else their pedagogy will be obsolete and *ad hoc*. To illustrate, the teaching of EFL writing has witnessed a paradigm shift which resulted in the development of the "Cognitive Process Theory of Writing". Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 367) theorized that writing is a cognitive process that "recognizes the basic thinking processes which unite planning and revision". Therefore, writing started to be viewed as a "complex, nonlinear, recursive, and generative process" which involved different stages (pre-drafting, drafting, and revising). Specifically, L2 writing emphasized "the literacy beliefs of heuristics, experimentation, and emergent fluency rather than mechanical accuracy and fidelity to form" (Ghaith, 1997, p. 25). Flower and Hayes's (1981) proposition was echoed by Boscolo and Gelati (2007) who confirmed that the cognitive approach actually "conceptualized writing as a problem-solving process

where the solution is the production of a text that fulfills the writer's communicative goals" (p.211). In other words, writing is a cognitive, thinking process which helps the writers find solutions through producing a text that achieves their communicative goals, namely, communicating to an audience. The cognitive process theory of writing influenced practitioners and researchers so profoundly that Huff and Kline (1987) devised a functional model of the writing process which according to the aforementioned researchers should be integrated into the writing curriculum and therefore be internalized by students through teaching them how to actively engage in the different recursive stages of writing (predrafting, drafting, and revision). Interestingly enough, Huff and Kline (1987) admitted that teaching the revision stage of the composition process is "perhaps the most difficult job of the composition instructor" (p. 55). A noteworthy aspect of the revision process is that Flower, Hayes, Carey, Schriver, and Stratman (1986) had theorized yet an interesting cognitive process model of revision that would help revisers detect problems in texts, diagnose those problems, and choose the most suitable strategies for revision.

Flower et al. (1986) had theorized an intellectual, cognitive theory of revision in which they embodied in the cognitive process theory of writing. Peer response fits perfectly well in flower and Hayes's (1981) proposed cognitive theory of writing process. As such , Flower et al. (1986) confirmed that by the end of training students in peer response, they would have mastered a variety of skills, including the ability to give and receive critical feedback, evaluate their peers' pre-drafting and drafting strategies and provide suggestions for their improvement, voice their observations on particular strengths and weaknesses within a written task, critique the organization of a written task, and finally, differentiate between rewriting, editing, and proofreading stages of revision. Prominent authorities in the

domain of EFL teaching have drawn our attention as teachers and practitioners to the importance of the revision process and called for placing it in the heart of the writing process (Huff and Kline, 1987; Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Zamel, 1985, 1987; Berg, 1999; Ferris, 2003; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010). Hence, peer response made it possible for L2 teachers to understand the impact of the social dimension of writing where according to Vygotsky (1978) knowledge and learning become mediated through cooperation and mutual understandings among L2 learners who interact within social contexts.

Another critical issue is that interactive or social media Internet technologies such as wikis, blogs, web Quests, microblogging (twitter), and social networking (Facebook) are immensely finding their ways into second language (L2) writing classrooms. These networked-based technologies known as Web 2.0 tools are being infused in L2 writing curriculum and more teachers have begun to experiment with the use of Web 2.0 applications in their writing classrooms.

Although the Lebanese curriculum which was entrusted by the Ministry of Higher Education to the Center for Educational Research and Development (CERD) calls for the implementation and integration of information and communications technology (ICT) within all levels of the Lebanese general education system (CERD, 1995), it has not been widely used yet in English writing classes in Lebanon. In fact, a study done by Esseili (2011) noted that the use of visual aids, LCD projectors, and the Internet is actually problematic for many public schools in Lebanon. Hence, Esseili (2011) reported that digital resources are not among Lebanese public schools' list of priority. In addition, the integration of the internet into the writing curriculum has not been widely researched in Lebanon yet to the knowledge of the researcher.

Therefore, using collaborative learning (peer response) and incorporating the Internet into L2 writing classroom in the Lebanese context will definitely provide a new exploratory environment to the effect of online peer response in L2 writing classes. In essence, the purpose of this study is to comprehend how and in what way the integration of peer response which is greatly known as an indispensable part of the process approach to writing and Internet technology into EFL writing curriculum could possibly help non – native English Language Learners (ELLs) in an EFL writing class at an urban university located in Beirut, Lebanon.

Context of the Problem

A paradigm shift in EFL writing has taken place which has steered EFL writing instruction from emphasis on traditional writing instruction which focused on the "knowing that" of writing (rules of language, correct usage, correct mechanics, correct grammar) where the emphasis was on the written product to the process approach to writing instruction which focuses on the "knowing how" of writing (process which includes recursive stages : pre-drafting, drafting, and revision) where the emphasis is on the writing process. Peer response, which is an essential aspect of the process approach to writing, has very strong theoretical framework stances that trigger its usage within learner-centered second language (SLA) classrooms.

The traditional classroom writing which took the shape of a solitary behavior where students could convey what they learned to be subsequently evaluated by the teacher no longer existed. EFL teachers witnessed how the social dimension of writing became greatly influenced by the social constructivist approach to L2 (Second Language) learning,

particularly, Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (SCT). The aforementioned theory underscores the impact of social interactions where knowledge and learning become mediated through cooperation and mutual understandings among L2 learners who interact within social contexts (Vygotsky, 1978).

Villamil and Guerrero (2006) emphasized that EFL teachers should give learners the opportunities to communicate with peers so that successful scaffolding could occur and therefore partners would be able to receive strategic assistance accordingly and transfer the skills they already have and possess along with their own potentials to advanced levels of competency and proficiency. Collective scaffolding is identified by Storch (2007, p. 144) as "the process whereby learners pool their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problems they encounter". Earlier, Bruffee (1984) had emphasized that peer response fits perfectly into collaborative learning as students work collaboratively in order to identify the organizational structure of a peer's paper, paraphrase it, and comment on what looks good and what the author needs to do in order to enhance the written product. The aforementioned researchers tried to facilitate EFL learners' learning of English through peer response.

In my seven years of teaching EFL writing to Lebanese Learners, I faced many difficulties while trying to facilitate their English language learning. Hence, English has been taught as a foreign language in Lebanon and, frankly speaking, I have become quite thoughtful of the way Lebanese students face difficulties in the process of learning how to write in English. Although English in Lebanon is taught as a foreign language from the early years of schooling, Lebanese students according to my experience face difficulties in learning how to write in English. To elaborate, the EFL environment actually makes it

problematic for Lebanese students to have mastery over the English language in written communication. Hence, Lebanese students mostly learn writing in classroom settings. In fact, they do not get a chance to practice writing outside the classroom. They use no or little English at home. They are not immersed in the language and therefore not provided with comprehensible input which according to Krashen (1982) promotes both written and oral communication.

Similarly, as a former ELL (non-native English language learner) in Lebanon, for as long as I could remember, my conception of writing as an EFL learner was considered as a mysterious process restricted to creative souls. The composing process was so inscrutable that my classmates and I often struggled mightily with writing. It often crossed my mind that I had to wait to be struck by lightning in order to be able to write creatively. I remember asking myself recurring questions such as: How do I write this? How do I get started? What made things worse was that most of my EFL teachers had a conviction that the creative aspects in writing pedagogy were unteachable. They gave us an impression that good writers just happen; that a creative writer is the one who has the ability to write by being hit with a stroke of artistic genius. Hence, my EFL teachers were product-oriented in such a way that their emphasis was on the writing product rather than the writing process. Unfortunately, they were far from teaching the actual process of composition. Looking back, most of their instruction was focused on the knowing that of writing (rules of language, organization, mechanics). Therefore, the emphasis was basically on correct usage, correct grammar, correct spelling, the topic sentence, and the concluding sentence. Admittedly, my teachers did not focus on the knowing how (process) of the composing process.

Now that I am an English teacher myself and a former struggling writer, I realize that my teachers were not in a position to teach the process of writing because they did not understand how writers write or compose.

Even though when the new Lebanese English language curriculum adopted a process-oriented approach to writing instruction (Shaaban and Ghaith, 1997), as EFL teachers, we still faced new challenges and found ourselves confronting a variety of "need-to-know" dilemmas concerning writing instruction. A number of professional development programs in writing instruction that claimed that they supported the process-approach to writing arose after the proposition of the new Lebanese curriculum. However, the aforementioned programs did not encompass evidence-based interventions targeting key elements of writing instruction. For instance, Orr (2011) investigated how English language Lebanese teachers in both private and public schools perceived their own in-service training. Unfortunately, the survey used for data collection reported the poor perceptions Lebanese English language teachers had of the usefulness of most of their training. Most Lebanese English language teachers who answered the survey actually complained that their in-service training does not seem to focus on practical classroom application indicating that the majority of the training activities are theoretical in nature. It is clear from the above discussion that Darling-Hammond (1999) had a strong point when he maintained that teachers learn just as students do: by studying, doing, and reflecting. Therefore, educators can never deny the importance of teacher professional development in writing instruction.

Cultural wise, although the Lebanese English language curriculum calls for the adoption of the process approach to writing in EFL writing classes (Shaaban and Ghaith,

1997), some Lebanese teachers may not embrace it because of their cultural background. Such teachers are usually the authority figures in teacher-centered classrooms, and they may not want to jeopardize their authority by giving up their control over their students through implementing the process approach strategies like response groups, peer conferences, and share sessions... Therefore, those teachers may not apply the process orientation to instruction because they are cultural bound.

More critically, practitioners cannot deny the importance of technology in L2 writing, and EFL teachers have yet to accept the fact that writing today is "pervasively and generally digital: composed with digital tools which are created out of word, image, sound, and motion, circulated in digital environments and consumed across a wide range of digital platforms" (DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks, 2010, p. ix). We have to admit that technology has become dramatically intertwined into our lives. The Information Age has already engulfed us and it has become necessary for both L2 teachers and their students to become equipped with technology-related communication skills to strive in an information-rich, high speed, and high tech culture.

Today's students are known by 'digital natives', 'digital generation' or 'net generation' students because they have grown up with technology dominating every single aspect of their lives. Moreover, net generation students are actually light and sound trained. They grew up in a world of hypertext, images, and sound; therefore, they are inclined to "think and write with electrons" (Jukes and McCain, 2001, p. 23).

Our students are already thinking and writing electronically in this digital age of ours. They actually spend a considerable amount of their lives composing materials they have created electronically on their computers, iPads, and smart phones. More critically, net

generation students have become more involved in digital writing which is defined as "compositions created with, and oftentimes for reading or viewing on, a computer or other device that is connected to the Internet" (DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks, 2010, p. 21). Thus, net generation students are heavily engaged in a tech-rich world and spend tremendous amounts of exchanging electronic communication through their digital screens (Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith, and Lacgill, 2008).

According to Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith, and Lacgill (2008) net generation students are always exchanging "informal written e-communication on digital screen" (p. i). This actually happens when they are text messaging their family and friends, e-mailing others and replying to e-mails they receive from them, updating their status messages, blogging, updating the profile information and posting comments on their Facebook pages, tweeting online by using microblog spaces and sites such as Twitter, downloading their lectures as well as uploading their assignments online. To illustrate, DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010) emphasized that digital writers can actually easily shift among the different interactive technological tools they use while e-communicating. These interactive and social media internet technologies such as blogs, wikis, microblogging (twitter), web Quests, social, and social networking (Facebook) are referred to as Web 2.0 applications, and they are immensely finding their ways into L2 writing pedagogy.

A very important field of study which has to do with peer response emerged, namely computer-mediated feedback. To elaborate, the role of computers in conveying mediating feedback in L2 settings has become central for research concerned with technology-enhanced peer response since the 1990s (Warschauer, Turbee, & Roberts, 1996). Positive results have been reported on technology enhanced peer response such as greater

number of comments suggested by peer response groups, more positive effects on the clause, sentence, and paragraph levels as well as more opportunities for teachers to monitor students' interactions (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).

However, results on the impact of integrating computer-mediated communication (CMC) into peer response have been conflicting, mixed, and even inconsistent (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001). For instance, drawbacks and limitations of using technology for peer response (electronic peer response) in L2 were reported (Braine, 1997; Leh, 1999; Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth, 2001). The aforementioned researchers have exposed some problematic issues related to electronic feedback in EFL writing classes such as non-significant or even negative effects on the development of writing proficiency. To elaborate, (Braine, 1997; Leh, 1999; Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth, 2001; Liu and Sadler, 2003) have expressed concerns about using computer-mediated communication as a substitute for the traditional face-to-face mode of peer response, especially that its ultimate benefits for ESL learners have not been yet established fully by researchers.

Studies that dealt with differential effects of traditional pen and paper peer response and electronic peer response have emerged (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).Results of the aforementioned research have indicated that students tend to make more particular micro-level changes in the online, networked mode as they were able to include the different surface-level comments provided by their peers in their writing. However, students made more global, macro level changes that were much more related to meaning in the traditional, pen and paper mode and were

better able to explore the peers' intentions and goals behind writing the essays. Moreover, the number of peer interactions were higher in traditional ,face-to-face mode than in online mode, but networked peer response helped the teacher monitor students' interaction in better ways and more thoroughly (Schultz, 2000; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).

Researchers in peer response domain have also examined the affective components of L2 writing. Graham, Berninger, and Fan (2007) operationally defined an individual's perceptions and attitudes towards writing as "an affective disposition involving how the act of writing makes the authors feel, ranging from happy to unhappy" (p. 518). Interestingly enough, studies which examined EFL students' perceptions toward peer response traditional face-to-face mode such as Neslosn and Carson (1998) , Chong (2010), and Zhang (1995) resulted in more negative perceptions of students towards peer response than studies which investigated EFL students' perceptions toward peer response , networked , online mode (Schultz, 2000; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).Insofar, a consensus has emerged among researchers that (computer-mediated communication) CMC-based peer response should be seriously blended with traditional, pen and paper communication in the peer response process (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).

Statement of Problem

Prominent authorities in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) have drawn our attention as EFL teachers and practitioners to the importance of the revision process and called for placing it in the heart of the writing process (Huff and Kline, 1987; Hyland and

Hyland, 2006; Zamel, 1985, 1987; Berg, 1999; Ferris, 2003; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010). Perhaps even more poignantly, peer response is considered an important aspect of cognitive process approach to writing and has been reported to have many cognitive, affective, social, and linguistic benefits for EFL learners (Mendonça and Johnson, 1994; Hansen and Liu, 2005; Villamil and De Guerrero, 1998; MacArthur, 2007; Ting and Quian, 2010; Storch, 2007). Huff and Kline (1986) declared that practitioners should take it on trust that if theory and practice can determine the effectiveness of peer response, it is worth noting that peer response groups must be educated and trained. Hence, studies which explicitly and directly trained EFL students in peer response reposted that after extensive training in peer response, EFL students were able to give clear comments and constructive criticism to their peers' written products and were able to successfully pinpoint problematic rhetoric and content (Stanley, 1992; Paulus, 1999; Berg, 1999; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010).

In fact, if we shall look a little further at EFL writing research within a Lebanese context, we come to realize that there is a knowledge void in examining the effects of directly coaching and training Lebanese college EFL students in peer response. Two studies (Diab, 2010, 2011) which had to do with peer editing within a Lebanese context actually never tackled the effects of explicitly training college ESL Lebanese students in peer response and therefore implementing peer response in its different modes (traditional, networked, and a combination of bot). The studies only examined how peer-editing and self-editing affected the way students revised their drafts for language errors (Diab, 2010). Moreover, the same aforementioned Lebanese researcher also investigated how different kinds of feedback are related to the quality of revisions in revised drafts (Diab, 2011).

Another study conducted by Shabaan (2001) actually tackled collaborative writing and its effect on Lebanese tenth grade students, but never compared between peer response traditional mode and electronic mode. Therefore, there is definitely a paucity of research, more critically, a gap in the knowledge, in examining the affective benefits of training college EFL Lebanese students in peer response as a separate entity.

The reviewed literature on EFL writing lacks consensus over many peer response issues such as the issues that have to do with the conceptualization of the context in which peer response should occur whether traditional face-to-face mode or computer-mediated networked mode (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001; Braine, 1997; Leh, 1999; Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth, 2001). To elaborate, conflicting results related to potential benefits and the degree to which EFL students were able to develop strategies for peer response were reported by proponents of peer response (Berg, 1999; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010; Mendonça and Johnson, 1994; Hansen and Liu, 2005; Villamil and De Guerrero, 1998; MacArthur, 2007; Ting and Quian, 2010; Storch, 2007, DiCamilla and Anton; 1997) as well as potential drawbacks and the degree to which EFL students and their instructors found the implication of peer response to be problematic were reported by concerned researchers (Zhang , 1995; Nelson and Carson,1998; Hu,2005; Connor and Asenavage,1994; Mendonca and Johnson, 1994) .

On the basis of the points raised above, EFL/ESL professionals have not been able to locate a satisfying answer to the importance of using technology in peer response writing classes. More specifically, no straight answer actually stated whether electronic feedback worked better than traditional face-to-face peer feedback in EFL/ ESL writing classrooms.

Research Questions

For the purpose of this study, the following questions were addressed:

1. Is training EFL writers in peer response effective in a process-approach writing classroom?
2. What is the relative effect of peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer-mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes of peer response) on college EFL Lebanese students' writing performance and revision types?
3. How is students' attitudes towards writing affected by peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes)?
4. To what extent do students find peer response to be useful and what is the relative effect of peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes of peer response) on college EFL Lebanese students' perceptions towards peer response?

Rationale

EFL writing research conducted from a cognitive process approach to writing has emphasized the importance of peer response groups in providing EFL students with cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic benefits in writing class (Mendonça and Johnson, 1994; Hansen and Liu, 2005; Villamil and De Guerrero, 1998; MacArthur, 2007; Ting and Quian, 2010; Storch, 2007). More critically, considerable research has investigated the

features of explicitly training EFL students in peer response indicates the willingness of EFL writers of being trainable and therefore able to develop strategies in peer response which provide students with great social as well as cognitive opportunities (Vygotsky, 1978; Faigley and Witte, 1981; Huff and Kline, 1987; Boscolo and Gelati, 2007; Storch, 2007). Moreover, carefully designed training in peer response can have a positive impact on EFL writing competence; therefore, enhancing students' communicative skills, their ability to provide their peers with meaningful, constructive comments, and develop understanding of their own writing process as well. However, no studies in training EFL Lebanese students in peer response have been done in Lebanon so far.

The integration of computers into humanities and particularly into the EFL writing curriculum is so important because according to Schultz (2000) if practitioners do not do so they run the risk of increasing obsolescence. The aforementioned researcher referred to Lanham (1993) to point out that the field of foreign language writing in particular is one of the most suitable areas for computer use. Schultz (2000) emphasized that the integration of computers into writing has in turn supported the paradigm shift in teaching of writing from a product-oriented approach which reinforced the idea of a writer as a person working alone to produce a grammatically correct piece of writing for the teacher to read and comment on it alone, to a process-oriented approach where the writer engages in recursive stages that include prewriting, drafting, and revising to produce a piece of writing and work in small groups on authentic writing tasks and thus, coinciding with the communicative goals of foreign language classroom. Furthermore, Schultz (2000) stressed that the process approach to writing which occupies a significant place in the field of foreign language composition advocates the use of computers in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) writing.

Computer mediated feedback is actually administered through the usage of Web 2.0 tools. These technologies which are referred to as Web 2.0 tools (blogs, wikis, microblogging; twitter, web Quests, and social networking, Facebook) actually give EFL writers the chance to "incorporate audiovisual features, organize texts non-linearly though links to other texts, and revise texts easily," (MacArthur & Karchmer-Klein,2010, p. 46). The usage of Web 2.0 tools is an essential component in learner-centered EFL writing classes and thus has very well grounded theoretical support .Hence, theoretically speaking, having students collaborate, interact, and work together through the usage of interactive Web 2.0 technology in second language acquisition is supported and advocated by SLA language learning theories such as Long and Porter's (1985) psycholinguistic theory of interaction and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of mind. Storch (2007) stated that both aforementioned theories confirm that interaction is essential for EFL classes. Therefore, I believe that Lebanese EFL teachers should come to understand the affordances of these new interactive tools because frankly speaking, the Lebanese curriculum is practically based on the aforementioned theories that support the adoption of Web 2.0 tools in EFL writing class. To elaborate, in the Lebanese context, where English is taught as a foreign language starting from the early years of schooling, EFL teachers are currently implementing the new Lebanese national curriculum. It was first launched in the academic year 1998-1999 which witnessed the implementation of the new curriculum for the first years of the four cycles. More critically, the new curriculum adopted a process-oriented approach to writing instruction. According to Shaaban and Ghaith (1997, p. 204) "the new curriculum proclaims process-oriented view of composing which involves having learners go through the following stages: pre-writing, writing, revising, and publishing". Moreover,

cooperative learning was adopted as a framework for managing classroom interaction. Shaaban and Ghaith (1997) suggested "in order to enable mixed-ability groups of students to successfully achieve the objectives set in the curriculum, we adopted cooperative learning as a framework for managing classroom interaction" (p. 202). Furthermore, the materials selected in order to prepare instructional units were actually authentic materials chosen in accordance with the needs of the students, level, age, linguistic composition, prior knowledge. Shaaban and Ghaith (1997) stipulated "of particular concern to us was the development of theme-based packages of instructional materials that are authentic, exploitable, and relevant to the theme under study" (p.204). Moreover, the new Lebanese curriculum calls for the implementation and integration of information and communications technology (ICT) within all levels of the Lebanese general education system (NCERD, 1995). More critically, the Lebanese curriculum proclaims teaching and learning strategies based on the assumptions proposed by theories of social and cognitive constructivism respectively theorized by Vygotsky (1978) and Piaget (1950). Reflecting on all the aforementioned components of the new Lebanese curriculum, I believe that Web 2.0 tools can easily find their ways into pedagogical practices in EFL writing Lebanese curriculum.

No studies have been conducted on training college EFL Lebanese students in peer response while taking into account the context in which peer response should occur, whether traditional face-to-face mode or networked mode, and how training these students effects their writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response and attitudes toward writing. A worthy note is that two studies have been detected by the researcher that deals with peer editing (Diab, 2010, 2011). However, these two existing studies do not deal with an in depth focus on peer response. Thus, the aforementioned Lebanese researcher's

main concern was to compare peer editing to self-editing and examine their effects on Lebanese students' revisions of language errors (Diab, 2010, 2011). Moreover, a study done by Shabaan (2001) examined the effect of collaborative learning on the writing progress of tenth grade students but never tackled peer response in both modes traditional vs. electronic.

Moreover, the researcher thought that there is a need for further research on the effectiveness of grouping ESL students into active groups of peer response due to the contradicting evidence and problematic issues reported by research literature which indicated that peer response has drawbacks due to limited linguistic knowledge (Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Villamil and de Guerrero, 1996), limited knowledge of broader issues of meaning (Leki, 1990; Nelson and Murphy, 1993), inappropriate perceptions toward peer feedback (Nelson and Carson, 1998; Chong, 2010), and cross cultural nature (Nelson and Murphy, 1993; Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Chong, 2010, Nelson and Carson, 1998). Therefore, the preceding line of research suggests that EFL students have to be explicitly trained so that they would become more effective peer respondents. Interestingly enough, peer response training can be done within various contexts (traditional face-to-face mode or computer-mediated, networked mode). In fact, there was a consensus among the researchers in the findings that computer-mediated communication should be blended and integrated with traditional , face-to-face interaction during peer response process (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001). I think Lebanese ESL writers could use a little technology added to their writing. More importantly, Lebanese EFL teachers should be encouraged to take an inquiry stance toward their practice. They should be well aware of the importance of Web 2.0 tools in engaging their L2 students in a collaborative learning environment.

Significance

This study has implications to both theory and practice. To theory, there should be more research on peer response whether being applied in a traditional face-to-face mode or computer-mediated mode. Hence, researchers need to investigate novice facets of peer response, especially the role of training college EFL Lebanese students in the peer response approach and how it effects EFL students' writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response and attitudes towards writing.

More critically, it is really important to emphasize peer group instruction in EFL writing classroom. First, it builds EFL students' communicative competence which takes its cues from the communicative approach that emerged as a result of a paradigm shift that took place when linguistics stopped focusing heavily on language structure and aimed at acquiring communicative competence through connecting language structure, language use, and communication (Canale and Swain, 1980).

Canale and Swain (1980) refer to communicative competence as "the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use" (p.6). Therefore, the use of peer response coincides with the communicative language teaching approach to L2 instruction and provides L2 learners the chance to use their learned language in meaningful context by communicating and negotiating meaning through interacting with others (Hadley, 2001).

The use of small group or pair work peer response is strongly supported by two major theories of language learning which are long's (1983) the psycholinguistic theory of interaction, and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of mind. Hence, both theories underscore the significance of interaction for learning as does the communicative language teaching approach mentioned earlier. Even more recently, in his revised interaction hypothesis Long (1999) underscores the importance of constructive feedback which is provided through peer response to (SLA) second language acquisition (as cited in Storch, 2007). Hence, according to Long (1999) constructive feedback, whether explicitly stated through corrections or implicitly stated through requests for clarification, plays an important role in raising ESL students' knowledge of problematical issues in their utterances whether spoken or written (as cited in Storch, 2007). Therefore, it is imperative that researchers and practitioners conduct more studies in order to develop a thorough understanding of writing as a cognitive-social process.

The integration of computers into humanities and particularly into the writing curriculum is essential and a key consideration to be borne in mind. Hence, Schultz (2000) stresses that the process approach to writing which occupies a significant place in the field of foreign language composition advocates the use of computers in EFL writing. However, in spite of the constant calls for the usage of computers in foreign language writing curriculum, practitioners are still reluctant on embarking on this endeavor because the effect of computer use on EFL writing skills still needs more rigorous investigation. More critically, concrete studies of computers' actual benefits for EFL writing within a Lebanese context are urgently needed; particularly the possibility for using computer technology in

the process approach peer review should be examined. Moreover, EFL Lebanese, practitioners, teachers, and students need to be provided with empirical studies like this proposed study which raises some essential issues concerning student writing improvement and computer use.

Recognizing the breadth of the issue, there should be studies that show if peer response (face-to-face mode, networked mode, or a combination of both) is effective in a different cultural context, a Lebanese context. Hence, Nelson and Carson (1998) point out that in most research studies that address how effective peer response is; the subjects were mostly college students who were mainly studying in the USA. Therefore, more studies are needed in the Arab world context, specifically, within a Lebanese context.

The study will provide practitioners with procedural knowledge in coaching and training college EFL Lebanese students within a cognitive process-approach to writing. So, in addition to the training procedures which encompass classroom demonstrations in peer response, the study will also focus on extra assistance outside classroom (using networked, computer-mediated response). There is a need for more research on how to incorporate technology effectively both inside and outside the EFL writing classrooms through peer interactions. Moreover, there is a need for this type of research currently with the implementation of the new Lebanese curriculum and all the changes which it has caused in teaching methodologies such as the introduction of communicative teaching, cooperative learning, educational technology, and new writing methods such as the process approach to writing (Shaaban, 2013). In addition to adding to the currently available literature, the results of this study would provide practitioners and EFL language teachers in Lebanon with evidence related to different modes of peer response in EFL writing. In addition, the results

would draw practitioners' attention to the instruction of the process approach to writing. Therefore, the results of this study can play a huge role in EFL students' development of being good writers.

Statement of Hypotheses

The following null research hypotheses were formulated to direct the study:

H1: There will be no significant differences in students' writing performance (achievement) across peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

H2: There will be no statistically significant differences in students' revision types across peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

H3: There will be no statistically significant differences in students' attitudes towards writing across peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

H4: There will be no significant differences in students' perceptions towards peer response across peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

Rationale of Hypotheses

The usage of Web 2.0 tools is an essential component in learner-centered language and thus has very well grounded theoretical support. Theoretically speaking, having students collaborate, interact, and work together through the usage of interactive Web 2.0 technology in second language acquisition is supported and advocated by SLA language learning theories such as Long and Porter's (1985) psycholinguistic theory of interaction and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of mind. Storch (2007) stated that both aforementioned theories confirm that interaction is essential for ESL (English as a second language) classes. Ellis (1990) demonstrated that Long's (1983) psycholinguistic theory of interaction emphasized that language acquisition is the result of reception rather than production of L2 (second language) discourse. He illustrates that Long's (1983) theory posits that meaning-focused communication amongst language learners in the form of "conversational adjustments" suchlike confirmations, negotiations, and clarifications can ease the process of second language leaning by giving the learners numerous chances to negotiate meaning when there is a communication problem. Therefore, the interactions between learners are necessary for second language acquisition to be acquired.

The social-cognitive dimensions of Web 2.0 interactive tools in L2 writing can be understood through Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theoretical perspective. The basic notion of the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective is that higher forms of thinking originate in social interactions. According to Vygotsky (1978) learning is constructed through collaboration, interaction, and communication among learners in a socio-cultural context. Thus, Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (SCT) underscores the social dimension of the learning process. Vygotsky emphasizes the impact of social interactions on empowering

cognitive development. In other words, socio-cultural factors and cognition have an interdependent relationship where knowledge and learning are mediated through cooperation, communication, interaction, and mutual understandings amongst L2 (second language) learners in communicative social settings (Vygotsky, 1978). More importantly, Vygotsky's famous term "scaffolding" is well established in Web 2.0 tools which provide students with the opportunity to interact and collaborate, and therefore "scaffold" classmates by their peers and / or teacher. Specifically, Storch (2007, p. 144) used the term "collective scaffolding" and identified it as "the process whereby learners pool their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problems they encounter".

Additionally, the integration of computers into humanities and particularly into the writing curriculum is so important because according to Schultz (2000) if practitioners do not do so they run the risk of increasing obsolescence. The researcher refers to Lanham (1993) to point out that the field of foreign language writing in particular is one of the most suitable areas for computer use. Schultz (2000) emphasizes that the integration of computers into writing has in turn supported the paradigm shift in teaching of writing from a product-oriented approach which reinforced the idea of a writer as a person working alone to produce a grammatically correct piece of writing for the teacher to read and comment on it alone; to a process-oriented approach where the writer engages in recursive stages that include prewriting, drafting, and revising to produce a piece of writing and work in small groups on authentic writing tasks and thus coinciding with the communicative goals of foreign language classroom. Furthermore, Schultz (2000) stresses that the process approach to writing which occupies a significant place in the field of foreign language composition advocates the use of computers in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) writing.

Since Web 2.0 tools are supported by the different theoretical stances mentioned before, I believe that Lebanese L2 teachers should come to understand the affordances of these new interactive tools because frankly speaking, the Lebanese curriculum is practically based on the aforementioned theories that support the adoption of Web 2.0 tools in L2 writing class. To elaborate, in the Lebanese context, where English is taught as a foreign language starting from the early years of schooling, L2 teachers are currently implementing the new Lebanese national curriculum. It was first launched in the academic year 1998-1999 which witnessed the implementation of the new curriculum for the first years of the four cycles. More critically, the new curriculum adopted a process-oriented approach to writing instruction. According to Shaaban and Ghaith (1997, p. 204) "the new curriculum proclaims process-oriented view of composing which involves having learners go through the following stages: pre-writing, writing, revising, and publishing". Moreover, cooperative learning was adopted as a framework for managing classroom interaction. Shaaban and Ghaith (1997) suggested "in order to enable mixed-ability groups of students to successfully achieve the objectives set in the curriculum, we adopted cooperative learning as a framework for managing classroom interaction" (p. 202). Furthermore, the materials selected in order to prepare instructional units were actually authentic materials chosen in accordance with the needs of the students, level, age, linguistic composition, prior knowledge. Shaaban and Ghaith (1997) stipulated "of particular concern to us was the development of theme-based packages of instructional materials that are authentic, exploitable, and relevant to the theme under study (p.204). Moreover, the new Lebanese curriculum calls for the implementation and integration of information and communications technology (ICT) within all levels of the Lebanese general education system (NCERD,

1995). More critically, the Lebanese curriculum proclaims teaching and learning strategies based on the assumptions proposed by theories of social and cognitive constructivism respectively theorized by Vygotsky (1978) and Piaget (1950). Reflecting on all the aforementioned components of the new Lebanese curriculum, I believe that Web 2.0 tools can easily find their ways into pedagogical practices in L2 writing Lebanese curriculum. Therefore, because of the valid theoretical background provided by the process-oriented writing approach, Vygotskian perspective, collaborative learning, and the psycholinguistic theories of interaction concerning the development of L2 (second language) learners, it is expected that trained university-bound EFL writers who use peer response in its different modes will exhibit significantly better progress in writing performance, perform meaning-level revisions rather than surface level revisions, demonstrate more positive perceptions towards peer response and attitudes towards writing than those college EFL writers who do not receive training in peer response.

Definition of Terms

Traditional Classroom Writing

Boscolo and Gelati (2007) classroom writing took the shape of a solitary behavior where students could convey what they learned to be subsequently evaluated by the teacher. Hence, old fashioned, traditional instruction in writing underscores the teaching of writing skills more than anything and the most significant emphasis of becoming knowledgeable in writing according to Boscolo and Gelati (2007) is that it is an essential school subject area to be studied.

On another note, as an EFL learner I have come to notice that my EFL teachers were advocates of the traditional classroom writing. Thus, they were product – oriented in such a way that their emphasis was on the writing product rather than the writing process. Unfortunately, they were far from teaching the actual process of composition. Looking back, most of their instruction was based on the traditional classroom writing. Hence, their instruction was focused on the knowing that of writing (rules of language, organization, mechanics). Therefore, the emphasis was basically on correct usage, correct grammar, correct spelling, the topic sentence, and the concluding sentence.

Admittedly, my teachers didn't focus on the knowing how (process) of the composing process.

Process Approach to Writing

In the past few years, writing instruction had shifted from focusing on the written product to focusing on the writing process. Therefore, writing became a set of recursive stages that writers engage in so that they would be able to produce their final written product. These recursive stages include pre-drafting, drafting, revising, and publishing.

Huff and Kline (1987) have devised a functional model of the composing process which included prewriting, drafting, and revision where the writer can go back to any stage to do additional modification or add new ideas. The aforementioned researchers aimed at integrating the model in the writing curriculum by teaching students how to get involved in the recursive stages of writing and therefore internalize this model. In such a non-linear model, each of these stages includes many steps that are interrelated as a feedback loop since writers may go back to any stage and do additional changes or add new information.

Peer Response

Hansen and Liu (2005, p. 31) defined peer response as:

> the use of learners as sources of information, and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher , tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing (as cited in Hansen and Liu, 2002:I).

Moreover, Hu (2005) defined peer response which is also known as peer feedback; also known as peer review, or peer response as " a collaborative activity involving students reading, critiquing and providing feedback on each other's writing, both to secure immediate textual improvement and to develop , over time, stronger writing competence via mutual scaffolding" (p.321). Peer response is also known as peer review, peer editing, peer tutoring, or peer critiquing.

Revision Types

According to Huff and Kline (1978, p.53) revision is identified as " not merely cosmetic touch -up of a draft, but rewriting to improve organization and transitions, editing to improve diction, sentence structure, and paragraph coherence, and proofing to correct errors in syntax, usage, and spelling."

Faigley and Witte (1981) described taxonomy for analyzing written revision of composed texts. The authors considered their taxonomy a research tool which could be used with other research tools in order to study and analyze composed texts. Moreover, Faigley and Witte (1981) referred to Kintsch and Van Dijk's theoretical model; more specifically the macro structural model; in order to build and develop their taxonomy for analyzing revision.

Faigley and Witte (1981) state that they had found the macrostructure theory useful for “distinguishing major and minor revision changes in written texts” (p. 404). Faigley and Witte's (1981) taxonomy of revision changes includes two types of revisions for written texts. These types of revisions are surface changes and meaning changes. Surface changes, to elaborate, are the changes that do not change the meaning of the text. Moreover, surface changes encompass two kinds of changes which are known as Formal Changes and Meaning - preserving Changes.

Concerning Formal Changes, they are considered as copy - editing changes such changes that occur in mechanical and grammatical areas such as spelling, and tenses. On the other hand, Meaning - Preserving Changes provide restatement of written ideas without changing the meaning of the text. Faigely and Witte’s taxonomy also includes an important category which the authors named “Text - Based Changes" or "Meaning Changes". This category includes two subcategories: Microstructure and Macrostructure changes which modify the meaning of the written text by innovatively adding new ideas which were not mentioned before. According to Faigley and Witte (1981, p. 404) microstructure changes include “simple adjustments or elaborations” which are minor changes of the meaning of written texts and therefore do not alter the "gist or overall meaning" of the written product. However, macrostructure modifications are changes which alter the "gist of the text". Hence, a macrostructure change is a major revision change that would "alter the summary of the text". So, Faigley and Witte (1981) claimed that they had found a systematic way of differentiating minor and major changes of the meaning of the composed texts. (See Figure 1 below)

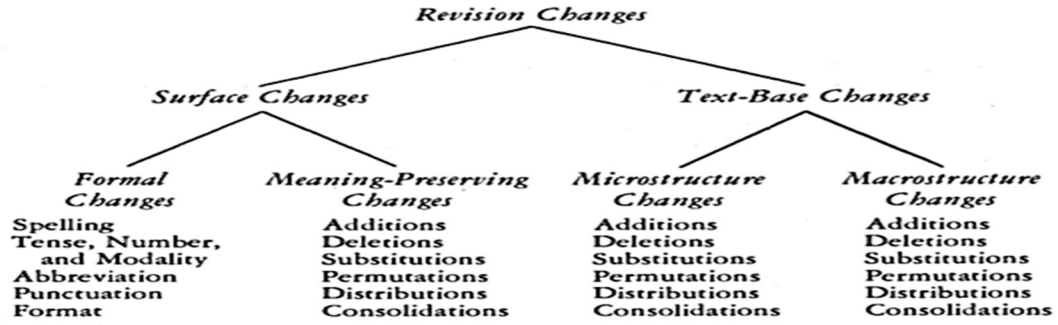

Figure 1. *Faigley and Witte's (1981) taxonomy of revisions.*

By coding six types of operations (See figure above: additions, deletions, substitutions, permutations, distributions, consolidations) and coding six linguistic levels (such as graphic or lexical changes), Faigley and Witte have devised the first taxonomy of revisions that account for revisions related to both the semantic structure and the syntactic aspects of texts. Faigley and Witte (1981) insisted that their research tool is reliable and they reported the high score of inter-rater reliability reached by two researchers 90% agreement on the types of revisions represented in the taxonomy. The revision taxonomy was used in many studies which examined the effective benefits of trained peer response (Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Berg, 1999; Paulus, 1999; Min, 2006, Ting and Qian, 2010).

Students' Attitudes towards Writing

Attitude is commonly defined as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object". More critically, and applied to students' attitudes towards writing, Graham, Berninger, and Fan (2007, p. 518) operationally defined an individual's attitude towards writing as "an affective disposition involving how the act of writing makes the author feel , ranging from happy to unhappy".

According to Boscolo and Gelati (2007) students develop a group of implicit belief systems about the subject matter of writing at school. In fact, Boscolo and Gelati (2007) defined motivation to write as basically a students' attitude which influences involvement in the writing task. Hence, the authors argued that to be engaged in writing, students should have a sense of competence and a sense of meaningfulness of the writing activities they are engaged in. So, basically, Boscolo and Gelati (2007, p. 203) argued that "motivation to write is an attitude to, or view of writing" rather than just a will or drive. To illustrate, the researchers point out that motivation to write is based on a set of beliefs that are developed by students through writing activities. Boscolo and Gelati (2007) posited that students' attitude toward writing affects the way they approach certain writing tasks and the extent to which they have the willingness to engage in those writing tasks. More critically, Boscolo and Gelati (2007) pointed out that students usually develop personal meaning of writing through classroom activities. Therefore, students are expected to develop positive attitudes to writing for sure, if they are able to perceive writing as a means of communication in the real world.

Computer-Mediated Peer Response

Hyland and Hyland (2006) explained that computer-mediated peer response involves the provision of peer feedback through technology. It provides the opportunity to explore technology as a means to "promote interaction about writing through peer response groups" (p.109). Moreover, Tuzi (2004, p. 217) defined electronic feedback (e-feedback) as "feedback in digital, written form and transmitted via the web".

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter contains four sections that review literature related to peer response. The first section includes the theoretical framework stances that underlie peer response. The second section deals with the nature and effects of peer response in EFL setting. The third section embodies the rigorous affective components of motivation which has to do with students' attitudes towards writing and their perceptions towards peer response. The fourth section embodies the role of the computer in conveying mediated feedback.

Theoretical Stances That Support Peer Response

Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The usage of peer response is an essential component in learner-centered language and thus has very well grounded theoretical and pedagogical buttress. Theoretically speaking, having students work together through the usage of peer interactions in second language acquisition is supported and advocated by SLA language learning theories such as Long and Porter's (1985) psycholinguistic theory of interaction, in addition to Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of mind. Storch (2007) states that both theories (Theory of Interaction and Sociocultural Theory) confirm that interactions are essential for ESL (English as a second language) classes. Ellis (1990) demonstrates that Long's (1983) psycholinguistic theory of interaction emphasizes that language acquisition is the result of reception rather than production of L2 discourse. He illustrates that Long's (1983) theory

posits that meaning-focused communication amongst language learners in the form of "conversational adjustments" suchlike confirmations, negotiations, and clarifications can ease the process of second language leaning by giving the learners numerous chances to negotiate meaning when there is a communication problem. Therefore, the interactions between learners are necessary for second language acquisition to be acquired.

Moreover, interaction and second language acquisition (SLA) researchers Long and Porter (1985) argued that EFL learners need to be motivated to interact meaningfully, and negotiate meaning vigorously because it is the interaction among EFL learners that builds their communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) refer to communicative competence as "interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use" (p.6). Consequently, engaging learners in group activities help learners gain additional practices in the target language and therefore facilitates second language acquisition (Hansen and Liu, 2005).

Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT)

The social-cognitive dimensions of peer response can be understood through Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theoretical perspective. The basic notion of the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective is that higher forms of thinking originate in social interactions. According to Vygotsky (1978) learning is constructed through collaboration, interaction, and communication among learners in a socio-cultural context. Thus, Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (SCT) underscores the social dimension of the learning process. Vygotsky emphasizes the impact of social interactions on empowering cognitive development. In

other words, socio-cultural factors and cognition have an interdependent relationship where knowledge and learning are mediated through cooperation, communication, interaction, and mutual understandings amongst L2 learners in communicative social settings (Vygotsky, 1978). Furthermore, Vygotsky held that self-regulation techniques such as planning, problem solving, and evaluation occur through interaction and collaboration with others; specifically, they occur within what he termed as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.85).

Hence, the ZPD embodies the difference between the actual level, i.e. what novice learners are able to do by depending on themselves and what those novice learners can perform when directed or guided by experts of better performance. Moreover, Villamil and Guerrero (2006) insisted that Vygotsky did not limit mediation in the ZPD to that of teachers or adults, instead he significantly made peer mediation an essential means that can lead to the development self-regulation and independent problem-solving. Vygotsky (1987, p.90) claims that

> an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development; that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's developmental achievement (as cited in Villamil and Guerrero, 2006, p. 25)

More critically, Villamil and Guerrero (1998) cited Ohta (1995, p.96) who defined the ZPD concept in terms of second language acquisition as "the difference between the L2 learner's developmental level as determined by independent language use, and the higher level of potential development as determined by how language is used in collaboration with a more capable interlocutor". This led to the identification of a vigorous notion in the Vygotskian theory known as scaffolding. Villamil and Guerrero (2006) pointed out that the notion of scaffolding which is operationally defined as the supportive behaviors provided by well-informed partners (expert level) as they interact and collaborate with less knowledgeable partners (novice level). Villamil and Guerrero (2006) added that these supportive scaffolding behaviors refer to interactive situations where a more knowledgeable (expert) participant can help an amateur (novice) participant achieve more proficient and higher levels of competence. Moreover, Villamil and Guerrero (2006) emphasize that since intellectual growth occurs by social interaction, this means that L2 language learners need to be successfully scaffolded to ensure progress within their ZPDs. More importantly, Storch (2007) insists that scaffolding in second language acquisition (SLA) is not exclusive to teacher-learner interaction. The researcher cited Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) to indicate that scaffolding can occur in peer interaction as well. Storch (2007, p. 144) used the term "collective scaffolding" and identified it as "the process whereby learners pool their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problems they encounter". Therefore, Villamil and Guerrero (2006) emphasize the teachers should give L2 learners the opportunities to interact with a variety of peers so that successful scaffolding could occur and therefore, partners would be able to receive strategic assistance accordingly and transfer the skills they possess and the potentials and competencies they already have.

More critically, concerning the applicability of ZPD to language learning; particularly, in classroom context where SLA (second langue acquisition occurs, Ohta (1995) argued that it differs greatly from the context in which learners acquire their L1 since it tends to be more teacher-centred and traditional. Ohta (1995) maintained that for the concept of ZPD to be incorporated within L2, language learners should be given the opportunities to use their L2 freely and creatively in collaborating with others, negotiating meaning, or simply participating in unstructured conversation. Along similar note, Roy (1989) insisted that since writing, especially L2 (second language) writing, helps in the development of ESL Language learners' higher order thinking, the writing process should be viewed as a problem solving process in the ZPD. Therefore, a high level of control of language use by the teacher in writing may not be helpful and may actually hinder the language acquisition process. Therefore, a Vygotskian view of interactive learning incorporates the required conditions of language learning such as the teacher, the learner, their specific cultural and historical contexts, their cognitive development, their goals, motives, and the institutional contexts or settings within they function (Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994; Villamil and Guerrero, 2006). Most importantly, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) agreed that constructive feedback within the concept of ZPD should be tailor-made according to L2 learners' particular needs, abilities, and their current competencies.

However, social encounters do not always lead to development. Hence, Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995) warn that not all expert / novice interaction will lead to L2 development. According to Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995) fossilized language learners are learners with no ZPD. In this case, the foreign language learners will reach a certain proficiency level and

stabilize at this level, so the language ceases to develop; therefore an interaction with an expert will barely result with any changes (Han, 2012).

The Cognitive Process Theory of Writing

The process of putting ideas into visible language or what is known as "writing" is cognitively demanding and is characterized with complexity. Hence, writers have to mind different aspects of writing conventions such as structure, organization, and the written discourse. Furthermore, Flower and Hayes (1981) insisted that the cognitive process theory of writing they had theorized "recognizes the basic thinking processes which unite planning and revision" (p. 367).

Along similar lines, Flower and Hayes (1981) confirmed that the cognitive process theory of writing they theorized suggests that the writing process doesn't move in a straight line from conception to completion. The aforementioned researchers argued that the writing process which usually leads to a written product; the essay for instance; is a process that consists of recursive stages that writers can always revisit and therefore is and not characterized by linearity. Moreover, Huff and Kline (1987) elaborated on the before mentioned conception by devising a well-thought of functional model of the composing process which includes the recursive stages of the writing process (pre-drafting, drafting, revising, and editing), and insisted that these stages should be integrated in the writing curriculum. Huff and Kline (1987) emphasized that learners should internalize the model they already proposed through engaging them in the aforementioned stages of the writing process which have a recursive nature. Furthermore, Boscolo and Gelati (2007) noted that the cognitive approach to writing reveals writing as a highly cognitively demanding problem

solving procedure where the solution is found through the production of a text that achieves the communicative goals of the writers, namely, communicating to an audience. Therefore, Huff and Kline (1987) declared that practitioners should take it on trust that if theory and practice can determine the effectiveness of peer response, it is worth that peer response groups must be educated and trained. Consequently, prominent authorities in L2 writing have drawn the attention of practitioners to the importance of revision and called for placing it at the heart of the writing process (Huff and Kline, 1987; Ferris, 2003; Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Zamel, 1985, 1987; Min, 2006).

Cognitive Process Model of Revision

Flower, L., Hayes, J. R., Carey, L., Schriver, K., & Stratman, J. (1986) presented a cognitive process model of revision that revisers can use for discovering potential problems in written texts, deciding upon those problems, and choosing the most suitable revision strategies according to the diagnosis they have formulated. Flower et al. (1986) had theorized this theory of revision which they embodied in the cognitive process theory of writing mentioned above in an attempt to discover the knowledge revisers use and how they manage the options that the complex process of revision offers them.

Collaborative Leaning Theory

Many EFL writing instructors are using peer response in their L2 writing classes as a reaction for the skyrocketed popularity of the Collaborative Learning Theory which was theorized by Johnson and Johnson (1987).

Brufee (1984) tries to raise practitioners' awareness of collaborative learning theory by insisting that this theory maintains that learning is an activity that is constructed through social contact which takes place through collaborating, interacting, and communicating with peers where certain higher order skills are acquired. Collaboration, which according to Bruffee (1984, p. 652) is a "social engagement in intellectual pursuits" which helps students learn how to work reciprocally to maximize their own and each other's' learning. Moreover, the researcher emphasized that peer response fits perfectly into collaborative learning as students develop the ability to pinpoint the structural elements of their peers' written products, essays, paraphrase tem and provide highly meaningful and constructive comments on their peers' papers. Storch (2007) insisted that when practitioners provide L2 learners with the chance to work collaboratively, they consequently create more opportunities for them for better language learning. The researcher cites Swain (2000, p.102) who defines collective dialogue which occurs during collaboration as "dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building". Furthermore, Richards and Rogers (2001, p. 192) declared that Cooperative Learning (CL) is part of Collaborative Learning, the latter being considered "a more general instructional approach compared to cooperative learning".

Therefore, feedback fits perfectly well in Olsen and Kagan's (1992, p.8) constructively defined cooperative learning as

> a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (as cited in Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 192).

In second language acquisition (SLA), Cooperative learning (CL) is often referred to as Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) which according to Richards and Rogers (2001) has been adopted as a way of promoting communicative interaction in L2 classes. Earlier, Bruffee (1984) proposed that when students work together, some may not have the ability or the skills needed to accomplish the assigned task; therefore they "pool the resources" that are brought by different members of a group and are therefore utilized in order to finish the required writing task successfully. Bruffee's statement was echoed by Storch (2007, p. 144) who defined collective scaffolding that occurs in group work as "the process whereby learners pool their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problem they encounter". Storch (2007) elaborates that through collaborative learning, language learners get involved in "co-constructing new knowledge of and about language" (p.144).

The Nature and Effects of Peer Response in EFL Settings

In recent years, the social breadth of writing has been greatly stressed by the social constructivist approach to literacy learning. This approach according to Boscolo and Gelati (2007) posits that writing has become a social activity not only because what one writes can be read in class, but also because writing can be performed in an interactive context. Sivey (1996) analyzed the various aspects of the social dimension in writing, namely, the collaborative construction of a text, the revision through which a text is improved, and intertextuality, through which a writer uses what others have written (as cited in Boscolo and Gelati, 2007, p. 210). Therefore, the social dimension of writing is directly relate to

reading, co-constructing a text, specifically when students collaborate in class and share written ideas and thoughts with schoolmates / peers (Boscolo and Gelati ,2007).

The Advantages of Peer Response in EFL Writing Classes

The role of peer response is a very important issue in L2 (second Language) writing. Peer response was introduced into L2 settings from L1 (first language) contexts under the premise that if peer response was beneficial and advantageous for L1 learners, then it was assumed to be beneficial and good for L2 learners as well. What was good for one (L1 learners) was good for the other (L2 learners). A lot of research papers on issues concerned with L2 writing and response are hugely influenced by L1 sources (Ferris, 2003).

According to Ferris (2003), L2 writing as a separate area of inquiry is still at its early stages because it is too much dependent on insights from L1 writing research and pedagogy. Zamel (1985, 1987) argued for allowing understandings and insights from research on L1 writing and response to direct and lead research in L2 writing within ESL writing context. The researcher emphasizes that practitioners should use the process approach to writing with ESL students. Zamel (1985) suggested that EFL teachers should ask students to write multiple drafts. They should establish collaborative relationship with their students where writers and readers "work together face-to-face" (Zamel, 1985, p. 97). Along similar lines, proponents of peer feedback claimed that it has cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic benefits in ESL writing class (Mendonça and Johnson, 1994; Hansen and Liu, 2005; Villamil and De Guerrero, 1998; MacArthur, 2007; Ting and Qian, 2010; Storch, 2007).

Mendonça and Johnson (1994) focused on the beneficial effects of peer reviews. The researchers examined how EFL college students' interactions led to the inclusion of suggested peer comments. The subjects were 12 advanced nonnative speakers of English enrolled in a high intermediate, advanced writing class. Peer reviews took place in pairs. Each pair gave oral feedback on each other's papers based on guided questions given by the teacher. Students' oral feedback was tape-recorded and transcriptions of peer review sessions were analyzed. Moreover, EFL participants were responsible for revising their peers' first written drafts, evaluate their peers' written, suggested comments, and make intellectual decisions whether to include their peers' suggested comments in their revised drafts or to exclude them. Later, Mendonça and Johnson (1994) collected students' first drafts (pre -peer response) and final drafts (post-peer response) and analyzed them in order to identify evidence of revisions in the written texts. In addition, the researchers conducted post interviews which were tape recorded and transcribed to pinpoint if the subjects were able to perceive their peers' comments as beneficial, and therefore had incorporated their peers' suggested comments in their revisions, in addition to the way they have incorporated the comments. The post interviews were also examined to examine the participants' perceptions of the usefulness of peer reviews. Two trained raters who had high scores of inter-rater reliability coded the transcription of peer review and analyzed them using analytic induction procedures. The raters also analyzed students' produced first and final drafts to make sure that participants had actually incorporated feedback provided by their peers. The findings showed that writers incorporated their peers' suggested comments in 53 % of the conditions supporting the argument that peer response actually improves students' ability to communicate by motivating students to exchange their ideas rigorously. Results of

the study also support the idea that peer response is a very well appreciated kind of feedback, especially in EFL writing teaching. Therefore, Mendonça and Johnson (1994) recommend that L2 teachers give ESL students chances to negotiate their written essays with their peers since peer response allows L2 learners to exchange their ideas as well as develop an awareness of audience. In spite of the fact that the researchers acknowledged that their small sample size (12 students) does not allow generalization to other writers in other contexts; their study was among a paucity of studies which have investigated at how students' exchange of comments led to the inclusion of their peers' suggested comments. Along similar lines, Nelson and Murphy (1993) examined the effectiveness of peer revision among EFL learners. The subjects who attended an intermediate EFL writing course were four students (2 males and 2 females) who were actually selected to form a four-person peer response group. Nelson and Murphy (1993) wanted to determine whether those selected L2 students changed their written drafts based on suggested comments offered by their peers who participated in the peer response. Peer negotiations were videotaped, students' rough drafts (first, preliminary drafts) and final drafts (second drafts after peer review) were analyzed.

Two raters who achieved a high inter-rater reliability independently read students' last drafts to check whether or not students did revise their drafts based on their peers' suggestions. The raters used a 5-point coding scale where a point of 1 indicated that students did not take the peers' suggestions into consideration; whereas a score of 5 indicated that students did incorporate all or nearly all of their peers' comments in their revised drafts. Transcripts of videotaped peer interactions were coded as "interactive" or "non-interactive". Moreover, "interactive" sessions were either coded as "cooperative" where peers

constructively engaged in the discussion; or coded as "defensive" where peers disagreed with each other. Results indicated that when student writers cooperatively negotiated their ideas with their peers, they were more willing to use their peers' suggested comments in revising their own essays. However, when student writers interacted defensively with their peers or even refused to participate communicatively, they were less likely to incorporate their peers' suggested comments to their revisions. Therefore, Nelson and Murphy (1993) insisted that it is the duty of the EFL teachers to make sure that peer communication and negotiation is meaningful, purposeful, and constructive. The researchers proposed well-defined strategies and procedures in forming and conducting L2 peer response groups. They emphasized that teachers should demonstrate how responses are made such as paraphrasing, rephrasing, requesting clarifications before embarking on peer response activities. Their statement is echoed by Hansen and Liu (2005) who offered guidelines principles for peer response in L2 settings. The researchers indicate that the principles they propose have been field tested at college composition levels. Hansen and Liu (2005) discuss that peer response requires a lot of teacher planning and student preparation and training before, during, and after the peer response process. Along similar note, MacArthur (2007) insisted that strategy instruction is highly effective in enhancing students' revision skills and overall quality of their writing. Moreover, the researcher emphasizes that most strategy instruction in revision "pulls together elements of evaluation criteria, peer interaction, and self-regulation" (MacArthur, 2007, p. 161). Therefore, Nelson and Murphy (1993) declared that teachers' instructional strategies should facilitate greater cooperation among group members so that EFL writers develop awareness of audience and enhance their written compositions through participating in successful peer response episodes. Similar, and even perhaps more poignant,

Villamil and Guerrero (1998) suggested that peer response provides students with a strategic competence in revision. Such a strategy will definitely become an asset to them academically and professionally. The researchers conducted a study to investigate the effect of peer response on ESL students' last drafts. Fourteen intermediate EFL college students (eight females and six males) were paired up at random. After training the participants in peer feedback by revising sample student essays and discussing and clarifying revision procedures, Villamil and Guerrero (1998) assigned revision sessions where students took the roles of reader-writer duos. Each pair tape recorded all their instructions while they revised their drafts. At the end of every in-class revision session, student writers had to write a final draft which they had to revise and submit within a period of a week.

More critically, the transcribed tapes, the first drafts, the final revised drafts and the comments written on the revision sheets were all collected for analysis purposes in order to gain more insights on the essence of peer response and how it affects students' final revised drafts. Results reported that students incorporated 74% of the revisions which were made during peer revision sessions. Therefore, peer response was considered to have a significant effect on revising because most suggested comments were included in the final written versions i.e. final drafts.

After thinking and reading around the area, Villamil and Guerrero's (1998) finding corroborate with those of Mendonça and Johnson (1994) and Nelson and Murphy (1993) which reveal L2 learners' carefully selected choices decisions about incorporating their peers' comments in to their final written products is strongly affected by the nature of peer interactions. Hence, interactions where students worked cooperatively yielded to more incorporation of peer comments than defensive negotiations that were characterized by

clashes and disagreements. As such, Storch (2007) explains that during peer response, learners are usually involved in a process of "pooling their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problems they encounter" (p.144). Storch (2002, 2007) refers to this process as "collective scaffolding". Hence, in a study she conducted on undergraduate ESL students, Storch (2007) examined the advantages of collaborative pair work learning by comparing pair and individual work on an editing task and by interpreting and analyzing the nature of pair work negotiations. The study employed an experimental design where four intact EFL classes through which students participated in editing tasks. Students in the first group was placed in pairs and had to edit a text. The second group had to do the editing task individually. The last two groups were selective in nature where students decided to either work alone or with someone they wanted to be their partner. Moreover, pair work in class A was audio-recorded. The data collected consisted of 20 edited texts which were developed by pairs, 25 edited texts produced by individual students. The researcher collected the transcripts which were audio-recorded by pairs. Then, the total score for the acceptable editing decisions was computed by two raters who had a high score of inter-rater reliability.

To analyze the transcribed pair work Storch (2007) referred to the work of Swain (1998) and used what is known by the Language Related Episodes (LREs). The LREs were categorized according to grammatical forms, lexical forms, and mechanical forms. The three aforementioned categories proved reliable because the researcher's definition and categorization of LRE was reported to have achieved higher inter-rater reliability among the raters. The researcher then coded (LREs) into either interactive (both learners were involved in decision- making), or non-interactive (one participant actually was involved in the

decision-making process). Storch (2007) based her decision on (Kuiken and Vedder, 2002; Leow, 1997) to decide upon interactive and non-interactive language episodes. Moreover, Storch (2007) also coded LREs to examine if the outcome reached was considered to be correct / acceptable, incorrect/ unacceptable, or even unresolved. Again, Storch (2007) based her coding on the work on (Swain, 1998). The researcher then analyzed the transcribed pair talk obtained from Class A. The analysis reflected that the majority of the student pairs took longer periods of time to complete task because they were actively engaged in seeking and receiving confirmations about language usage and eventually were able to reach grammatically correct decisions. Hence, during pair work, students were able to use and reflect on language usage. Storch (2007, p. 144) explained that students involved in pair work were able to demonstrate "collective scaffolding" which according to the researcher is "the process whereby learners pool their linguistic resources in order to reach resolutions to language-related problems they encounter". Storch's (2007) latter comments on theoretical framework coincide with DiCamilla and Anton (1997) who also worked on peer response from a socio-cultural point of view. Hence, DiCamilla and Anton (1997) confirmed that when L2 learners take part in peer response, they demonstrate collective scaffolding, negotiation of meaning, and interactions. Moreover, they tend to employ an extensive range of language functions so that they would be able to complete their tasks.

The studies above and the growing literature on peer response usage in second language suggest that it has a great deal of "metacognitive, cognitive, socio-affective and linguistic benefits" (Hu, 2005, p. 323). Therefore, the studies above suggest that peer review in different contexts of L2 writing instruction not only helps L2 learners understand

themselves as writers; it also helps them understand others as classroom learners of writing, too.

Drawbacks of Using Peer Response in L2 Writing Class

Problems with peer review which are specific to L2 situation have been reported in research literature. Hence, there had been a considerable backlash among L2 scholars concerning the appropriateness of peer feedback in L2 writing class. Bell (1991) suggested that the student-directed nature of peer feedback may be inappropriate especially for EFL students who usually have linguistic as well as rhetorical differences in producing their own texts as well as reading and evaluating other students' written work.

For instance, Connor and Asenavage (1994) found out that a limited difference to students' written discourse was made by peer response. Connor and Asenavage (1994) conducted a case study which compared peer feedback and teacher feedback and actually reported mixed findings. The participants were two (four membered groups) who were registered in a freshman English course at a university in USA. The participants were assigned in their groups according to their language proficiency, cultural background, and gender. Participants were involved in three sessions where they had to collaborate with each other. During the first session, students wrote a first draft. In the second session, they read their drafts aloud and received oral peer comments, whereas in the third session additional assistance from peers was provided before handing in their drafts to receive the teachers' comments. The researchers audiotaped and transcribed the interactions that took place in each of the collaborative sessions. Connor and Asenavage (1994) compared students' revisions in terms of first drafts and second drafts. Hence, the researchers analyzed the

revisions in terms of audiotaped group revisions, teacher revisions (written comments), or self /tutors. The researchers provided a thorough explanation of Faigley and Witte's (1981) revision taxonomy because they categorized their revisions accordingly. Thus, they determined whether the types of revisions were surface changes or text-based changes. The text-based changes included Micro-Text-Based changes which did not change the summary of the text, and Macro-Text-Based changes which changed the overall summary of the text. The researchers analyzed the data and agreed on a coding procedure (inter-rater reliability) which allowed them to identify the types of revision changes that students made in the second draft. Later on, the researchers used draft three to determine whether revisions were the result of teacher, peers, or self/other. Results indicated that peer response effect on both groups' comments was meager. Hence, Connor and Asenavage (1994) reported that only 5% of revisions done were actually based on peer response and that the participants incorporated most of the revisions which were provided through teacher feedback or those of tutors'. Moreover, the researchers found out that the revision types differed in each group. One group revised more surface errors while the other group made more text-based revisions. Moreover, Connor and Asenavage (1994) reported that revisions made from teacher comments were generally surface changes. These findings are congruent with Leki's (1990) who argued that L2 students have a tendency to focus on superficial and surface revisions instead of focusing on meaning changes that affect the meaning of text. Moreover, Leki (1990) elaborated that L2 students usually tackle surface matters such as grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary instead of engaging with the meaning of the text.

Moving on, some studies have identified the cross-cultural problematic issues of peer response. For instance, Nelson and Carson (1998) also reflected on the cross-cultural

problems peer response groups may encounter. Hence, some participants of oriental descent (Chinese) refrained from giving critical comments because they did not want to disagree with the other members of the group. In their micro ethnographic study, Nelson and Carson (1998) investigated how Chinese and Spanish native speaking students perceive comments suggested by their peers. Participants were enrolled in an advanced EFL writing class at a University in USA. The aforementioned researchers videotaped the negotiations and interactions of three peer response groups for a period of six weeks. The participants were then interviewed about the nature of their groups' interactions that took place during per response. The interviews were audiotaped and then transcribed. The researchers then analyzed the transcripts and analysis led to an overall description of students' perceptions toward peer response. Results indicated that a preference for teachers' as opposed to peers' feedback. Hence, these participants come from cultures that favor teachers' authority (Spanish speaking participants) found it difficult to accept feedback from peers.

Along similar lines, Chong (2010) reported that a number of Hong Kong English teachers had reservations in applying peer editing in their classes even after they had experienced the activity themselves. The teachers expressed that reasons like the "authority control imposed by school systems and unsupportive supervisors" made them unable to see the benefits of peer editing (Chong, 2010, p. 57).

Of direct relevancy, Zhang (1995) reflected that cultural background was a confusing variable. Hence, (Zhang, 1995, p. 219) called for more research that investigated whether defiance and opposition in peer response is a "culture-specific response, a more general second language acquisition, or a combination of both". Zhang (1995) investigated whether peer response was applicable to L2 writing. 81 ESL students enrolled at a college in

USA participated in the study. The researcher incorporated variables such as gender of participants; their ethnicity, their English language proficiency, and their length stay in USA. In fact, the researcher purposed mentioned that seventy participants actually originated from East or Southeast Asia. After being exposed to all three different types of feedback (peer feedback, teacher feedback, and self-directed feedback), subjects were asked to state their preferences concerning the three types of feedbacks. Results indicated thatL2 writers favored teacher feedback over peer feedback. Moreover, problems arose as a result of inappropriate attitudes and perceptions of L2 learners towards peer response. Hence, some ESL learners even expressed their fear of being handled by their peer with sarcasm due to their poor linguistic abilities (Nelson and Carson, 1998).

The research literature above indicates that ESL writing instructors often find using peer response in classes which usually contain students with socio-linguistic differences a rather discouraging experience. Hence, problems associated with peer response can be due to limited linguistic knowledge (Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Villamil and de Guerrero, 1996), limited knowledge of broader issues of meaning (Leki, 1990; Nelson and Murphy, 1993), inappropriate perceptions toward peer feedback (Nelson and Carson, 1998; Chong, 2010), and cross cultural nature (Nelson and Murphy, 1993; Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Chong, 2010, Nelson and Carson, 1998). Therefore, Storch (2007) recommended that practitioners should pay attention to the strategic grouping of ESL students in terms of gender, L2 proficiency, and familiarity with collaborative learning. Recognizing the breadth of the issue, a great deal of researchers (Zhang, 1995; Nelson and Carson,1998; Hu,2005; Connor and Asenavage,1994; Mendonca and Johnson, 1994) indicated that students favored teacher response over peer response because they did not have the required skills

that enable them to provide appropriate, concrete and useful peer response. Therefore, they called for training EFL learners in peer response skills. Interestingly enough, some researchers have declared that EFL students are trainable in peer response and have reported that positive outcomes concerning regarding the efficacy of trained peer response (Berg, 1999; Paulus, 1999; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian, 2010).

The Importance of Trained Peers and Coaching in Improving Peer Response Quality in EFL writing classes

Students who were explicitly and directly trained in giving peer response were able to present their peers with straight-to-the point comments and advice on their peers' written essays and were able to pinpoint problematic rhetoric and content (Berg, 1999; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010).

Berg (1999) investigated the effects of directly training students on the types of revision changes they make and the outcomes of the written products by comparing two groups of students. Hence, the students were assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group was trained in participating in peer response while the control group was not trained in peer response at all. Both the control and experimental groups included the dame ESL class proficiency levels (a mixed venue of level 3 and level 4 classes). However, the experimental group included 24 students with an equal number of females and males whereas the control group included 22 students with ten females and twelve males. At the same time, the control group which was not trained to participate in peer response activities consisted of one level 3 and one level 4 class and had a total of 22 students (10 females and 12 males). Berg (1999) examined the revisions male pre-peer

response training (first drafts) and the revisions made post- peer response training (final drafts). The researcher counted and marked all meaning changes in final drafts in order to determine the number of meaning changes made by students on their first drafts .Hence, the researcher's definition of meaning changes in students' second draft was based on Faigly and Witte (1981) by the addition of new content and the deletion of existing content. Two raters analyzed and compared students' first and final revised drafts for meaning versus non-meaning changes. Moreover, to examine if training students in peer feedback affected students' overall quality of writing, the researcher calculated the difference between the final draft score and the first drat score for each participant. Moreover, the TWE scoring guidelines (Educational Testing Services, 1996) were used to measure students' quality of revisions by means of finding the difference between the two scores.

Findings reported an enhanced quality of writing and an increase in the number of meaning revisions in favor of the students who were trained regardless of proficiency level. Eventually, appropriate training in peer response activities result in more meaningful changes or meaning-type revisions. Therefore, Berg (1999) concluded that training ESL students in peer response definitely has significant effects on their revision types and writing quality.

Along similar lines, Min (2006) examined whether explicitly and directly training students in peer feedback, they would be willing to include their peer review comments into their revisions. Min (2006) also examined if the ratio of such incorporation (of peer comments) would be higher than how it was before peer response training. So, the study aimed at examining the impact of training EFL (English as a Foreign Language) university-bound Taiwanese students in peer feedback and how it impacts students' revisions. 18

sophomore English majors who were enrolled in an EFL writing course taught by the researcher participated in the study. 16 were females and 2 were males and their average age was 19. The participants' native language was Mandarin Chinese and their English proficiency indicated approximately the same proficiency level. The participants had to write four expository essays about 4 different topics during the course of the semester. Min (2006) adopted a process approach to writing in her EFL writing class and embraced a contextualized version of the "writing cycle" used by Tsui and Ng (2000) in designing her writing class.

Students who participated in the writing cycle brainstormed, wrote a first draft, provided peer response, wrote a second draft, did oral presentations and oral peer response, participated in teacher – writer conference to discuss their second draft, wrote a third draft, received teacher's written feedback on the third draft, and wrote a final draft. Training students in peer feedback was commenced during the second and third writing cycles. Min (2006) used the writing cycle of the first essay as a posttest. Peer review in the second and third essays consisted of two phases: In-class modelling and a face-to-face (reviewer-teacher conference) outside the class. The in-class modelling was initiated when students started performing their paired peer review on their initial drafts of the second and third written products i.e. essays. The researcher who was also the instructor gave students a peer response guidance sheet and she used a four-step procedure which helped students make comments. According to Min (2006), the four step procedure included "clarifying, writers' intentions, identifying the source of problems, explaining the nature of problems, and making specific suggestions" (p. 123).

Moreover, Min (2006) modelled techniques for carrying out each step in the four-step procedure. For example, to clear out the writers' purpose, the researcher asked questions like "What do you mean by your suggestion?" and "What do you have to say about…....". The instructor / researcher would encourage the writer to illustrate or revise his/ her ideas by asking questions such as: "Can you elaborate on what you have written ….?" Or "Can you clarify for those who did not get it?" The instructor also modelled how to pinpoint problematic issues in writing and ways to explain their nature. She also modeled how students would suggest feedback by giving particular examples. Then, students were asked to give written commentary on two different drafts during the same session. Moreover, after the instructor had modelled the guidance sheet and the four-step procedures, student writers were given permission to review first draft at home. Moreover, participants needed to justify in their revisions and pinpoint the reasons that made them neglect their reviewer's suggested feedback. The writers' drafts, revisions and respondents' comments were collected after a week, and were analyzed. After that, Min (2006) scheduled a conference with each reviewer in order to give him/her guidelines on how to improve their comments and how to modify comments that did not follow the four – step procedure presented by the researcher.

As for the way data were analyzed, Min (2006) used both qualitative and quantitative analyses. Concerning the qualitative analysis, a multiple-trait approach based on (Hamp-Lyons, 1991) was adopted to assess revision quality before and after training students in peer response. Min (2006) cited Hamp-Lyons (1991 b, p. 248) to identify multiple-trait tools that only mind "the most salient criteria or traits" directly related to the writing task, as opposed to a rubric that generally and holistically evaluated "every element

of writing that may be manifested in the context". Min (2006) made sure that the analytical rubric she had adopted was characterized by concurrent and predictive validity, and that the focused trait based criteria it contained had helped raters settle out any disagreements more easily compared to a holistic rubric which may induce more disagreements. The researcher and the two raters identified improvements on macro features in students' writings to determine the enhanced quality of students' writings. They looked for how ideas were developed and organized, in addition to adequacy and sufficiency which are all signs of enhanced quality. Concerning the macro feature of idea development, the researcher and two independent raters looked for students' explicit position in the essays and the relevance of quotes and paraphrased information to the aforementioned positions when evaluating the adequacy of students' drafts and revisions. Moreover, the raters looked for well-formulated theses and sound ideas. As for organization, the raters looked for direct expressions of viewpoints in thesis statements and paragraphs. They also looked for paragraph coherence, transitions, and main ideas in written discourse. However, Min (2006) analyzed texts by comparing the frequencies of students' comments as well as the ratios of peer revisions due to the suggested comments pre-peer review training and after peer review training. Min (2006) also focused on different aspects of peer response such as the types, sizes, and functions of revisions as well as the types of peer comments that led to improvement in text quality. First, concerning the types of revisions, the researcher and the raters' framework for analyzing the types of revision was based on Faigley and Witte's (1981) surface and text-based change taxonomy.

According to Faigley and Witte (1981) "the surface changes, the microstructure text-based changes, and the macrostructure text-based changes have the same subcategories:

addition, deletion, substitution, permutation (rephrasing information), distribution, consolidation, and reordering" (as cited in Min p.126)

However, the difference between surface changes, micro-text-based changes, and macro-text-based changes is that surface changes usually affect the structure of the written discourse such as sentences, paragraphs, or the whole written text but do not modify the overall summary of the text. However, Macro-text-based changes; alter the overall summary of the text, changing the meaning of the presented ideas. Second, as for the sizes of revisions, both the raters and the instructor looked for the linguistic unit of change such as punctuation, word, phrase, clause, sentence, and paragraph. Third, regarding the functions of revision, Min (2006) used Ealvey's (1993) "five functions of revision: grammatical, cosmetic (meaning – preserving changes), texture (making the text more cohesive and coherent), unnecessary expression, and explicature (making the text more explicit)" (as cited in Min, 2006, p. 127). A higher number of total comments was produced and therefore incorporated into the revision after peer response training as opposed to comments produced before training. To illustrate, Min (2006) reported that the "revisions in response to peer feedback were 68% before training and 90% after training" (p.129).

Consequently, trained peer response had a significantly higher effect on students' revisions after peer reviewing training. Prior to peer response training, the raters acknowledged that 13% of the revisions were better than the original draft, 9% of the revised comments were mediocre as compared to the original revisions, and 78% unchanged. On the other hand, after training students in peer feedback, the raters found out that 72% of the revisions were superior to the original, 19% of the revisions were inferior, and 9% unchanged. The results showed that students' quality of revisions improved due to

training them in peer response. Furthermore, students' written products improved with regard to idea development, unity, and organization. Thus, the overall quality was enhanced. To answer the question about revision types, descriptive statistics was calculated. Min (2006) revealed that substitutions (20%), permutation (19%), and reordering (18%) at the micro – text – based level, ranked as the highest three. As for the size of revisions, the most frequent revision occurred at the level of sentence (32%), followed by paragraph (20%) and word (20%). With regard to revision functions, the most common function of revision was texture revision (39%), followed by coherence (39%), and explicature revision explanation (29%) (pp. 131,132).

As for the fifth and last research question which explored the types of revision that led to better texts, Min (2006, p. 132) indicated that "substitution, permutation, and reordering at the text-based level" led to the production of better texts. Finally, the previous interpretation of results was triangulated with interview results. The rates agreed that both micro-level and macro-level text-based revisions caused major improvements in the quality of texts because such revisions enhanced sufficiency, relevance, and organization of information, and therefore improved the overall quality of students' texts.

Casting as broad a net as possible, Ting and Qian (2010) developed a case study which examined peer response given by 11 Chinese students in an L2 writing course. The study aimed to examine if students actually add their peers' suggested comments to their writing and the type of revisions they used in their final drafts, and whether peer response enhanced the quality of their written products.

The participants were 11 university-bound Chinese students who were majoring in English literature. The participants were randomly assigned. The first step was all about

asking the students to write their draft (1), provide their peers with response that could be used for revision based on the essays written by their peers. Next, the students wrote a second draft based on their peers' suggested comments. The teacher then gave the students additional feedback on their second drafts. After writing their third drafts, students were randomly selected and the researchers chose three groups of students out of nine groups were chosen. So the researchers ended up having 11 participants for the study. The participants already had an idea about peer feedback through informal teaching in previous semesters on how to provide feedback for their peers. They were given examples that exhibit how good feedback should be provided in previous semesters (first two semesters of the writing course). The researchers then collected the 11 participants' first drafts of an expository essay which contained their peers' written feedback in order to analyze them. Ting and Qian (2010) also collected the participants' second revised drafts for analysis as well. For data analysis purposes, students' peer comments were individually identified by the researcher and identified and tallied. Then, they categorized the revisions made in all the second drafts into (peer-initiated revisions, self-initiated revisions / successful revisions, unsuccessful revisions) based on the differences found between the first and second drafts. Then, Ting and Qian (2010) conducted textual analysis of the first and second drafts. They measured the fluency, accuracy, grammatical, and vocabulary complexity. Results indicated that students have included a significant number of feedbacks into their revisions; however, most of the revisions were surface-level changes. Furthermore, students' second drafts significantly improved concerning accuracy, but slightly improved in terms of fluency. Nevertheless, no differences were found in relation to grammatical and vocabulary complexity. The study reported that peer review enhanced students' writing in such a way

that when subjects were involved in self revisions, their revision changes were actually meaning changes. Therefore, peer feedback helped EFL writers become critical readers of their individual writing, enabling them to become better writers.

Consequently, training L2 writers in peer response provides students with great social as well as cognitive opportunities. Hence, the aforementioned preceding line of research, carefully designed training in peer response can have a positive impact on L2 writing competence; therefore, enhancing students' communicative skills, their ability to provide their peers with meaningful, constructive comments, and develop understanding of their own writing process as well.

Students' Attitudes Toward Writing and EFL Students' Perceptions toward Peer Response

Graham, Berninger, and Fan (2007) emphasized that attitude is an effective component of motivation. Concerning Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Cook (1993) elaborated on the Affective Filter Hypothesis proposed by Krashen's 1982 theory of second language acquisition. Cook (1993) stated that Krashen theorized that motivation is an essential variable that has a facilitative, affective role in L2 (second language) learning. Cook (1993) explained that Krashen claimed that Language learners who are highly motivated are more inclined to acquire the target language. Unmotivated learners who are highly anxious on the other hand, usually have difficulty understanding the target language because of a high "affective filter" which results in a "mental block" that hinders "comprehensible input" from being acquired.

The question here is; how about peer reviewers' affective state? More critically, and in direct relation with (EFL) writing, Anderman and Wolters (2006) indicated that the affective states may influence the different types of strategies which are utilized by students while writing (as cited in Graham et al., 2007). Along similar lines, Isen (1990) stipulated that students with negative affect tend to use obsolete and dead-end writing strategies whereas students who are characterized by an affirmative and more encouraging attitude towards writing tend to get engaged in more flexible and adaptive self-regulated strategies which help them be cognitively engaged to the writing task (as cited in Graham et al., 2007).

According to Graham, Berninger, and Fan (2007) the sole researcher who investigated students' attitude towards writing in a systematic way during the 90s was Knudson (1992, 1993, 1995) whose main area of focus was elementary age children. Kear, Coffman, McKenna, and Ambrosio (2000) found out that children's attitude toward writing actually worsens as they move to upper grades. Same results were reported in earlier research done by Knudson (1991, 1992, 1993) who also found out that older students tend to have less positive attitudes towards writing that younger ones (as cited in Kear et al., 2000).

Therefore, Knudson (1995) insisted that since research indicates that writing anxiety and apprehension have a negative effect on students' success in school, practitioners should be more involves in research that has to do with writers' attitudes towards writing and how it evolved in school environment. Knudson (1995) also emphasized that educators should be knowledgeable about their students' understanding of the writing tasks so that they would be better able to assess their students' engagement, involvement, and interest.

Knudson (1995) conducted a field study which examined how writing attitude and achievement are correlated in addition to the correlational relationship between writing

attitude and grade level in addition to gender. The participants were 430 students enrolled in an elementary school in the USA / English language native speakers who came from either low or lower socio-economic status. The researcher administered a questionnaire for each student grade level. Hence, students in grades (1-3) responded to the writing Attitude Survey for Primary grade students; whereas older students in grades (4-8) responded to the Writing Attitude Survey for Children. It must further be noted that the aforementioned attitude scales were both developed by the researcher. In addition to the questionnaires, students were asked to respond to a given prompt. Each essay written by students was read and graded by two raters who had achieved acceptable terms of inter- rater reliability. Knudson (1995) triangulated her data collection procedures by randomly selecting 12 students from all grade levels and interviewed them to elaborate on their answers they have given in the writing attitude survey. The children were also interviewed to elaborate on their beliefs towards the writing tasks done at school and how they were directly related to their achievement as well as to explain how they perceived writing to be important. The interview contained 10 open-ended questions which provided the researcher more insights about students' understanding of writing tasks and activities at different grade levels as well as more explanations on students' responses given in the questionnaires administered earlier.

Results indicated that writing achievement was directly related to students' grade level as well as their perceptions and attitudes towards writing. Hence, Knudson (1995) reported that students who have positive attitudes towards writing regardless of age and gender tend to be better writers. On the other hand, concerning grade level and gender and their relation to writing achievement, the researcher also reported that older students and females in particular have a better inclination towards becoming proficient writers that

younger writers and males in particular. What is interesting is that Knudson (1995) claimed that the questionnaires and interviews she conducted also measured how students' attitudes towards writing changes as a result of specific writing strategies they learner in class. Hence, students in grade 4 for example were able to verbalize the process strategies they used in writing such as planning, organizing, and goal setting. So, the researcher concluded that the process writing approach became more prevalent in writing instruction where students engage in prewriting activities and this strategy was verbalized by the participants as "planning the entire composition", drafting which was voiced by the interviewed students as "thinking what to include and leave out", in addition to revising which was verbalized by Knudson's participants as "being sure they stayed on topic" (Knudson, 1995, p. 94). These results are consistent with what Knudson (1991) suggested when she was in the process of developing her writing attitude scales back then. Hence, she recommended that "it is useful for researchers, program evaluators, and researchers to assess children's attitudes towards writing and the effect of instruction on their attitudes, including treatment, grade, and times of measurement" (Knudson, 1991, p. 814). Of direct relevancy, Graham, Berninger, and Fan, (2007) investigated one aspect of motivation; specifically, attitudes of young, beginning writers. The participants were 128 first grade level students (70 females and 58 males) and 113 third grade level students (57 females and 56 males) who were English language native speakers. The educational level of the parents was used as a socioeconomic status as well. The participants' writing proficiency was average ranged.

To begin with, each student wrote a composition and three measurements were conducted for each written composition. The first measure aimed at assessing the sophistication of vocabulary use by students. Therefore, two scorers counted 7- letters or

more vocabulary words and transformed into portions (based on TOWL-2). The second measure was the average length of the right word sequence. The average length was measured by obtaining the "average length and correct word sequences that occurred in sequence before an incorrect word sequence occurred" (Graham, Berninger, and Fan, 2007, p. 525). Two scorers revised and discussed the rules for obtaining a correct word sequence and inter-rater reliability coefficient was 0.85.The overall quality of written essays was calculated by the third measure which was a holistic rating scale based on (Cooper 1977) . The papers were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, 1 being the lowest quality of writing and 7 being the highest by two former elementary grade school teachers (inter-rater reliability coefficient was 0.93).

As for students' attitude towards writing, students had to cater to seven questions which measured their attitudes toward writing. The researchers used the Garfield the cat scale developed by McKenna et al. (1995). Hence, students chose images ranging from the image of a very happy Garfield the cat (score of 4) and ending up with a score of 1 that is the very unhappy or sad Garfield. Later on, structural equality modeling (SEM) approaches (based on Bollen, 1989, and Kline, 1998) were used to identify the structural relationship between attitude and achievement. It should be noted that in addition to examining the structural relationship between attitude and achievement, the researchers examined age differences (younger / older) and gender differences (male/ female). Results indicated that writing attitude does influence writing achievement because the relationship between them was found to be statistically significant. Moreover, girls were found to have more positive attitudes toward writing and therefore favored writing more than boys did. However, no statistical difference was reported concerning the writing achievement variable.

Interestingly enough, Musgrove (1999) conducted a different kind of study concerning students' attitudes toward writing. The researcher had her students write self-evaluative narratives that reflect how writing attitudes are usually shaped by how successful students' writing experiences are. The participants were English majors prospective secondary teachers and college students registered in a first-year writing class. At the beginning of the term, Musgrove (1998) identified for her students what is meant by attitude "one's predispositions toward particular tasks, ideas, or people" (p. 2) and provided them with lexical terms of attitude. Then, in a series of mini-lessons, she provided her students with literary works which demonstrated particular attitudes (positive and negative critical attitudes) which were discussed by students.

The researcher then asked students to track down how their attitudes towards writing developed by keeping records and compiling portfolios. Musgrove (1999) announced that the portfolios included "a resume, an initial attitudinal survey, learning goals, personal grammar and usage handbook, in class writing, homework assignments, essays, and portfolio self-evaluations written at midterm and end of semester" (p. 5).

Musgrove (1998) concluded that drawing students' attention to their attitudes gave them the opportunity to examine how their beliefs and what they bring to their writing definitely affects their writing achievement. Moreover, the self-evaluations written by students helped them connect to their backgrounds as writers because their writing background actually directly affects their attitudes towards writing.

However, Katstra, Tollefson, and Gilbert's (1987) study was the only study, to my knowledge, that examined the effect of peer response on students' attitudes toward writing. To elaborate, the study was conducted to investigate whether peer response in a process

approach to writing environment could yield to positive attitudes towards writing along increased fluency. The participants were ninth grade native speakers in the USA who registered in seven English classes which were taught by three teachers. The subjects were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups in such a way that each teacher had a control group and an experimental group to teach. Both the control groups and the experimental groups responded to two attitude instruments before treatment. Then, both groups wrote the first draft of a personal narrative. The first drafts' word number was tallied and recorded as a pretest measure for fluency in writing. The treatment was introduced over a period of four days. First, the experimental group explicitly received training in peer response and participants rewrote their second drafts according to comments suggested by the peers in each response group. The students in the control group on the other hand, wrote their second drafts based on assistance offered by the teacher due to specific questions asked by students in the control group. The two groups then counted the number of words they had written in their second drafts and this became the post-test measure of writing fluency. Finally, the two attitude instruments which were administered to both groups as pertest were administered again as post-tests measures. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was administered in order to measure the three-way interaction between the independent variables which were (1) teachers (three levels) (2) gender of students (3) and treatment condition. Results indicated an increased positive attitude towards writing on behalf of the experimental group. However, no significant differences were noticed in post-test writing fluency. Therefore, peer evaluation does not affect students' writing fluency.

Some studies which tackled the affective benefits of peer response examined students' perceptions toward peer feedback. Chong (2010) examined student teachers'

perceptions and attitudes toward peer response and the likelihood to how they are willing to use the aforementioned approach in L2 writing classes. Results indicated that student teachers did not favor the usage of peer response in their classes due to "external reasons such as class size, time restrictions, authority control, as well as internal factors such as inability to see the benefits of peer response, insufficient experience or training in using this technique" (p. 58).

As for the affective factor of peer feedback of ESL university students, Zhang (1995) made it clear the majority of his 81 ESL students (75%) who were enrolled at a university in USA actually favored feedback provided by teachers as opposed to feedback provided by peers. The findings coincide with Nelson and Carson (1998) whose ESL college students expressed their tendency to favor teachers' feedback rather than their peers' feedback. Moreover, cultural differences were perceived to negatively affect peer response as some of the participants' goal in peer review sessions particularly Chinese students was mainly maintaining good harmony by refraining from providing their pees with critical peer response. However, another study actually contradicted Nelson and Carson's (1998) findings concerning the Chinese group's perception of peer response. Hence, Roskams (1999) who examined Chinese EFL learners' perceptions toward peer response. The university-bound Chinese students actually reported their openness to engage in peer response and expressed that this approach could be beneficial to their ESL language learning. Hence, participants generally perceived peer feedback as useful. However, only 5 % of participants did not enjoy the collaborative learning arrangement.

Therefore, many studies revealed conflicting results which reported inconsistency in findings which reflected that peer response is problematic due to students' cultural

schemata, their ability to review their peers; work and their attitudes towards peer response. However, Hu (2005) indicates that these problems are not inherent in peer response as research literature suggests that carefully designed training in peer response can help assist L2 writing students as well as their teachers gain understanding of the benefits of peer response (Berg, 1999; Min, 2006; Ting and Qian; 2010).

The Role of the Computer in Conveying Mediated Feedback

The role of computers in conveying mediating feedback in L2 (second language) settings has become central for research concerned with technology-enhanced peer response lately. However, the results on the effects of integrating computer-mediated communication (CMC) into peer response have been conflicting, mixed, and even inconsistent (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001). Hence, many researchers (Braine, 1997; Leh, 1999; Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth, 2001; Liu and Sadler, 2003) have expressed concerns about using computer-mediated communication as a substitute for the traditional pen and paper venue of peer response, especially that its ultimate benefits for ESL learners have not been yet established fully by researchers. However, consensus have been researched among researchers that CMC-based peer response should be seriously blended with traditional pen and paper communication in the peer response process (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001).

Technology-Enhanced Peer Response Mode vs. Traditional Face-to-Face Peer Response: Two Different Contexts of Instruction

Comparison of two modes of peer response**.** Mixed results had been produced when comparing and contrasting computer-mediated peer response to traditional face-to-face peer response (Sullivan and Pratt, 1996; Braine, 1997, 2001; Liu and Sadler, 2003). Sullivan and Pratt (1996) considered comparing the effects of technology-based instruction in comparison with plain and regular teaching on students' writing apprehension, writing quality, and writing improvement. Along similar lines, Braine (1997, 2001) as well as Liu and Sadler (2003) employed studies which investigated the effectiveness of face-to-face peer response compared to the effectiveness of electronic peer review on revision types and the nature of comments made by ESL college students.

To begin with, Sullivan and Pratt, 1996 developed a mixed method which compared two modes of peer feedback through investigating two different ESL writing environments (networked computer assisted classroom and traditional oral classroom). The study aimed to examine whether there were differences in students'' overall writing quality, writing apprehension, and writing attitudes. The participants in this study were 38 university-bound ESL students who were enrolled in an English writing course at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez. The participants remained in their intact classes and were taught by the same teacher who implemented the process approach to writing methodology. Students were asked to write their first drafts based on a prompt provided by the teacher. The first drafts were scored holistically on a five-point scale by two raters. Moreover, a 26-item six-point Likert scale was used to measure students' writing anxiety.

Thus, students in both classes responded to an adapted version of Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Scale (Gungle and Tylor, 1989). In addition, students in both classes were given a nine-item five-point Likert scale entitled Attitudes Toward Writing with the Computer Scale adopted from Shaver (1990). By the end of the fifteen-week period of study implementation, all the aforementioned three measurements were administered to students again. The computer-assisted class used specific software (Daedalus, 1989) which contained a word processor, an invention and a revision program, an email system, and a program entitle InterChange that allowed for electronic in-class discussions.

As for data analysis, Sullivan and Pratt (1996) conducted both quantitative and qualitative analyses. Concerning the quantitative analysis, descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-test scores were used to compare differences in attitudes, anxiety, and writing performance between the means of each class. Statistical results indicate that the two classes had similar levels of writing apprehension. However, students in the computer-assisted class demonstrated significantly more positive attitudes than students assigned in the traditional oral class. As for writing scores, results of pretest-posttest writing scores reflected a significant increase in scores on behalf of the computer-assisted class, whereas writing scores of traditional oral class decreased by the end of the semester.

As for qualitative analysis, the researchers examined the nature of participation and discourse patterns for the two classes. Results indicated differences in patterns and types of interactions. For instance, computer-assisted class participated more than traditional oral class in group discussions and demonstrated more willingness to take turns than oral class. This lead to more discussions performed by the computer-assisted class which helped them more practice in writing English than the traditional oral class. Moreover, computer-assisted

class discussions were more focused in such a way that the students assigned to this class actually became more focused on the task at hand than students in the oral class who took more turns but were less focused. Sullivan and Pratt (1996) concluded that their findings generally show positive effects for the use of networked computers in writing classrooms. Therefore, the aforementioned researchers documented the superior effects of computer-assisted instruction in comparison with regular traditional teaching.

Along similar lines, Braine (1997) presented us with a more precarious view of e-feedback when he conducted a study in order to compare face-to-face writing to local-area-network (LAN)-based writing. Hence, by the end of the semester, the aforementioned researcher found that students who participated in networked classes produced better quality written products than students who participated in traditional face-to-face peer response mode. By this, Braine (1997) indicated that technology supported peer response activities did work more effectively than traditional ones. Braine (1997) also examined which L2 writing classes (computer networked or face-to-face) enhanced ESL students' writing and elicited more comments whether form teachers or peers. The participants were 69 ESL students enrolled in a writing class at a university in USA. 35 students were enrolled in classes which were given in a traditional manner, whereas 34 students were enrolled in classes which used a software program that was designed to teach writing on Local-area networked (LAN) computers. The program displayed three windows on each computer screen. The first window is a private editing window where students can edit in private; the second window is a public viewing window that usually appears on all computer screens all over the lab allowing for "main conferences". The third window, however, allows groups to run subconferences through discussing matters separately from public viewing. Students

wrote three papers ranging in different genres (expressive writing, informative writing, and persuasive writing) about a topic they had chosen individually. The same teaching style and the same process approach to writing was adopted in all four sections except for the different peer response modes (networked classes used the network for peer response whereas traditional classes adopted pen and paper review sessions). In networked classes, students wrote their first drafts using word-processing program then posted their essays online. Peer review forms were provided to students to use them during peer response sessions. As for traditional classes, students brought their essays on hard copies and they all provide peer feedback according to a peer review form which was also provided. The teacher provided comments on peer review for both the networked classes and the traditional classes. The researcher then collected the transcripts posted online from the networked classes, the comments written by peers on their classmate's hardcopies and on the peer review forms from the traditional classes, as well as the teacher's comments for modes of classes. Braine (1997) used the (TWE) Test of Written English scoring guide to examine the writing quality and the degree of improvement between first and last drafts. Holistic scoring was done by three experienced readers with high inter rater reliability. Braine (1997) also examined the length of comments made by both students and the teachers. Therefore, students' comments as well as teachers' comments in both cases were included in the word count. Holistic scores for the first drafts and the final drafts indicated that the writing quality in networked classes was better than in the traditional face-to-face classes. However, the writing quality in the latter showed more improvement than in online peer response classes.

Concerning the length of comments, the results indicated that students in computer-mediated classes wrote longer comments and the teachers provided more comments than they did in traditional face-to-face classes. Therefore, Braine's (1997) results echoed Sullivan and Pratt's (1996) results by indicating that networked-based peer response activities work more effectively than traditional face-to-face peer repose activities.

However, Braine's study which he conducted in 2001 came out as surprising because its results did not coincide with the aforementioned researcher's 1997 study. Hence, the results did not favor Local-area network LAN-based classes as his previous study did. To elaborate, Braine (2001) kind of replicated his 1997 study which he conducted on EFL learners in USA in a new context, specifically Cantonese speaking undergraduate students enrolled in a university in Hong Kong. The 87 undergraduate students enrolled in an Academic writing course were assigned into a local-area network LAN-based class and a traditional oral class. The purpose behind this study was to compare the two different modes of writing in the aforementioned networked and traditional classes. First and final drafts were collected to determine which context (LAN-based classes or traditional oral classes) produced higher quality in writing and better degree of score improvements. Results indicated that the final drafts in traditional classes were of higher quality of writing, however, analysis of drafts in traditional classes reflected higher degree of improvement between first and final drafts.

Braine (2001) attributed the higher scores in first drafts written by students assigned in LAN-based classes to better discussions triggered by real-time conferencing which facilitates immediate feedback, in addition to a less threatening environment which reduced EFL students' writing apprehension.

Moreover, Braine (2001) attributed the higher score improvements in traditional oral classes than in LAN-based networked classes due to students' limited hands-on experience with LANs, the numerous quantity of writing aggregated by LAN discussions which in turn overwhelmed EFL writers, and the disjoined nature of LAN discussions which clearly showcased lack of sequence in most LAN interactions. Therefore, Braine (2001) concluded that EFL writing teachers should be more careful with incorporating technological interactive tools into their L2 writing classes. Therefore, EFL teachers should spend enough time exploring and experimenting LAN software writing programs should they agree to teach on a LAN. Braine's (2001) recommendation was echoed by MacArthur and Karchmer-Klein (2010) who persuasively indicated that "teachers must become fluent in the technology before they can develop, implement, and evaluate a technology-based writing curriculum" (p. 63).

Moving on, in a similar comparative study, Liu and Sadler (2003) compared the length of peer response provided, the types of peer interactions, and how they effected students' revision in two modes of writing classes (computer-mediated peer response and traditional face-to-face peer response). Although data was collected from 48 students throughout the semester, the aforementioned researchers only focused on eight non-native English speaking participants. The eight participants were divided into two groups, a face-to- face group which consisted of three females and one male, and a technology-enhanced group which contained 2 females and 2 males. Participants in both groups had different language background. Data was collected from different sources. First, information about the participants' demographic description, attitudes toward peer feedback, and technology usage in class was collected. Second, three written drafts and peer suggestions which were

conducted on students' written drafts, questionnaires which were conducted as a follow up, interviews with participants as well as audio-taped transcripts of classroom peer interactions. Both groups received training in peer response.

The traditional group peer review activities were done face to face. However, tasks for the computer-enhanced groups were done on computers. In–class assignments employed Microsoft Office word as well as technology-enhanced synchronic interaction mode / MOO which was used for class discussions. All students in both groups wrote three drafts. Students got suggested comments from their peers on their first drafts and used the comments provided to write their second drafts. The students then were engaged in peer response interactions through the usage of MOO interaction mode and the interactions were later recorded and transcribed. As for face-to-face group interactions, they were audio-taped and later transcribed.

The analysis procedure embodied five stages. First, comments suggested by peers were coded according to global areas (idea development, audience, organization) and local areas (grammar, punctuation, mechanics). Peer comments were also coded according to the types of suggested comments made by peers (evaluation, clarification, suggestion, and alteration). Second, an analysis grid was developed to include all comments done by the two groups. Third, the peer review comments that researchers had disagreements about coding them were further discussed and Kuder-Richardson Approaches (KR21) was used to achieve internal consistency. Fourth, the researchers calculated all comments presented by peers to pinpoint the number of peer suggested comments in the drafts which are revision-oriented comments. Last; the researchers compared comments in both the first and third drafts. As for peer interaction analysis, the researchers transcribed face-to-face

communications and printed out the MOO transcripts to analyze and transcribe them all. Later on, an analysis grid was devised to place the coded interactions in it. Results indicated that technology-enhanced peer response group made a greater number of comments suggested by peers. However, the comments were more surface-level and superficial compared to comments made by the traditional face-to-face group.

Moreover, face-to-face interactions resulted in a more positive response with more meaning-level, focused interaction amongst the members of the group. Liu and Sadler (2003) recommended that electronic peer response mode should be blended with face-to-face peer response mode in order to produce effective peer response in L2 writing classrooms.

Therefore, the aforementioned comparative studies have reported conflicting findings about the effectiveness of peer review in two different modes (face-to-face interaction and technology facilitated interaction. Consequently, some researchers like Liu and Sadler (2003) have called for a combination of two modes of peer response and incorporating them in EFL writing classroom.

Combination of two modes of peer response. Schultz (2000) conducted an experimental study in order to examine the effects of combining computer-mediated peer response and face-to-face peer feedback in classroom practice. The researcher investigated the revisions made by intermediate and upper intermediate French program students in a process-approach writing class. The researcher chose the participants form a pool of 54 participants who participated in the essay analysis section of the study and conducted an attitude questionnaire across 106 participants.

The participants then were divided into control groups and experimental groups. There were two control groups in each French course level (levels 3 & 4) who were engaged in traditional, face-to-face, non-computerized response group format. There were also two experimental groups in each French course level (levels 3& 4). The two experimental groups in French level 3 course used only the Interchange program for their response group work (based on the Daedalus Internet package), which permitted students to interact through LAN (Local Area Network) .Since Schultz (2000) wanted the same students in the experimental groups to use different formats because according to her this allowed for comparative formats, she made students in the two experimental groups in French course level 4 alternate between the face-to-face venue and the computer mediated venue for their response group work. Schultz (2000) considered the unit of analysis as the number of changes and types of revisions students made between their rough drafts and their final drafts that were delivered by peers in both formats (face-to-face and online-real discussion). In addition, all the Interchange transcripts were collected for analysis from the experimental groups who were only involved in online-read discussions. Moreover, tape recordings from students' interactions were obtained from the control groups who were only involved in traditional interactions as well as the experimental groups who alternated between traditional format (face-to-face) and computer-mediated communication. Schultz (2000) analyzed students' written products by assessing the number of changes students made between their first drafts and final drafts. The changes were categorized into four classic writing categories "content, coded as C", "organization, coded as O", "style, coded as S", and "grammar, coded as G". Schultz (2000) calculated the changes of each writing category on changes per-page basis. The researcher assumed that a larger extent of number of

changes correlates with a positive result and, therefore, students would be more willing to incorporate their peers' comments into their writings to improve their overall final drafts. The students then responded to attitude questionnaires which were specially formed depending whether the students were in control groups or experimental groups.

Moreover, the researcher used a multivariate regression analysis which according to her provided a "broad perspective on the benefits of computer versus face-to-face venue" (Schultz, 2000, p. 130).

Results indicated that students made more particular, micro-level changes in the online mode as they were able to incorporate the different comments provided by their peers in their writing. However, students made more global, macro level changes in the face-to - face mode and were better able to explore the peers' intentions and goals behind writing the essays. Therefore, these results coincided with Liu and Sadler's (2003) results which lead the aforementioned researchers to call for a mixed venue of peer response. Hence, Schultz (2000) reported that the mixed venue where students received feedback in both modes face-to-face format and computer format combined made the most effective overall use of their peers' response. Concerning students' attitudes towards peer feedback differed according to its different forms (face-to-face, computer, and mixed formats). Hence, students in the control groups, the face-to-face format, indicated that peer response was helpful for improving their writing. Students in the experimental groups (only computer format) were vague to assess because their attitudes towards feedback ranged from extremely positive to extremely negative. As for students in the experimental groups which experience the mixed venue, they tended to find both formats helpful; although they tremendously found face-to - face work more helpful.

Along similar lines, Sengupta (2001) conducted another study which emphasized the significance of using a combination of both modes (traditional face-to-face and computer-networked) peer response activities in EFL writing practices. The study investigated the nature of peer interactions and the conflicts EFL students enrolled at a university in Hong Kong ace in an EFL writing class combining the two modes of peer response. The participants were language learners who were perusing a BA in contemporary English language. The participants who were part of two intact classes performed face-to-face meetings and spent time posting materials on their web classroom where they completed various web tasks on analysis and the creation of multimodal texts. Sengupta (2001) analyzed the archives of discussion both web-based and face-t-face interactions, learning logs, the tasks completed, responses provided, and student interviews from the web-based classroom in order to get an understanding of the main kinds of responses and the functions they served. Consequently, Sengupta (2001) identified the major "moves" in the data to analyze what was being achieved through the web classroom conversation and how it was being achieved. Later on, the "moves" and their discourse functions were independently analyzed by two researchers and inter-rater reliability agreement was established. Moreover, the aforementioned researcher conducted interviews with a random selection of participants and came up with common themes which had emerged due to qualitative analysis conducted. Consequently, two common themes emerged in which students adopted "agreement and praise moves of responses" which they used regularly throughout their interactions. Therefore, Sengupta (2001) concluded that the participants used language in order to build a classroom community where colleagues socialized peacefully in a harmonious way. In other words, Sengupta's (2001) participants

were immensely influenced by their cultural norms “Chinese Culture” where directly criticizing and disagreeing with others would be inappropriate. In fact, Sengupta’s (2001) findings corroborated with other researcher findings on peer response conducted in universities located in cultural settings other than the USA and Canada (Zhang, 1995; Nelson and Carson, 1998; and Chong, 2001). To elaborate, the aforementioned researchers described peer response as a cultural- specific response where participants had reservations in adopting the strategy because they perceived criticizing their peers’ written products as inappropriate. Hence, Nelson and Carson (1998) clearly stated how their Chinese EFL participants refrained from giving critical comments because they did not want to disagree with other members of the group. Zhang (1995) also faced defiance on behalf of his mostly Asian participants who offered uncritical peer response which resulted in a discouraging experience.

If we go back to Sengupta’s (2001) research, the researcher indicated that her participants not only refrained from giving critical comments on their peer’s written products, but also demonstrated some kind of writing apprehension and anxiety. Hence, Sengupta (2001) indicated that her participants demonstrated anxiety caused by the pressure of coming out as accountable and responsible for their own work because of the evidence of participation depicted on the web classroom. Moreover, the participants also demonstrated anxiety because of the visible nature of the web classroom as well the lack of privacy which in fact forced he participants to be self-aware of their language knowledge which demanded that they mind their language and use critical thinking; however, this was not depicted in face-to-face interactions. Sengupta (2001, p. 122) concluded “the language used in the web classroom became a rather more demanding element in comparison with peer response in a

face-to-face situation". Therefore, students had used technology to enrich their learning experiences within a classroom context. However, Sengupta (2001) insisted that the two modes (face-to-face and web-based) were complementary. Hence, learners used technology to interact with their peers and by doing so; they extended their traditional notions of learning.

Along similar lines, two studies by Tuzi (2004) and DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) to some extent replicated Schultz's (2000) study. In fact, Tuzi (2004) replicated Schultz's (2000) findings as well. Tuzi (2004) examined the effects of electronic feedback on revisions of first year L2 writers in a writing course at a university in USA made on their written products. The researcher used purposive sampling in choosing the ESL participants. Students' average age was 20 and their average stay in the USA was for 5.2 months. First, the participants were coached in how to create good quality feedback by responding to multiple drafts which were written previously by students who formed small groups. The subjects were also coached in how to use the technology of e-feedback by discussing the various components that made up the data base-driven website which was especially designed for writing and responding. The students were trained in using the online application which was designed for posting students' writings online and receiving e-feedback from the website users and other visitors. The participants then wrote four essays. Each essay and its corresponding revisions were posted on the website. The researcher then analyzed the essays by collecting the entire revisions of each essay and comparing each draft with its subsequent revisions to find the discrepancy. The researcher used Chris Hall's (1990) revision analysis rubric and made some modifications to cater for the needs of his study by identifying specific characteristics of the essays including the level, type, stimulus,

and purpose of revisions made. In addition to analyzing the essays, Tuzi (2004) analyzed the e-feedback responses based on Stanley's (1992) response analysis. The e-feedback responses were analyzed to pinpoint the changes that the students had made. The researcher also used the e-feedbacks to compare the revisions already made and the e-feedback suggestions. Therefore, the researcher was able to determine if students had really incorporated any of the e-feedback suggestions. By doing so, the researcher was able to deduce if the e-feedbacks really influenced the changes of the subsequent revisions. Tuzi (2004) also interviewed the students to discuss the reasons behind the revision changes they made (what the stimulus was for the change: an idea, a conversations, or feedback).

Moreover, Tuzi (2004) interviewed L2 writers to get their perceptions about the process of written response to determine how these participants incorporated e-feedback into their revisions. Results indicated that the use of electronic peer response had a more positive effect at the clause, sentence, and paragraph levels rather than at the overall, global organization. Although Tuzi (2004) found out in the interviews that L2 writers preferred oral feedback, he reported that they did make more frequent revisions in response to electronic feedback than to their oral face-to-face feedback or written response provided by tutors. Along similar lines, DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) sought to examine and analyze what happens when ESL students engage in face-to-face peer response and online peer response. The researchers wanted to investigate whether online peer response could be a replacement tool for oral, face-to-face peer review. 32 (12 low-intermediate proficiency and 20 advanced proficiency) ESL students at a college in the USA participated in the study. The students were paired according to different first languages, proficiency level, and appropriate computer literacy. All students took part in the face-to-face peer response and

online-peer response. The students were all trained in peer response whether in face-to-face response mode or online response mode. Students were given guidelines about peer review. First, the researchers trained students in face-to-face peer response; whenever students would complete the first drafts, face-to-face peer response would follow and students were then asked to use their peers' comments in order to write final drafts of their compositions. After that, students were trained in networked classroom. DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) used the interactive software Norton Textra Connect (NTC, 1996). Student- student interactions were only used in online assignments. The researchers selected only five pairs of students for a closer analysis of the types of interactions they were engaged in both modes (the face-to-face peer response and the online peer response). Hence, during face-to-face interactions the selected five pairs' negotiations were audiotaped. As for the networked classrooms, the same five pairs read hard copies of each other's (every pair) first draft of a new essay they had written and took part in online peer review. Printouts of their interactions were later printed out in order to revise their drafts accordingly. DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) then transcribed the face-to-face interactions and compare the negotiations with the printouts of their online interactions Students' interactions were categorized in four types of negotiations (question, explanation, restatement, and suggestion). The researchers maintained that they achieved a high inter rater reliability in coding students' both modes of interactions which they tallied in order to determine how frequently each type of negotiation occurred.

Finally, all students including the selected five pairs were asked to respond to a questionnaire on their peer response experience. Results indicated that the number of peer interactions were higher in face-to-face mode than in online mode. As for comparisons by

types of interactions, the researchers reported that students made use of the same main categories of interactions for both venues of peer review. However, DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) reflected electronic feedback facilitated the teachers' job in observing students and therefore provided a better means for monitoring their students' interactions... The reason behind this is that e-feedback provided teachers with a total access to every pair's interaction. Students were able to rely on printouts as well instead of totally relying on their memories in order to revise their drafts. As for students' beliefs and perceptions of their peer response experience, most students expressed that they found peer response to be useful. Hence, students' perceptions were evenly divided between the two venues of peer response (Face-to face mode and online mode).

Another comparative investigation was done by Fitze (2006) where he examined the patterns of participations and the features of discourse produced by students in face-to-face and written electronic conferences. The advanced ESL participants remained in their two intact writing classes and took turns to experience two weeks of electronic peer response conferences and two weeks of face-to-face peer response conferences. For data collection, Fitze (2006) saved the written electronic conferences as a file and printed it out so that verbal communications could be subjected to analysis. The aforementioned researcher also videotaped and transcribed face-to-face conferences. Fitze (2006) revealed that there was no significant difference in the amount of words produced by the two types of conferences after counting the number of words produced by the students of the two modes of peer response. Fitze (2006) also measured the discourse produced by students in the two types using the type-token ration based on Warschauer's (1996) study. The researcher concluded that the discourse produced in written electronic conferences was more lexically

complex and actually demonstrated higher interactive competence than it was in the face-to-face conferences. In fact, students in written electronic conferences used a wider variety of vocabulary related to the topic and expressed more interactive language functions than it was in the face-to-face conferences. As for the amount of participation by students of the two types of conferences, Fitze (2006) revealed that students' participation in the written electronic conferences was equally distributed among students, while a number of students tended to dominate the discussion during face-to-face conferences. Although in this counter-balanced design Fitze (2006) tried to provide an objective perspective on the two modes of peer review, it is plain to see that written electronic conferencing was more effective than face-to-face conferencing.

Along similar lines, Ho and Savignon's (2007) provided a new way for EFL teachers in EFL contexts to reconsider the application of the two modes of peer response (face-to face mode and online mode) into their writing classrooms. The aforementioned researchers investigated 37 two-year college students' attitudes towards the two modes of peer response in an Asian English-as-a-foreign-language academic writing context. Two intact classes which included learners who had attained a similar level of language study participated in the study. Participants in the two classes expressed their attitudes towards two modes of peer response (face-to-face and asynchronous computer-mediated peer response) by answering open-ended and close-ended questions. To elaborate, participants responded to a questionnaire which included three parts: a biographical section which attained information about learners' previous major and English learning experience, 30 items using a 5-point Likert scale which measured learners' attitudes towards both peer review modes as well as the technical features of computer-mediated peer response, and 5

open-ended questions which elicited reasons for an expressed preference for a specific peer response mode, reasons for their preferences, as well as the problems and benefits learners had experienced.

Responses to the open-ended and close-ended questions indicated that learners had favored attitudes toward face-to-face peer response. Participants considered oral communication in face-to-face discussions to be more efficient than written communication. Hence, lack of oral discussion was a major pitfall in computer mediated peer response.

Although participants favored face-to-face oral interactions, many of them found that it was stressful to pinpoint their peers' writing problems while facing them. Hence, the participants were afraid that they might hurt their peers' feelings or even damage their friendship if they provided critical comments about their writing. These findings are congruent with a group of studies which tackled cross-cultural issues which intervened with peer response quality (Zhang, 1995; Nelson and Carson, 1998; Chong, 2001; and Sengupta, 2001). Thus, the aforementioned researchers demonstrated how participants from oriental descend (particularly Chinese language learners) tended to avoid providing their peers with critical comments during peer review in order to keep harmonic relationships with peers.

If we take the aforementioned research studies into account, it could be inferred that there (was an agreement amongst the researchers in the results that indicate that computer-mediated communication should be blended with face-to-face interaction when peer response process takes place Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; Sengupta, 2001; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001; Fitze, 2006; Ho and Savignon, 2007). Hence, these researchers actually took more of a moderate stand as they all required

their subjects to use a combination of both peer response modes in order to ask these participants later on to compare between the two modes.

Multifarious Research on technology-enhanced Peer Response. Liou and Peng (2009) conducted a study about technology-supported peer review by using the interactive functions of weblogs which according to the researchers facilitated collaborative writing among EFL Chinese speaking freshman English majors.

A commercial free blog environment, "Vox" (http://www.vox.com) was adopted to examine how computer-mediated peer response training affected EFL students' comments, peer comment adoption, revised text quality, and students' perceptions towards peer response. Participants took part in a writing cycle which contained the following five stages: idea development, first draft writing, exchanging peer comments on first drafts, and first draft revision. Students implemented the aforementioned writing cycle on the four writing assignments they produced. Moreover, students were given peer response guidelines which demonstrated how to produce appropriate peer review. Liou and Peng (2009) also provided their participants with two drafts of an article (one original and one revised) as a means of demonstration on how to perform peer response. The participants also received training in computer skills, how to use the blog functions, and they also learned about the different features of blogs including archiving, hyperlink, comments, and instant self-publishing. Liou and Peng (2009) adopted a rubric developed by Liu and Sadler (2003) in order to analyze the different types of peer response provided by participants as well as to what extent they adopted their peers' comments in their final drafts. Moreover, a five-point Likert

scale questionnaire designed by the researcher was given to the participants in order to examine their perceptions on computer-mediated peer response.

After careful analysis of peer comments, results indicated that participants' comments became more revision-oriented and focused on more global issues after being trained in peer response. Hence, a comparison between the first revised drafts (before peer response training) and the fourth revised drafts (after peer response training) revealed that students' revising quality has improved.

On the basis of the points raised above, Liou and Peng (2009) indicated that the rate of peer response declined when compared between the first revised drafts and the fourth revised drafts; however, a high percentage of peer comments adopted by participants resulted in successful revision due to training. Concerning students' perceptions towards computer-mediated peer response, results revealed mixed feelings. To elaborate, students indicated that they liked reading their peers' comments and enjoyed giving suggestions, composing on blogs, exchanging chatting and comments with their peer and instructors; however, they were not sure if the suggestions they had provided were helpful. In fact, Liou and Peng (2009 p. 523) revealed that their participants "did not believe themselves or their classmate to be eligible to give solid comments on their peers' compositions." These findings corroborated with (Zhang, 1995; Nelson and Carson, 1998; Chong, 2001; and Sengupta, 2001, and Ho and Savignon, 2007) whose participants refrained from providing critical peer response because they wanted to maintain harmonious relationships with their peers as well as they found it embarrassing to pinpoint the mistakes done by their peers. Just like Liou and Peng (2009), the aforementioned researchers above all recruited participants of oriental descend who favored teacher feedback over their peers' feedback.

Anyway, Liou and Peng (2009) still concluded that technology use with peer review training applied in their study enhanced EFL writing instruction to a certain extent. The researchers also emphasized the importance of step-by-step intensive training because the quality of training did play an intensive role in this study.

Along similar lines, Liang (2010) examined synchronous online peer response among three small peer groups (12 EFL university students) enrolled in an EFL composition class. Student were given training procedures in the writing process as well as provided with revision guidelines which facilitated synchronous online peer –related discourse. Liang (2010) collected data from the online chat sessions, student blogs, and writing assignments and analyzed the data in order to examine the different types of online interactions and how they affected students' subsequent writing and revision. The researcher followed a coding scheme she had proposed at an earlier study conducted in 2008.

In her 2008 study, Liang proposed a frame work which outlines six major types of synchronous online interaction in order to explore L2 peer groups' engagement in a summary writing and revision task. The aforementioned researcher actually used the framework she had proposed in her current study in order to investigate the different type of interaction in synchronous online discourse in two corresponding writing assignments: book review and research paper tasks. The taxonomy constituted revision-related discourse which included meaning negotiation, content discussion, error correction, and task management and non- revision related discourse which included social talk and technical action.

Concerning revision-related discourse, meaning negotiation and error correction occurred less frequently than content discussion and task management. Therefore, students

were more focused on discussing content and remained on task. As for non-revision-related discourse, results indicated that online interactions revealed higher frequency in social talk rather than technical actions. Liang (2010) also concluded after linking group participation in revision-related discourse with writing outcomes that their relationship is "complex and dynamic" (p.56).

Liang (2010) concluded that revision-related online discourse in electronic synchronous writing tasks can provide useful tools for teaching EFL writing as long as instructors "proactively model, scaffold, and support revision-related online discourse if it is to be of benefit" (p. 45).

The effects of wiki based collaborative writing pedagogy: Advantages and discrepancies. The aforementioned researchers (Liu and Sadler, 2003; Schultz, 200; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001; Tuzi, 2004) have proved through their empirical studies that computer mediated communication can actually provide a perfect milieu for the process approach to writing which in turn advocate the different stages of composing; prewriting, drafting, editing, and publishing. More specifically, the following line of research (Cho & Lo, 2011; Aydin & Yildiz, 2014; Tharp, 2010; Lund, 2008, and Kessler, 2009) has called for the usage of wikis in L2 classes, particularly, wiki-based collaborative writing in L2 context by insisting that wikis are highly collaborative by nature.

Aydin & Yildiz (2014) conducted a study to examine if the number of form-related changes and meaning related changes is affected by the type of the task, number of accuracy of self-corrections and peer corrections EFL, learners make during wiki-based collaborative writing tasks in EFL context. The participants were 34 nonnative English speakers studying

in a preparatory program at a university in Istanbul. The subjects were asked to "accomplish three wiki-based collaborative writing tasks (argumentative, informative, and decision making)" (p. 160) while working in groups of four. The instructors / researchers held training sessions before participants started working on their wiki projects. Participants were randomly assigned to groups of four before each different writing task because the researchers wanted the participants to interact with different peers in class. Aydin & Yildiz (2014) analyzed the history pages included in the wiki project of all students' writing tasks and calculated the number of wiki pages in order to determine the number of meaning-related and form-related changes which were calculated separately for each writing task by the researchers. Moreover, Aydin & Yildiz (2014) conducted focus group interviews as well as questionnaires were carried out how participants perceived their experiences with the integrations of a "wiki-based collaborative writing project in their EFL (English as a Foreign Language) writing classes" (p. 160). Results indicated that using wiki-based collaborative writing with college EFL students led to accurate usage of grammatical structures. Moreover, there were more meaning-related changes administered by students than form related changes across all three writing tasks (argumentative, informative, and decision making). Aydin and Yildiz (2014) also reported that students had positive experiences using wikis in their ESL writing classes. They also believed that the quality of their overall writing performance had seriously improved.

Aydin and Yildiz's (2014) findings were similar to Chao and Lo's (2011) who reported that EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners at a university in Taiwan reflected positive perceptions of wiki-based collaborative writing. To elaborate, the study employed a wiki-based collaborative writing process for ESL Taiwanese college students.

According to Chao and Lo's (2011) "A five stage computer mediated collaborative writing project which included collaborative planning, partitioned drafting, peer revising, peer editing, and individual publishing was blended with on campus composition course" (p.395). The participants were 51 students majoring in English which were assigned into 14 groups; each group containing four to five members. The researchers chose Wikispaces as the wiki technology to be used in the project. Most importantly the Wikispaces program has the "history feature" which helped students identify their revisions easily as well as instructors monitor students' progression. A five-point Likert scale questionnaire was issued for participants in order to determine their students' perceptions of wiki based projects. Moreover, open ended questionnaires were also used to collect students' reflections on collaborative writing, collaborative writing with wikis, and the five stages of the writing process which was incorporated with the wiki project. Chao & Lo (2011) coded, analyzed, and interpreted both the quantitative data obtained from the Likert scale questionnaires and the qualitative data obtained from the open-ended questionnaires. Results showed that "the instructional design of implementing the wiki-based collaborative writing project did assist ESL learners to accomplish a collaborative writing task on the internet with less limitation of time" (Chao & Lo, 2011, p. 395). Moreover, the researchers reported high percentage of students' satisfaction reflected positive perceptions of wiki based collaborative writing.

Indeed, a number of problems which were directly related to the usage of wikis in networked peer review and were identified in research literature. For instance, Lund (2008) drew the readers' attention to problematic issues in using wikis with ESL writers. The researcher did a study in order to examine the kind of wiki activities learners engage in and the effect of wiki networked collaboration on the foreign language learning class. The

participants were 31 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners aged 17 (high school graduates) who were participating in an EFL course. Participants worked with the MediaWiki application. They all had access to networked classes as well face-to-face interactions. Therefore, participants worked on their peer responses in both modes (online and offline). Lund (2008) used selected videotaped transcripts of learner communications related to the use of a wiki in an EFL context in addition to written responses to a questionnaire which provided information about their perceptions about wikis which was distributed to 27 of the participants. Lund (2008) reported learners' concerns for abuse "cyber bullying" and inexpert editing. Such concerns according to the researcher, testify the notions of ownership (distributing authorship responsibilities) and individual accountability among collaborating teams which were problematic in this situation. Of direct relevancy, Kessler (2009) examined the degree to which a group of Mexican pre-service EFL teachers attempt to accurately correct their own as well as their peers' errors in a long-term collaborative task using wikis. The participants were 40 nonnative pre-service English teachers in Mexico who were enrolled in an instructional online. They were required to access web-based content in order to participate in weekly forum discussions, "live video lectures, student video presentations, and ongoing collaboration on wikis" (Kessler, 2009, p. 81) for at least three times a week. The study relied on data provided by the wiki itself rather than observations done by the researcher. Kessler (2009) used Learner Related Episodes (LERs); which were also used in Storch's (2007) study to identify learners' attention to language issues and discourse throughout their participation in the wiki project. The (LERs) were coded according to form, content, accuracy, and inaccuracy. Moreover, interviews were conducted using video conferencing in order to gain insight into the participants'

perceptions of their individual as well as collaborative contributions in a wiki autonomous environment. Results indicated that the subjects were willing to collaborate in the wiki autonomous environment which was provided by the researcher and were more willing to correct their peers' work instead of correcting their own. They also focused on meaning rather than form and actually worked in order to improve content.

However, Kessler (2009) indicated that an autonomous wiki environment may not work with other EFL participants since his participants were trained EFL English teachers. He acknowledged that replicating his study with other groups of EFL learners like student populations who cannot strive for autonomy and definitely do not have much in common with the English teachers in his study. This, according to Kessler (2009) would enhance conclusions of his study.

The Drawbacks of Using Technology for Peer Response

The following line of research suggests limitations of electronic peer response in L2 (second Language) writing classes.

Braine (2001) concluded that networked writing is not more beneficial than traditional writing. The authors admitted that the software program which was designed to teach writing on Local-area networked (LAN) computers was more seen as a hurdle rather than a benefit to students' writing. Hence, the researcher reported difficulties that students in networked classes faced in navigating the multiple windows which in turn provided threads of large amounts of online writing that it was really cumbersome for students to catch up with the list of comments which they were bombarded with.

Along similar lines, Leh (1999) conducted a study to examine the effect computer-mediated communication in FL (Foreign Language) learning context. Participants were 18 college students in USA who were learning Spanish as a foreign language. As part of the study procedures, the participants had to communicate via the use of email with college students in Mexico whose native language is Spanish. Leh (1999) assigned her participants into a control group and an experimental group. The 18 US students in the experimental group used e-mails during the semester in order to communicate with their Mexican pen pals.

However, participants in the control group did not use computer-mediated communication and therefore, had no pen pals to correspond to. Leh (1999) analyzed written reports, oral examinations, in addition to surveys and cloze texts which were administered to all subjects in the control group as well as the experimental group. However, students in the experimental group had to respond to an extra survey which examined their perceptions about the use of e-mail instruction as well as to follow up interviews so that they would be given a chance to elaborate on their responses on the survey given. Results indicated that internet-based language instruction through the use of emails had no significant difference on the development of participants' language proficiency (reading, writing, and speaking). Moreover, the researcher reported that one of the major problems which affected the study negatively was that the instructor could not integrate e-mail into instruction because there were strict rules about following the academic departments' guidelines. In addition, technical problems were recorded such as the inability of some students to receive their pen pal's emails due to limited access to computers or lack of commitment to writing.

A follow up study was conducted one year after the original study. However, one third; only four students, of the participants admitted to having continued writing to their pen pals. Majority of participants explained that they were too busy to write to their pen pals, others said that their pen pals did not reply. Along similar lines, Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2001) reported negative effects and problematic issues concerning computer-mediated communication. The researchers conducted a study to examine to what extent ESL students could benefit from the use of emails in developing their proficiency in writing for academic purposes course. Participants were 14 non-native students in an intermediate ESL course at a university in the USA. The participants were involved in writing online texts (using emails) and writing offline texts (using word processing). Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2001) wanted to compare the differences between ESL students' email and word processing writing in terms of usage of cohesive features (defined as the subject position in the sentences e.g. repetition of same nouns or noun phrases, the use of equivalent nouns, the presence of pronoun referents, and the omission of lexical items), in terms of length of texts produced (defined as the number of words in test) , and in terms of text-initial contextualization (defined as the writers' ability to let the reader know something about the topic without immediately responding to the writing prompt by giving a personal opinion).Results demonstrated that students' online and offline texts had no significant difference in terms of the relative frequency of occurrence of cohesive lexical terms in the texts. However, the study clearly showed that internet-based language instruction (online writing via emails) had negative effects on the development of writing proficiency. Hence, Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2001) reported that online academic mail texts were

shorter than offline word-processed texts. Moreover, text-initial contextualization was more obvious in the offline word processed text than in online mail tests produced.

Therefore, preceding line of studies raises concerns and questions about the benefits of computer-mediated communication in terms of ESL writing development. Hence, barriers from the application process of e-feedback may impede peer response implementation and in turn lead to negative effects on ESL writing performance. However, Warschauer, Turbee, and Roberts (1996) insisted that computer learning networks definitely have the possibility of empowering students when used appropriately. Therefore, I think that practitioners should "tailor-make" peer response traditional mode as well as online networked mode in a way that suits their own classes based on the goals behind implementing peer response, students' standards of English, and degree of flexible logistics available. However, one might ask; how can L2 teachers "tailor make" networked mode peer response? This is where the usage of Web 2.0 tools can easily find its way into the pedagogical practices in L2 writing curriculum through the diffusion of different technologies which have diverse features into computer-mediated peer feedback activities.

On the other hand, blogs are not exempt from problematic issues. A study was conducted by Kashani, Mahmud, and Kalajani (2013) which aimed at examining the effectiveness of blogs as compared to conventional pen-and-paper on Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. Result indicated that there was no statistically significant effect for the blogging treatment on students' writing performance. Kashani, Mahmud, and Kalajani (2013) explained the insignificant efficacy of the Weblog intervention was due to the fact that both groups "blogging group" and "pen-and-paper group" received similar instruction and feedback; the only difference was the tools (blog vs. pen and paper) and therefore

"different tools in essay writing cannot make difference in writing performance improvement" (p. 214). Moreover, the researchers reported that although their blogging group attended a training session to get acquainted with the blogging experience, the group still faced technical problems such as difficulties with publishing their posts and responding to what have been posted. Kashani, Mahmud, and Kalajani (2013) admitted that the blog was "a modern tool for the participants" unlike the pen and paper tool which everyone was familiar with and therefore could write more easily using it. In addition, the researchers speculated that the inefficacy of the Weblog experience was due to the lack of face-to-face negotiations between the blogging group and the instructor. Hence, unlike their pen-and-paper writing counterparts, bloggers could not meet with the instructors to ask questions and receive feedback. For, the only way was for the instructor to give the blogging group feedback was via blog.

Along similar lines, Matsumura and Hann (2004) warned practitioners who decide to use blogs as an electronic platform to publish students' comments about feedback issues because some students may not feel at ease with feedback published on line (as cited in Awada & Ghaith, 2014). Moreover, Mansor (2011) contended that some students were reluctant about sharing their thoughts online because the idea of blogging and sharing their thoughts and exposing their reflections online was "totally alien to them" (513). Along a similar note, after comparing and analyzing the syntactic complexity of the first three blog entries and the last three blog entries written by his participants, Sun (2010) reported that the students produced more complex and highly structured sentences in the first three blog entries compared to the last three blog entries. Sun (2010) explained that the regression in

the complexity of language was due to the informal and casual environment that blogs provided which in turn triggered students to produce a higher portion of simple sentences.

All in all, many studies on networked feedback have been reviewed; however, the aforementioned literature demonstrated conflicting results. Many factors might contribute to the logistic inflexibility, instructors' and students' conflicting values; wide range of linguistic levels, ESL students' problematic issues with autonomy, and diverse backgrounds, in addition to research methods applied. As Tharp (2010) exclaimed that it is the pedagogical practice, learning approach "peer's response in this case" that makes the difference and not the technology. Hence, the studies presented in the literature review above demonstrate inconclusive and conflicting results regarding the effectiveness of peer response whether traditional mode or networked mode. However, the preceding line of research coincides and reflects agreement that ESL students should be coached extensively in order to become efficient and proficient peer reviewers. Therefore, the following chapter about methodology will provide a description of the method used in conducting the research study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The study investigates the effects of trained peer response (traditional using face-to-face, online computer-networked mode, and a combination of both modes) on Lebanese college EFL students' writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response, and attitudes towards writing. Moreover, the study investigates to what extent Lebanese college students in an Academic English program are trainable in peer response and how peer response in different modes affects their writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response, and their attitudes towards writing.

Research Questions

For the purpose of this study, the following questions will be addressed:

1. Is training EFL writers in peer response effective in a process-approach writing classroom?
2. What is the relative effect of peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes of peer response) on college EFL Lebanese students' writing performance and revision types?
3. How are students' attitudes towards writing affected by peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes)?

4. To what extent do students find peer response to be useful and what is the relative effect of peer response conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face, computer mediated online, and a combination of both traditional and online modes of peer response) on college EFL Lebanese students' perception towards peer response?

Research Design

Study Design

Figure 2 below sums up the study design in a nutshell.

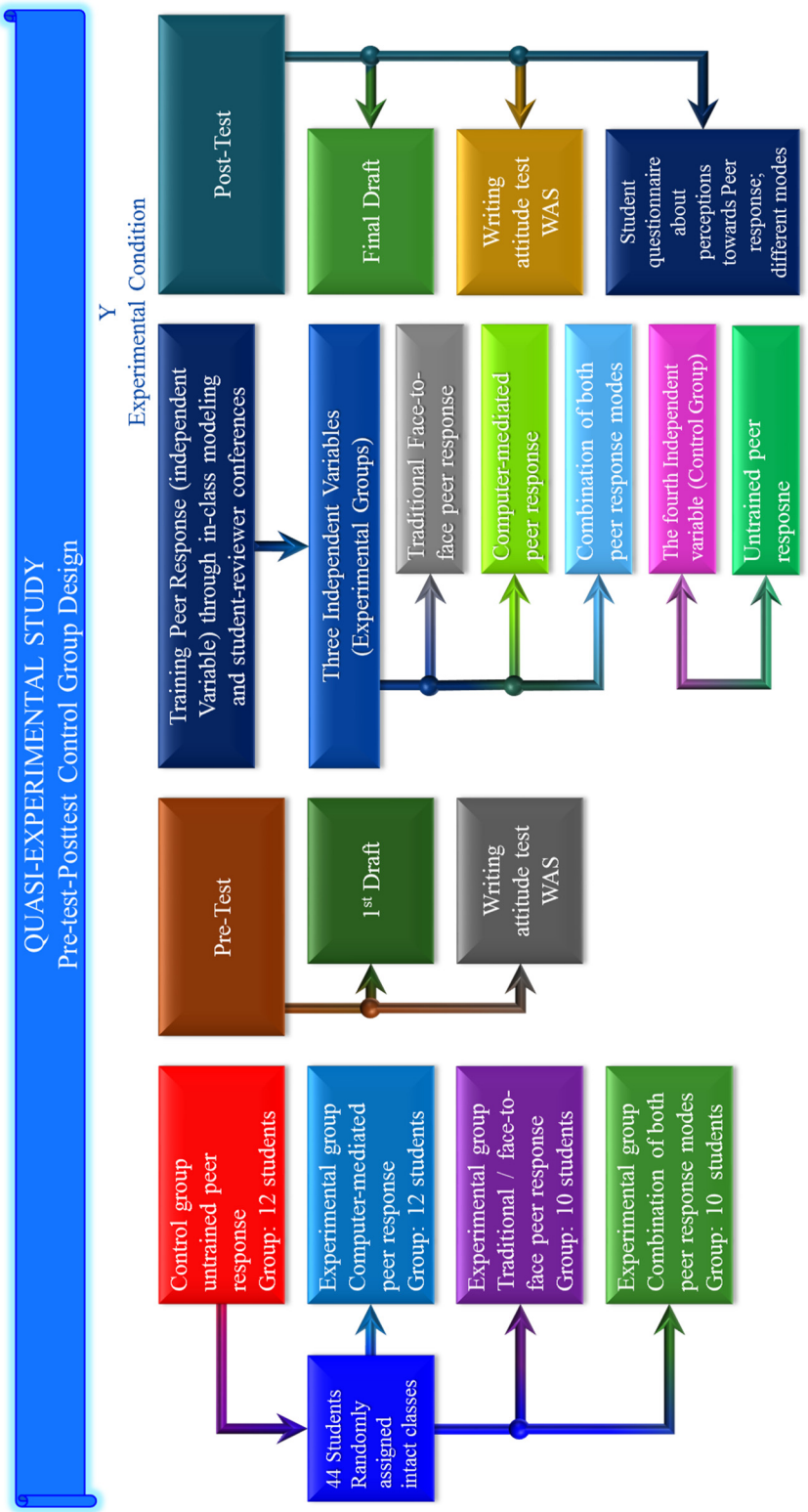

Figure 2. *Study design of the relative effects of trained peer response on university-bound Lebanese EFL students' writing performance, revision types, and perceptions towards perceptions towards peer response, and attitudes towards writing.*

Figure 2 above demonstrates how the study investigates the role of explicitly training college EFL Lebanese students in peer response and its impact, whether it takes on a traditional face-to-face mode, a computer-mediated mode, or a combination of both modes on their writing performance, revision types, and perceptions towards peer response and attitudes towards writing. Therefore, to best conduct this study, the researcher favored the Pretest-Posttest (Quasi- Experimental Design). Hence, participants in the control group and the experimental groups remained in their intact classes (See figure 2). For, the purpose of the study is to determine the simultaneous effects of trained peer response both traditional face-to-face peer response and computer-mediated online peer response on pretest- posttest change (writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response and attitudes towards writing).

Participants

Forty-four college EFL Lebanese students participated in the study. More specifically, the students who participated in the current study were Lebanese college students who were enrolled in ENGL 203 (Academic English). These particular class groups were chosen to participate in this study because they were at the desired proficiency level (high intermediate). Therefore, the students were homogeneous in their overall language proficiency; they were also balanced in terms of number of students, and cultural background. The participants of this study had been involved with the concept of process writing in previous years since the Lebanese English language curriculum proclaims a process-oriented approach to writing which requires EFL learners to delve into the following stages: “prewriting, writing, revising, and publishing” (Shaaban and Ghaith, 1997,

p. 204). Moreover, the participants were also familiar with the concept of cooperative learning and therefore had already developed the required social skills as group work is part of the Lebanese English language curriculum (Shaaban and Ghaith, 1997).

Population

The target population is college EFL Lebanese learners.

Sample

Based on the AUB website and an interview with the director of communication skills in the English department at AUB, ENGL 203 (Academic English) is an English communication skills course offered by the English department at AUB to students of all levels: graduate, undergraduate, and postgraduate. Students in ENGL 203 are EFL undergraduate learners and they all speak the same regional language which is Levant Arabic. These undergraduate learners use a free email account provided by the university and most of them apply their work on Moodle and are frequent internet users.

Sampling Procedures

Two classes, each containing 22 students each were chosen and the classes remained intact. Specifically, subjects were assigned to a control group which applied untrained peer response (did not receive any training in peer response), and three experimental groups which were trained in peer response. However, one experimental group applied peer response in a traditional, face-to-face mode, the other experimental group

applied peer response in a computer-mediated, networked mode and the third experimental group applied a combination of both face-to-face and computer-mediated peer responses.

Instruments

Personal Narrative Essays

Personal narrative essays were used as first drafts and final drafts. The aforementioned personal narratives were collected, rated, and compared in order to assess the effects of peer response in its different modes (untrained, traditional, online, combination of both) on students' writing performance and revision types. The current study concerns narrative writing because according to Boscolo and Ascorti (2004), unlike narrative texts, explanatory and procedural texts require precise information that the writer has the responsibility to provide. Hence, Boscolo and Ascort (2004, p. 161) elaborated that narrative writing requires that "the writer implicitly refers to the readers' prior schematic knowledge (knowledge of human feelings, experiences, and interactions usually described in a narrative) and discourse knowledge (structure and features of a story or narrative)".

All participants were required to write personal narratives related to one of the following themes (passion, revolution, change, and discrimination). Prior to writing their personal narrative, the researcher explained discourse knowledge of a personal narrative to students through PowerPoint presentations and different guidelines and worksheets for revising narrative writing (See Appendix1).

Test of Written English (TWE)

A TWE-based holistic rating scale (Educational Testing Services, 1996) was used to score the quality of narrative essay writing in both the first drafts (i.e., pre-peer response drafts) and final drafts (i.e., post-peer response drafts). This rating scale used is criterion referenced and holistically scored according to a 6-point scoring guide. Braine (2001) explained that two different readers usually score the papers. In case there is discrepancy in scoring, by more than one point, a third reader scores the papers to resolve any disagreement. Therefore, Braine (2001, p. 283) stated that the Test of Written English (TWE) is "deemed the most appropriate measure of EFL students' writing quality." Moreover, Braine (1997) had emphasized in an earlier study that the TWE Test of Written English is almost the best recognized, most extensively used and "most reliable test of writing skills of nonnative speakers of English" (p. 50). The quality of writing and the degree of improvement was measured by the degree of difference between the two scores (final draft score and first draft score) using the TWE scoring guide. Moreover, a scoring range was given to TWE test in order to conform with the grading principles of the urban university where the study was conducted. (See Appendix2)

Revision Taxonomy by Faigley and Witte (1981)

Faigley and Witte's (1981) revision taxonomy was used to identify revision types which were made by students after having revised their peers' narrative writing. According to Faigley and Witte's taxonomy of revision changes (1981), there exist two types of revisions of written texts, surface changes and meaning changes. Surface changes, to elaborate, are the changes that do not bring new information or change the meaning of the

text. Moreover, surface changes include Formal changes and Meaning-preserving Changes. Hence, Formal Changes are copy-editing changes in areas such as spelling, tense, and punctuation, whereas Meaning - Preserving Changes provide paraphrasing or restatement of the ideas without altering the meaning of the text. Faigely and Witte's taxonomy also includes an important category which the authors named "Text - Based Changes" or "Meaning Changes". This category includes two subcategories: Microstructure and Macrostructure changes which alter the meaning of the written text by bringing about new ideas to it. According to Faigley and Witte (1981, p. 404) microstructure changes include "simple adjustments or elaborations" which are minor changes of the meaning of written texts and therefore do not change the "gist or overall meaning" of the text. However, macrostructure changes are changes which alter the "gist of the text". Hence, a macrostructure change is a major revision change that would "alter the summary of the text". So, Faigley and Witte (1981) claimed that they had found a systematic way of differentiating minor and major changes of the meaning of the composed texts. (See Appendix 3)

The researcher and an experienced EFL teacher coded the revision types independently and then reviewed all cases of disagreement and resolved the differences together.

Writing Attitude Scale (WAS)

To measure students' attitudes towards writing, a Likert-type scale item which has four response options (4 points for "very happy" to 1 point for "very upset") was used as a pretest and a posttest as well. The Writing Attitude Survey by Dennis J. Kear, Gerry A.

Coffman, Michael C. McKenna and Anthony L. Ambrosia is a paper -and-pencil measure which first appeared in the September 2000 issue of "The Reading Teacher". The character of Garfield the cat is featured in the survey. (See Appendix 4)

Kear, Coffman, McKenna and Ambrosia (2000) insisted that their instrument, WAS, has reliability and validity derived empirically. The researchers also claimed that the instrument is applicable from grade 1 all the way to grade 12(high school graduates). Moreover, the chance of students using a neutral response was avoided by the developers of this instrument. So, an even number of choices was employed in the attitude survey. The developers of WAS claimed that it has a high degree of reliability at each grade level for both genders as well as for the total sample. The researchers reported that no coefficients fell below the .80 level, and reliability for the total sample was .88. However, Kear, Coffman, McKenna and Ambrosia (2000) then gave examples of empirical studies which used this instrument in their data collection which helped in the implementation of their writing programs. A critical note is that the researcher had contacted one of the developers of the instrument (Mr. Kear) who gave the researcher permission to use the tool. (See Appendix 5)

Peer Response Sheets and Guidelines

The researcher used peer response sheets and guidelines to train students in peer response. Among the sheets was a commonly used tool called "Peer Response Sheet for an Essay" based on Baker et al. (1989) which was used by one of the widely cited studies in the area of second language peer response (Berg,1999). (See Appendix 6)

According to Berg (1999), the "peer response sheet for an essay" involves reading and writing as the main activities. Moreover, it gives students the chance to think about and produce appropriate response in writing before discussing them with the author of the paper s/he responded to. The peer response sheet includes questions and a list of items that students should investigate before they respond to their peers' written product.

Moreover, a guidance sheet based on Min's (2006) study was used to help students focus on some aspects of their peer's writing when evaluating it as well as a four-step procedure (also see Appendix 6) which helped students clarify their intentions, identify the source of problems, explain the nature of problems, and make specific suggestions on their peers' narrative writings.

Website and Wiki-based forum

Pennell (2008) described wikis in a nutshell when he wrote " Wikis (Hawaiian for 'quick' or 'fast') represent a set of Web Pages with an open editing system, in other words, anyone can add to, delete, or change a wiki, making them highly collaborative" (as cited in Tharp, 2010, p. 40). The following line of research, which was mentioned in detail in literature review, (Lund, 2008; Kessler, 2009; Tharp, 2010; Li, Chu, & Ki, 2014; Chao & Lo, 2011; Aydin & Yildiz, 2014) has called for the usage of wikis in L2 classes, particularly, wiki-based collaborative writing in L2 context.

In the current study, students had to go to the following website link: https://sites.google.com/site/educ321pf/ (see figure 3 below). The website, created by the researcher with the help of professional holder of a degree in computer engineering, actually acted as a springboard for introducing the research study for the students. It included

everything about peer response including definitions, types of peer response, benefits of peer response, studies related to peer response, the significance of peer response, and everything the students needed to know about peer response.

Figure 3. *Peer response website which included everything students needed to know about peer response and the study taking place.*

Students had two options in order to register in the peer response forum. They could either click on the chat bubble as shown in figure 3 above, or go to a direct link to the forum in order to register: http://peerresponse.boards.net as shown in figure 4 below.

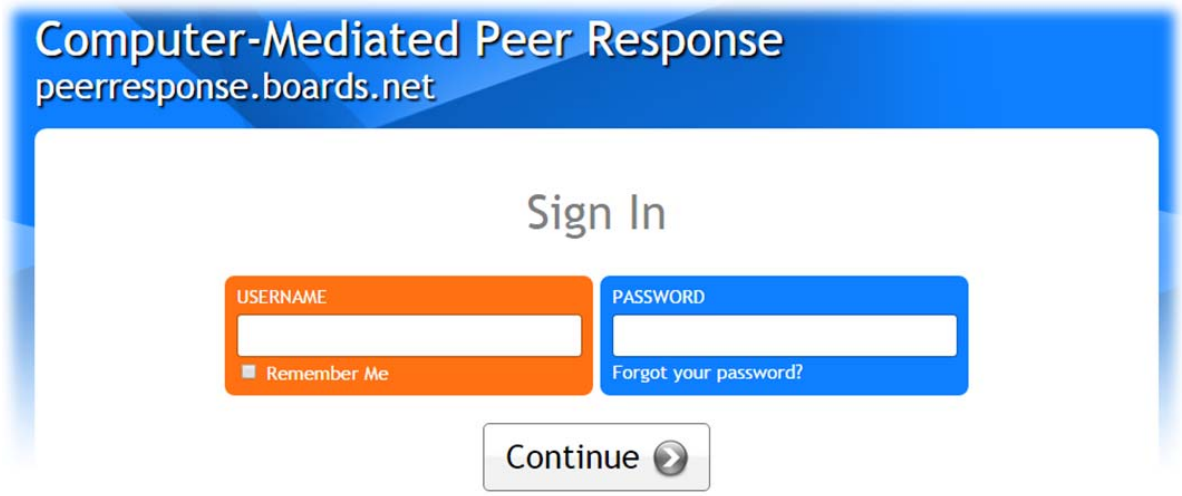

Figure 4. *Students had to create a user name and password to have an account in peer response forum*

Once registered, students had to click on the team they were assigned to in order to perform peer response in pairs, each pair in one team; whether e-team online, or mixed a combination of both modes team as shown in figures 5 and 6 below.

Figure 5. *E-teams where assigned students perform only online peer response.*

Figure 6.*Mixed mode teams where students perform a combination of both online and traditional face-to-face peer response.*

After joining their assigned teams, students had to click on "create a thread" as shown in figure 7 below in order to post their first drafts and to respond to their peers' first drafts as well.

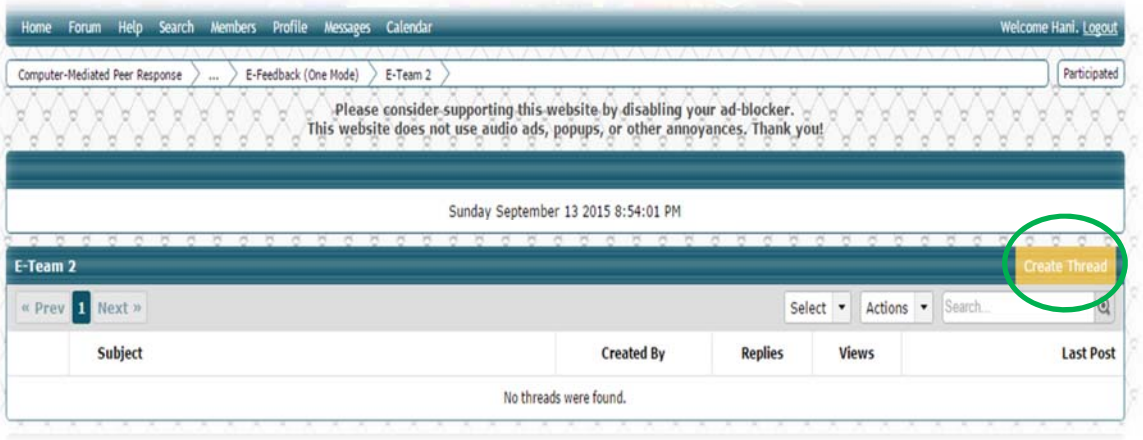

Figure 7. *Creating a thread in order to post their drafts and peer responses.*

After clicking on "create thread", students then wrote the titles of their personal narratives (first drafts) and used the tool bar shown in figure 8 below in order to write their essays. Once they were done with writing they clicked on "create thread" in order to post their writings for the other team member to view, read, and respond to.

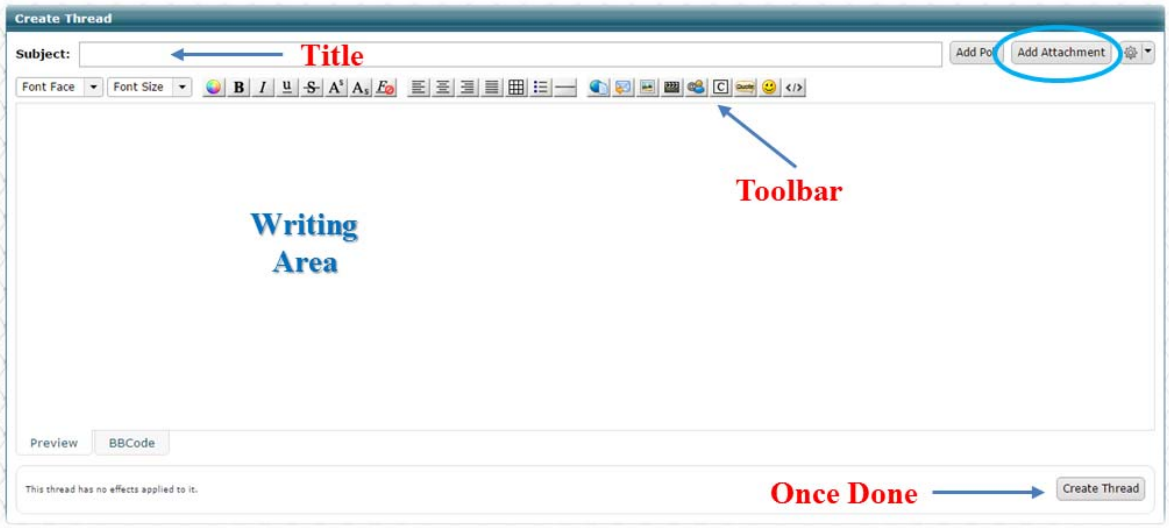

Figure 8. *Creating a thread to post.*

Below (figure 9) is an example of a students' first draft personal narrative essay. The student was assigned to online Team 4 peer response group.

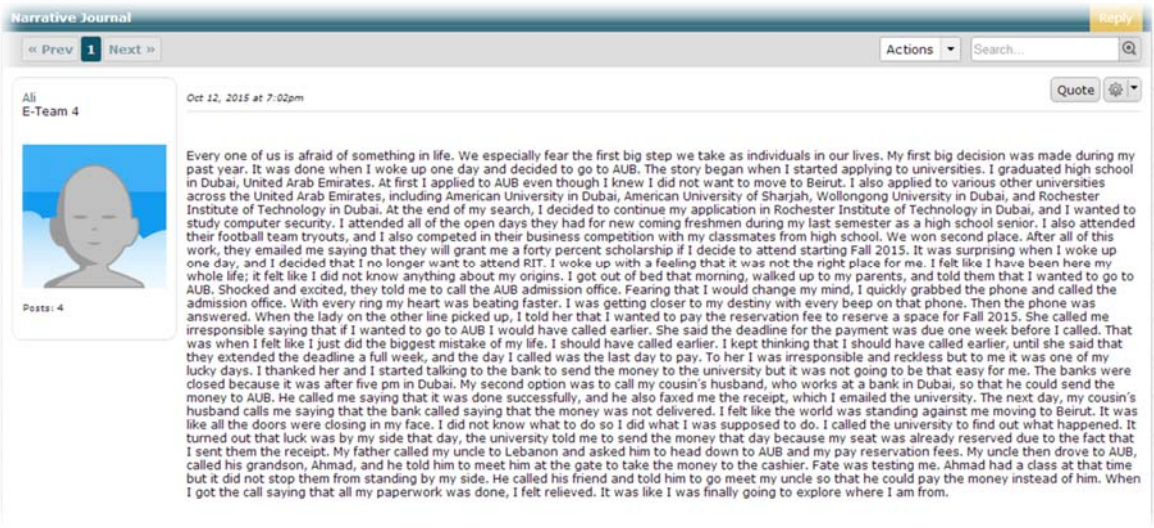

Figure 9. *Example of first draft posted by a student assigned to online Team 4.*

Once students' first drafts were posted, their peer reviewers had to click on reply button (as shown in figure 9 above) in order to post their peer response. However, to help students respond neatly in a clear and organized way, the researcher instructed students to click on quote button as shown in figure 10 below in order to copy / paste the paragraph they are giving their feedback and peer response to, write their peer response in the quote and highlight what they have changed, then write comments in sentences under the quote. Once done with responding, students had to click on "create post" in order to post their peer response and be visible to their peer (Example shown in figures 10 and 11 below).

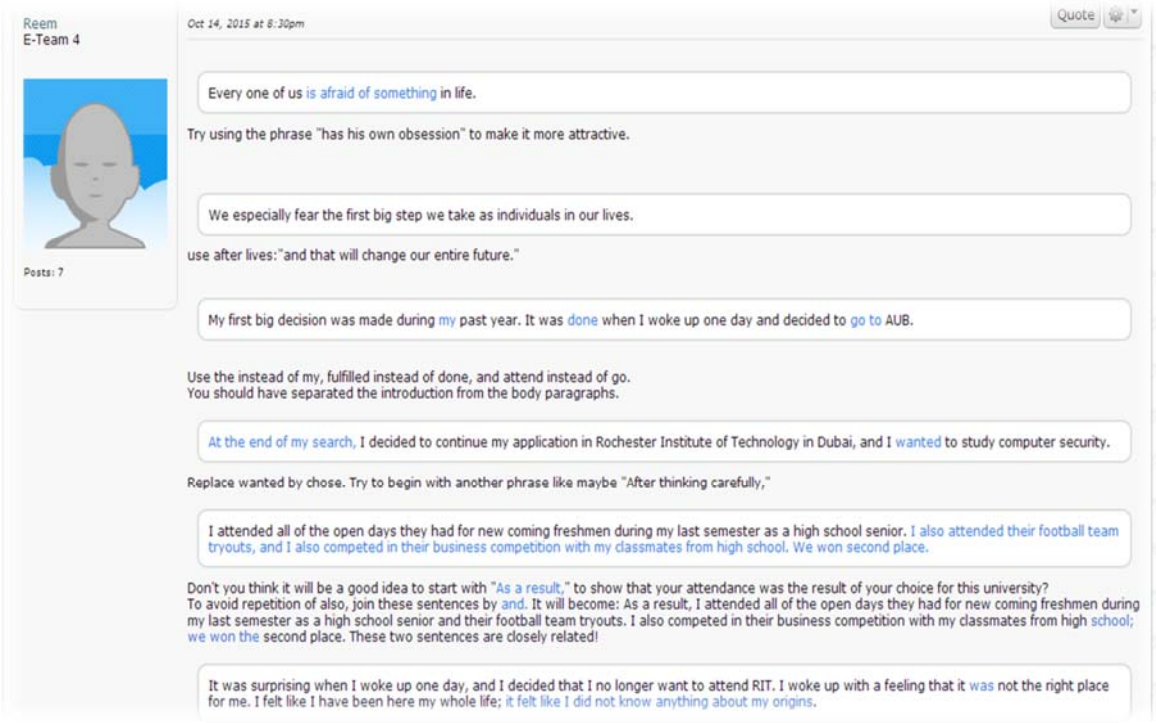

Figure 10. *Example of peer response done by a student assigned to online Team 4.*

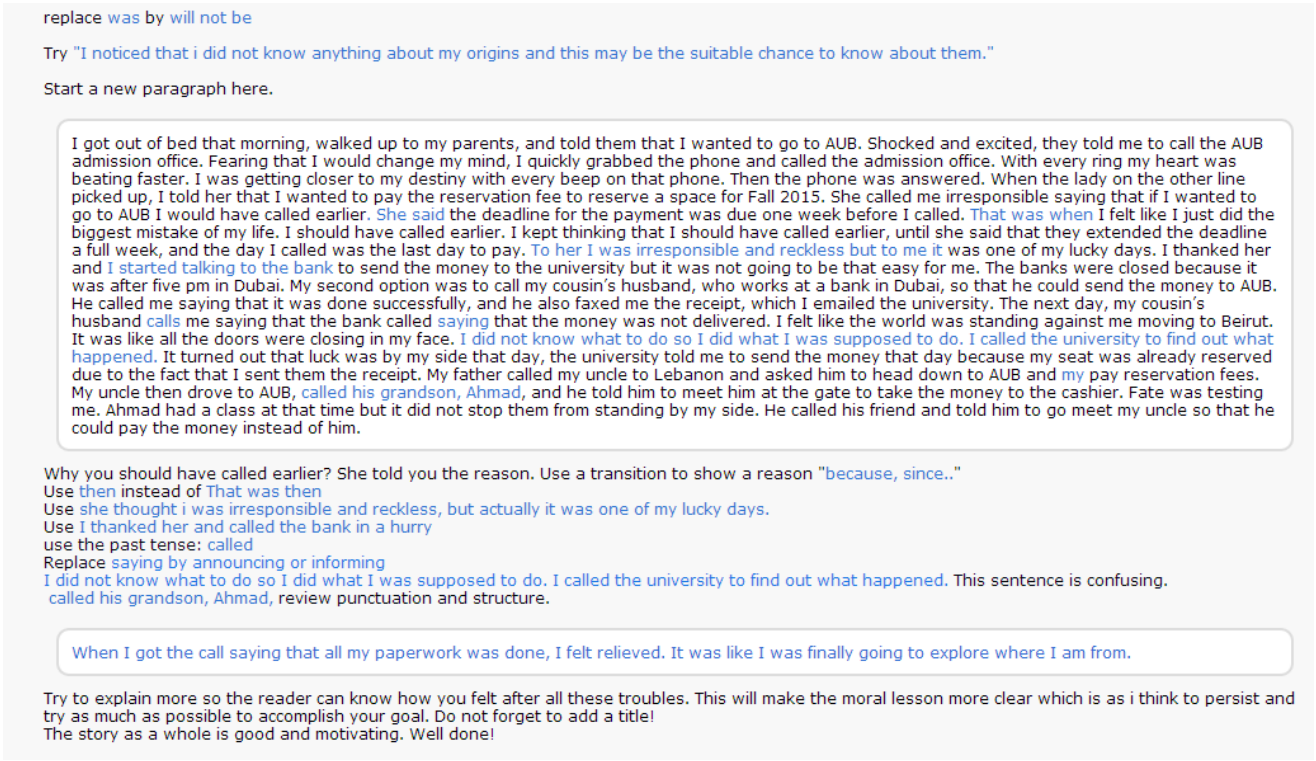

Figure 11.*Comtinued peer response done by a student assigned to Online Team 4.*

Students in mixed mode teams had to follow the same procedures in order to provide their peers with feedback on their first drafts (See figures 12, 13, and 14 below for an example).

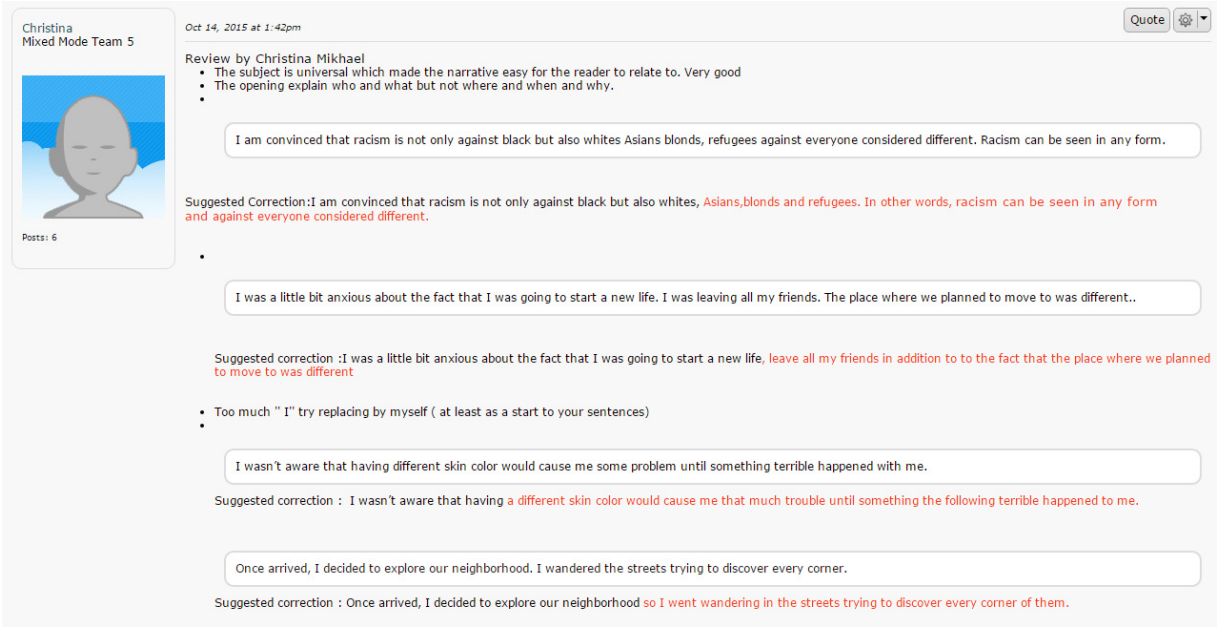

Figure 12. *Example of peer response made a student assigned to mixed mode online and face-to-face peer response.*

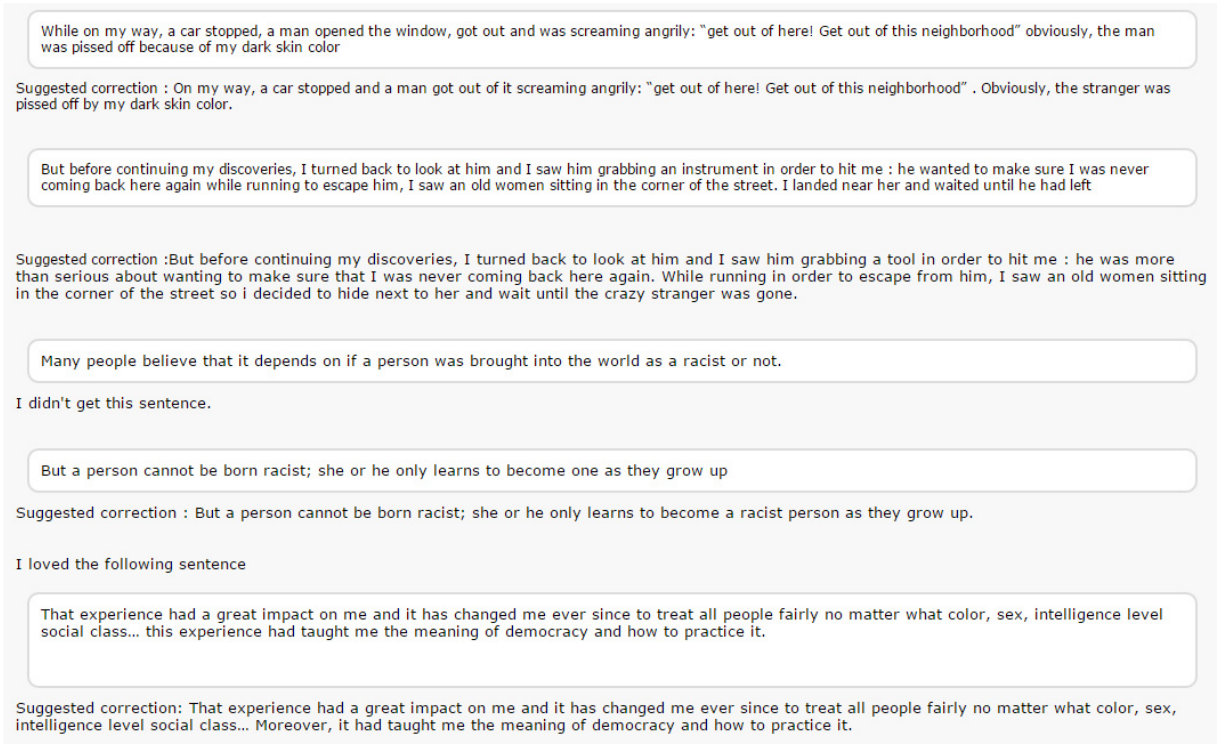

Figure 13. *Continued example on peer response provided by a student assigned to mixed mode Team 5.*

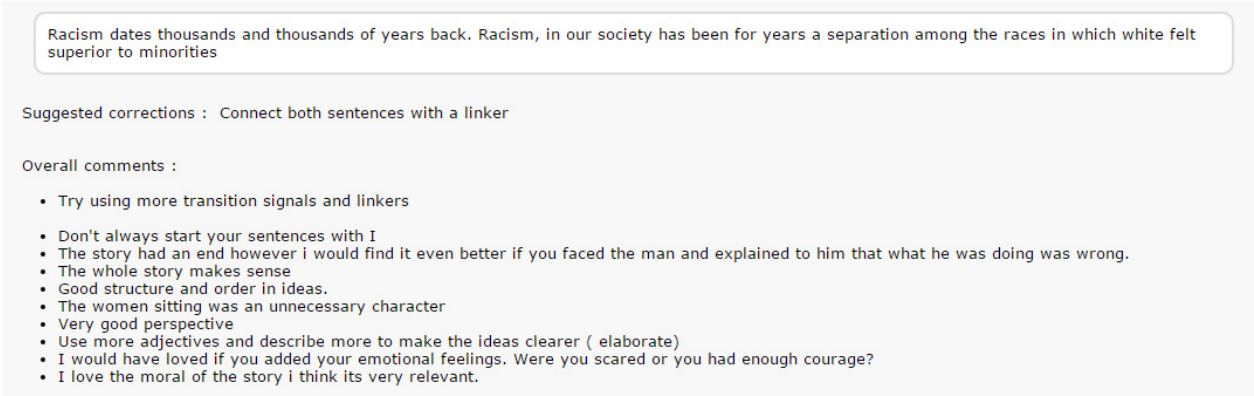

Figure 14. *Continued peer response by same student in combination of both Mixed Team 5.*

When participants wrote their final drafts, the researcher then asked them to highlight the revision changes they made based on their peers' suggested comments. The students were also asked to write the kinds of revision changes they made based on their peers' comments (see figure 15 as an illustration).

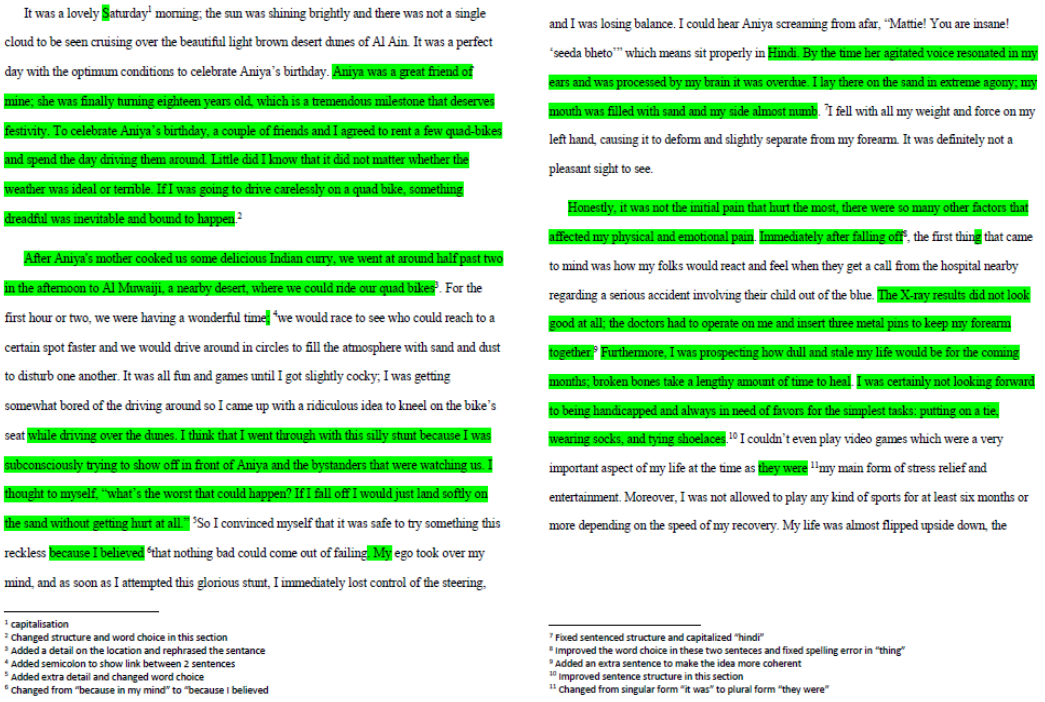

Figure 15. *The student highlighted the revision changes he made based on his peer's comments and added what kind of changes he made in the footnote below the text.*

Questionnaire about perceptions towards peer response

Participants' perceptions towards peer response were elicited through a questionnaire adapted from Hu (2005). The questionnaire (see Appendixn7) helped explain the effects of peer response treatment conditions on students' perceptions towards peer response whether untrained, face-to face and computer response group formats as well as the combination of both modes

Data Collection Procedures

The experiment took place over a period of half of a semester (8 weeks) as part of the writing sessions of the students' study in ENGL 203 Academic English at AUB.

Pre-Tests

Students who were already enrolled in their intact classes were assigned to their experimental groups and control group. The experimental groups and the control group were administered (pre-test measures: first drafts and WAS writing attitude scale) to determine whether the control group and the experimental groups were similar on writing performance, revision types, and attitudes towards writing.

Therefore, and as part of the process approach to writing which emphasizes multiple draft writing, all the participants in the experimental groups (traditional , electronic, and a combination of both modes) as well as in the control group (peer response without training) wrote a first draft on one genre (personal narrative) and peer evaluated their friends' drafts. This draft was scored and checked for types of revisions as a pre-test by two experienced EFL college teachers. Moreover, all groups were administered a writing

attitude test (WAS) as a pre-test and a post-test in addition to a final draft which was considered as a post-test in addition to a questionnaire base on (Hu, 2005) which elicited students' perceptions towards peer response.

More critically, a Cronbach alpha was used for WAS (Writing Attitude Scale) pre-test items and reliability coefficients were calculated. WAS pre-test scale reliability test revealed a significantly high correlation between its items α= .86 (Table 1).

Table 1.

WAS (Writing Attitude Scale) Pretest Reliability

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.866	28

In addition, a Cronbach alpha was also used for WAS (Writing Attitude Scale) post-test items and reliability coefficients were calculated. WAS (writing Attitude Scale) post-test scale reliability test also revealed a significantly high correlation between its items α = .90 (Table 2 below).

Table 2.

WAS (Writing Attitude Scale) Post-test reliability

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.904	28

Treatment

The usual ENG 203 instructors of class A and class B attended all the training sessions and the types of conferences (untrained, face-to-face mode, electronic mode, and combination of both); however, they neither took part in peer feedback training, nor did they take part in the different modes of peer response and interactions. The researcher did not ask the usual teachers to take part in the treatment because studies such as the study conducted by Yagelski and Grabill (1998) confirmed that the instructor's teaching style of leading face-to-face discussions and electronic discussions, in addition to his or her level of computer proficiency and attitude towards the usage of computers in writing may affect the quantity and quality of students' participation. Consequently, the researcher lead all peer response training as well as conference discussions (face-to-face, electronic, and a combination of both) in order to keep experimental conditions consistent in both classes.

The training

The experimental groups were informed about the objectives of the peer response training program. They were told that they should know how to evaluate their friends' writings and give them concrete feedback rather than 'rubber stamp' feedback. They understood that their peers were going to use their feedback to make important revisions and improve their writing whether through using face-to-face, online, or a combination of both. The researcher designed a *database-driven website* which incorporated a wiki-based forum which facilitated computer-mediated feedback between members of the experimental groups which responded to their peers' written drafts and commented on them via e-feedback i.e. networked feedback. To elaborate, lesson plans were devised for peer review training of the

experimental groups. The training took a period of five weeks / nine sessions. (See Appendix 8 for all peer response lesson plans from week one to week five inclusively).

Peer response training consisted of two phases, the in-class training and one-on-one conference. The training phase started when the students were about to perform pair peer review on their first drafts. The modeling and training phase took five weeks where students watched YouTube videos on peer response, discussed power point presentations on peer response, and worked on practice sheets on how to perform peer response (See Appendix 8 for all worksheets across a period of 5 weeks training). For instance, the experimental groups were given a guidance sheet based on Min's (2006) study to help them focus on some aspects of their peer's writing when evaluating it (See Appendix 6)**.**Then, think-aloud method was used to demonstrate how to make comments by using a four-step procedure: Clarifying writers' intentions, identifying the source of problems, explaining the nature of problems, and making specific suggestions (See Appendix 6). For example, to clarify the writers' intention, the researcher asked questions like "Do you mean that…" or "What do you mean by…". After the nine training sessions came to an end, students were asked to perform peer review on their friend's drafts in class and give the written commentary to their partners in the same session following the questions on the guidance sheet and the four-step procedure. Writers were also allowed one week to revise their first drafts at home. They were supposed to explain in their revision why they had disregarded their reviewers' suggestions if they did so. The following week, the instructor collected the writers' drafts, revisions, and reviewers' comments, and checked them for analysis with another rater. Then the researcher scheduled a thirty-minute conference with each reviewer to discuss with them how to refine their comments if they fail to follow the four-step procedure.

While the experimental group was being trained in peer response, the control group did not receive any training in peer response. However, participants in the control group did write a draft on the same genre (personal narrative) as the experimental group and they also did evaluate their friend's drafts but without any interference or training on the behalf of the researcher. To control for any threats, the control group did not receive any other alternative training.

Post-Tests

After the training of the experimental groups in peer response, both the experimental and the control groups were administered post-tests. The first post-test was the second draft that the students wrote after their peer evaluations. This draft was scored by the two instructors who usually taught ENG 203 classes using the TWE holistic scoring rubric. The aforementioned two raters had matching academic backgrounds in teaching English as a foreign language and had almost equivalent years of experience which ranged between 18 and 20 years teaching EFL learners at the college level. The two raters were requested to read thoroughly through the TWE holistic scoring rubric and agreed on a scoring range (See Appendix 1). Then they both held a meeting to reach a general agreement about the TWE scoring rubric and the nature of good writing before evaluating first drafts of students' narrative essays.

With all the papers of the intact classes' scores, interrater reliability was computed using a Cronbach alpha and reliability coefficients were calculated to determine the level of correlation between raters. Results revealed a significantly and strongly positively related correlation between the two raters $\alpha = .63$ (Table 3).

Table 3.

Correlation between Raters 1 & 2 on first draft scores

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.636	.643	2

Moreover, the same Writing Attitude Scale (WAS) by Kear et al. (2000) was used as a post-test to measure students' attitudes towards writing. Post-test scale reliability was computed and the level of correlation between (WAS) items revealed a significantly high correlation at (r= .90) (See Table 2 above).

As for the revision types, they were checked based on Faigley and Witte's taxonomy of surface and meaning changes. The researcher and an experienced EFL teacher (20 years of teaching EFL college learners and a holder of a PhD degree) who coded the revision types independently and then the two raters reviewed all cases of disagreement and resolved the differences together.

As for students' perceptions towards peer response, participants responded to a questionnaire based on a study by Hu (2005). (See Appendix 7)

Data Analysis Procedures

The data collected were numerically coded, assigned to a data base storage facility and were statistically interpreted using SPSS version 23.0 for WINDOS. Correlations were used to examine the reliability for first draft scores, scale reliability for WAS pre-test, and

scale reliability for WAS post-test were calculated. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) were computed.

To answer the main research question of whether the treatment is effective, One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was used to assess differences among experimental groups (traditional peer response, online peer response, and combination of both) and the control group. A Post Hoc Tukey Test was followed to assess the significance of peer response training on students' writing performance/achievement according to treatment (control, traditional, online, a combination). Hence, Post Hoc was used to know which group was different at the significant level $p < .05$.

To answer the second research question about the effects of peer response conditions on students' writing performance and the types of revisions they used in their drafts, One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was used to assess differences among experimental groups (traditional peer response, online peer response, and combination of both) and the control group and a text analysis to final drafts was carried out. Text analysis was done by two independent raters; the researcher and an independent rater (an experienced EFL teacher who had 20 years' experience of teaching EFL college learners and a holder of a PhD degree). The independent raters had already coded the revision types independently then reviewed all cases of disagreement and resolved the differences together afterwards. With respect to types of revisions, the researcher and the independent rater used Faigley and Witte's (1981) taxonomy of revision types in order to analyze the drafts. Moreover, descriptive statistics (frequencies of distributions) were used to determine the number and types of revision (surface changes or text-based meaning changes) made by students according to treatment (control, traditional, online, and combination of both /

online and traditional). Frequencies of distributions were used to determine the number of revision types made by each group.

To answer the question about students' attitudes towards writing (different modes of peer response), a One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was used to assess the difference among treatment groups and control group. A Post Hoc Tukey Test was followed to assess the significance of peer response training on students' attitudes towards writing according to treatment (control, traditional, online, a combination). Hence, Post Hoc was used to determine which group was different at the significant level $p < .05$.

To answer the question which compares students' perceptions on the effectiveness of peer response by treatment (untrained, face-to-face, online, and both modes), a perception questionnaire based on Hu (2005) was administered to all participants across the treatment conditions. The questionnaire was analyzed quantitatively through frequencies of distributions and bar charts.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relative effect of using trained peer response traditional versus electronic modes on the writing process of EFL college Lebanese students. The independent variable in this study was the treatment conditions (untrained peer response, traditional peer response, online peer response, and a combination of traditional and electronic modes). However, the dependent variables in this study were students' writing performance (achievement), revision types, perceptions towards peer response, and attitudes towards writing.

This chapter summarises the results of this study. It is divided into four sections. The first section answers the first research question and summarizes the descriptive statistics and results of the One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test that were conducted to address the effect of treatment condition (different modes of peer response) on students' writing performance. The second section summarizes the descriptive statistics and the detail results of frequencies of distributions that were calculated to address the second research question about the effect of treatment condition (different modes of peer response) on students' revision types. The third section summarizes the descriptive statistics and detail the results of One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test that were conducted to address the research question about the effect of treatment condition on students' attitudes towards writing. The last section summarizes the results and details of students' responses to the questionnaire on their perceptions towards peer response were reported quantitatively

(frequencies of distributions and bar charts) in terms of interpretation. To achieve the purpose mentioned above, four null hypotheses were tested. The upcoming texts and tables present a descriptive analysis of the mean scores of students in the control group and the experimental groups on their post-tests (final drafts, and writing attitudes) , analysis of their responses on how they perceive the treatment conditions (different modes of peer response) and the results of testing the null Hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis1.There will be no significant differences in students' writing performance (achievement) across peer response conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online). A One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was used to address the null hypothesis. We used one-way analysis of variance procedures to compare the mean scores of students' writing performance across peer response treatment conditions (Table 4).

Table 4.

Descriptive statistics of students' writing performance stratified by peer response treatment conditions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	10	5.5000	1.58114
Traditional	12	5.0000	2.69680
Online	12	14.6667	4.29235
Combination	10	15.0000	6.46357
Total	44	10.0227	6.27838

The results of the ANOVA test revealed an overall statistically significant difference among the treatment conditions (untrained peer response/control group, traditional, online, and a combination of both modes traditional and online) in students' writing performance (achievement): F (3, 43) =19.84, p=.00 (Table 5).

Table 5.

F-values ANOVA by peer response treatment conditions

Writing Performance

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1013.811	3	337.937	19.845	.000
Within Groups	681.167	40	17.029		
Total	1694.977	43			

Because the F value was significant, it was followed by a Post Hoc Tukey Test to determine on which independent variable (control, traditional, online, combination) there was a difference (Table 6 below). Hence; Post Hoc was used to know which group was different at the significant level $p < .05$.

Table 6.

Post Hoc Comparison Tukey to determine on which independent variable (peer response treatment conditions) there was a difference

(I) Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	(J) Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Control	Traditional	.50000	1.76692	.992
	Online	-9.16667*	1.76692	.000
	Combination	-9.50000*	1.84549	.000
Traditional	Control	-.50000	1.76692	.992
	Online	-9.66667*	1.68469	.000
	Combination	-10.00000*	1.76692	.000
Online	Control	9.16667*	1.76692	.000
	Traditional	9.66667*	1.68469	.000
	Combination	-.33333	1.76692	.998
Combination	Control	9.50000*	1.84549	.000
	Traditional	10.00000*	1.76692	.000
	Online	.33333	1.76692	.998

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

First Independent Variable: Treatment condition Control group (untrained peer response)

The results of the *post hoc* comparison Tukey test (Table 6) revealed no statistically significant difference between the control group, untrained peer feedback (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) and the traditional group face-to-face peer response (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43)=19.84*, p*=0.99. However, the results revealed a statistically significant difference between the control group untrained peer response (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) and the online group electronic peer response (*M*=14.66, *SD*=4.29) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. Interestingly enough, results also revealed statistically significant difference between the control group (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) and the combination group; both modes online and face-to-face peer response (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00.

Second Independent Variable: Treatment condition Traditional group (Face-to-face peer response)

The results of the post hoc comparison Tukey test (refer to table 6) revealed no statistically significant difference between the traditional group face-to-face peer feedback (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) and the untrained peer response control group (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.99. However, the results revealed statistically significant difference between the traditional group face-to-face peer response (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) and the online group electronic peer response (*M*=14.66, *SD*=4.29) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. Results also revealed statistically significant difference between the traditional group (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) and the combination group; both modes online and face-to-face peer response (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00.

Third Independent Variable: Treatment condition online group (electronic peer response)

The results of the post hoc comparison Tukey test (refer to table 6) revealed a statistically significant difference between the online group (*M*=14.66, *SD*=4.29) and the control group (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. Moreover, the results revealed statistically significant difference between the online group (*M*=14.66, *SD*=4.29) and the traditional group face-to-face peer response (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. However, results revealed no statistically significant difference between the online group (*M*=14.66,

SD=4.29) and the combination group; both modes online and face-to-face peer response (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.99.

Fourth Independent Variable: Treatment condition combination group (both modes electronic and face-to-face peer response)

The results of the post hoc comparison Tukey test (refer to table 6) revealed statistically significant difference between the combination group (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) and the control group (*M*=5.50, *SD*=1.58) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. Moreover, the results revealed statistically significant difference between the combination group (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) and the traditional group face-to-face peer response (*M*=5.00, *SD*=2.69) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.00. However, results revealed no statistically significant difference between the combination l group (*M*=15.00, *SD*=6.46) and the online group (*M*=14.66, *SD*=4.29) in students' writing performance, *F* (3, 43) =19.84, *p*=0.99. Interestingly enough, the mean scores of the experimental group students who used a combination of both modes (online and face-to-face peer response) were the highest of all.

To answer the second research question about the effect of peer response modes and students' revision types, hypothesis H2 was formulated:

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis2. There will be no statistically significant differences in students' revision types across peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

The calculation of frequencies of distributions for revision types done by students was needed to address the null hypothesis. Specifically, the number and types of changes made by every student in every group, whether control or experimental groups were counted and frequencies of distributions for each type of revision change for the surface level changes (both formal changes and meaning preserving changes) were determined.

Surface level changes (Formal changes):

A total of 5 students in the control group made additions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 9 additions in the control group. Moreover, a total number of 8 students in the traditional group made additions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 26 additions. As for the online group, a total of 8 students made additions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 23 additions. However, a total of 4 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made additions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 7 additions. So, traditional group made the most additions at the formal level changes. (See table 7 below)

Table 7.

Frequencies of distributions for additions at the level of formal surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SFadditions Crosstabulation*

Count

		SFadditions						
		1	2	3	7	8	9	Total
Control, Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	3	0	2	0	0	0	5
	Traditional	4	0	2	1	0	1	8
	Online	2	2	3	0	1	0	8
	Combination	2	1	1	0	0	0	4
Total		11	3	8	1	1	1	25

A total of 6 students in the control group made deletions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 10 deletions in the control group. Moreover, a total number of 4 students in the traditional group made deletions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 9 deletions. As for the online group, a total of 3 students made deletions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 10 deletions. However, one student in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made one deletion at the level of formal surface level changes. So, control group and online group made the same number of deletions at the formal surface level changes. (See table 8 below)

Table 8.

Frequencies of distributions for deletions at the level of formal surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SFdeletions Crosstabulation*

Count

		SFdeletions				
		1	2	3	7	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	3	2	1	0	6
	Traditional	1	1	2	0	4
	Online	1	1	0	1	3
	Combination	1	0	0	0	1
Total		6	4	3	1	14

One student in the control group made a substitution at the level of formal surface level changes. Moreover, a total number of 2 students in the traditional group made substitutions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 5 substitutions. As for the online group, a total of 3 students made substitutions at the level of formal surface level changes and these students made a total of 3 substitutions. However, one student in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made a substitution at the level of formal surface level changes. So, traditional group made the most substitutions at the formal level changes. (See table 9 below)

Table 9.

Frequencies of distributions for substitutions at the level of surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SFsubstitutions Crosstabulation*

Count

		SFsubstitutions		
		1	4	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	1	0	1
	Traditional	1	1	2
	Online	3	0	3
	Combination	1	0	1
Total		6	1	7

None of the students made any permutations at the level of formal surface level changes. Moreover, none of the students made any distributions at the level of formal surface level changes.

Table 10 below shows that a total of one student in the control group made one consolidation at the level of formal surface level changes and one student in the online group made one consolidation at the level of formal surface level changes.

Table 10.

Frequencies of distributions for consolidations at the level of formal surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SFconsolidations Crosstabulation*

Count

		SFconsolidations	
		1	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	1	1
	Online	1	1
Total		2	2

Concerning reordering, only one student in the online group made one reordering at the level of formal surface level changes (table 11).

Table 11.

Frequencies of distributions for reordering at the level of formal surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SFreordering Crosstabulation*

Count

		SFreordering	
		1	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Online	1	1
Total		1	1

Therefore, traditional group face-to-face peer response students made the most number of formal surface-level revision changes of revision types.

Surface level changes (Meaning-Preserving changes):

Frequencies of distributions for the types of revision changes on the surface level changes, specifically meaning-preserving changes, revealed that there was a significant difference between the four groups / treatment condition when it came to additions. More specifically, notice in table 12 below that the traditional group (face-to-face peer response) made the most number of additions at the surface level / meaning-preserving changes of revision types.

Table 12.

Frequencies of distributions for surface level (meaning-preserving changes) of revision types / additions.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SMadditions Crosstabulation*

Count

		SMadditions							Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	8	
Control, Traditional, Online, Combination	Control	0	2	6	0	0	0	0	8
	Traditional	0	3	1	1	2	2	0	9
	Online	4	0	2	1	2	0	0	9
	Combination	1	3	1	1	0	0	1	7
Total		5	8	10	3	4	2	1	33

More specifically, if we look closely at table 12, we notice that a total of 8 students in the control group made additions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 22 additions in the control group. Moreover, a total number of 9 students in the traditional group made additions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 35 additions. As for the online group, a total of 9 students made additions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 24 additions. However, a total of 7 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made a total of 22 additions. So, traditional group made the most additions at the meaning-preserving surface level changes.

As for deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes, table 13 reveals that a total of 6 students in the control group made deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 6 deletions in the control group. Moreover, a total number of 6 students in the traditional group made deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 17

deletions. As for the online group, a total of 3 students made deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 7 deletions. However, two students in the combination of both modes made one deletion each at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes so these students made a total of 2 deletions. So, the traditional face-to-face group made the most deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

Table 13.

Frequencies of distributions for deletions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SMdeletions Crosstabulation*
Count

		SMdeletions				
		1	3	4	7	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	6	0	0	0	6
	Traditional	3	1	1	1	6
	Online	1	2	0	0	3
	Combination	2	0	0	0	2
Total		12	3	1	1	17

Six students in the control group made substitutions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 8 substitutions. Moreover, a total number of 4 students in the traditional group made substitutions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 12 substitutions. As for the online group, a total of 5 students made substitutions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 13 substitutions. However, 4 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional

made substitutions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes made 12 substitutions. So, online group made the most substitutions at the meaning-preserving level changes. (See table 14 below)

Table 14.

Frequencies of distributions for substitutions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SMsubstitutions Crosstabulation*

Count

		SMsubstitutions				
		1	2	3	5	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	4	2	0	0	6
	Traditional	1	0	2	1	4
	Online	1	2	1	1	5
	Combination	2	0	0	2	4
Total		8	4	3	4	19

A total of 5 students in the control group made permutations at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 10 permutations in the control group. Moreover, one student in the traditional group made one permutation at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes. As for the online group, a total of 4 students made permutations at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 8 permutations. However, 3 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made permutations at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes and these students made a total of 4 permutations. So, as table 15 reveals, the control group made the most number of permutations at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

Table 15.

Frequencies of distributions for permutations at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SMpermutations Crosstabulation*
Count

		SMpermutations				
		1	2	3	4	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	2	1	2	0	5
	Traditional	1	0	0	0	1
	Online	2	1	0	1	4
	Combination	2	1	0	0	3
Total		7	3	2	1	13

Only one student in the control group made one distribution at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes. However, two students from the online group made a total of 8 distributions at the level of meaning-preserving surface-level changes. The combination group made a total of 3. Therefore, the online group made the most number of distributions at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes. (See table 16 below).

Table 16.

Frequencies of distributions for surface level (meaning-preserving changes) of revision types / distributions.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * SMdistributions Crosstabulation*
Count

		SMdistributions				
		1	2	3	6	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	1	0	0	0	1
	Online	0	1	0	1	2
	Combination	0	0	1	0	1
Total		1	1	1	1	4

Moreover, only one student from the online group made one consolidation at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes as well as one student from the same group made one reordering at the level of meaning-preserving surface level changes.

Consequently, the traditional group made the most number of changes when it came to meaning-preserving changes at the surface level of revision types.

Text-Based / Meaning Changes Revision Types: (Microstructure and Macrostructure)

Concerning revision types at the text-based / meaning changes level, distribution of frequencies revealed that there was a difference among treatment conditions groups.

Hence, a tally of revision types revealed that students who had received peer response training were more likely to use text-based (meaning) revision changes. (See table 17 below). To elaborate, writers who were subjected to peer response training made more text-based / meaning changes in their drafts in response to peer feedback in revision than those who did not receive any training. Moreover, table 17 demonstrates the frequencies of distribution of text-based meaning revision changes by treatment (control, traditional, online, and combination).

Table 17.

Frequencies of distributions of Text based / meaning revision changes by treatment

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * Types of Revision Crosstabulation*

Count

		Types of Revision			
		Microstructure Changes	Macrostructure Changes	Micro and Macro	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	9	0	1	10
	Traditional	3	0	9	12
	Online	3	1	8	12
	Combination	1	1	8	10
Total		16	2	26	44

Interestingly, the least number of students (only one student) from the control group actually used both kinds of text-based higher order changes (microstructure and macrostructure) changes, whereas the most number of students (nine students) from the traditional group used both kinds of text-based higher order changes.

Text-Based / Meaning Changes Revision Types Microstructure Level:

Concerning the types of revisions at the text-based Microstructure level, a total of 5 students in the control group made additions at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 8 additions in the control group. Moreover, a total number of 9 students in the traditional group made additions at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 45 additions. As for the online group, a total of 10 students made additions at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 20 additions. However, a total of 8 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made additions at the

micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 21 additions. So, as table 18 reveals, the traditional group made the most additions at the micro-text-based level.

Table 18.

Frequencies of distributions for additions at the micro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICadditions Crosstabulation*

Count

		TxtMICadditions							
		1	2	3	4	5	7	8	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	5
	Traditional	0	1	2	1	2	1	2	9
	Online	5	3	0	1	1	0	0	10
	Combination	2	2	2	1	1	0	0	8
Total		9	9	4	3	4	1	2	32

Table 19 below shows that only one student in the control group made one deletion at the micro-text-based level. Moreover, a total number of 7 students in the traditional group made deletions at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 17 deletions. As for the online group, a total of 4 students made deletions at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 6 deletions. However, 3 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made 4 deletions at the level of micro-text-based level. So, the traditional face-to-face group made the most deletions at the level of micro-text-based level.

Table 19.

Frequencies of distributions for deletions at the micro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICdeletions Crosstabulation*

Count

		TxtMICdeletions				
		1	2	3	4	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	1	0	0	0	1
	Traditional	0	5	1	1	7
	Online	2	2	0	0	4
	Combination	2	1	0	0	3
Total		5	8	1	1	15

Notice in table 20 below that the traditional group (face-to-face peer response) made the most number of substitutions at the micro-text-based level (six students made a total of 13 substitutions at micro-text-based level which is the most number amongst all groups.)

Table 20.

Frequencies of distributions for substitution at the micro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICsubstitutions Crosstabulation*

Count

		TxtMICsubstitutions				
		1	2	3	4	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	7	0	0	0	7
	Traditional	1	3	2	0	6
	Online	3	1	0	0	4
	Combination	0	1	1	1	3
Total		11	5	3	1	20

As for permutations at the micro-text-based level, table 21 reveals that a total of 6 students in the control group made permutations at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 12 permutations in the control group. Moreover, a total number of

11 students in the traditional group made permutations at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 48 permutations. As for the online group, a total of 6 students made permutations at the micro-text-based level and these students made a total of 12 permutations. However, a total of 4 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made a total of 5 permutations. So, traditional group made the most permutations at the micro-text-based level.

Table 21.

Frequencies of distributions for permutations at the micro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICpermutations Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMICpermutations						Total
		1	2	3	4	9	16	
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	3	1	1	1	0	0	6
	Traditional	1	3	4	1	1	1	11
	Online	2	2	2	0	0	0	6
	Combination	3	1	0	0	0	0	4
Total		9	7	7	2	1	1	27

Table 22 shows that only one student in the traditional group made one distribution at the micro-text-based level whereas 3 students from the online group made a total of 3 distributions at the micro-text-based level.

Table 22.

Frequencies of distributions for micro-text-based level changes of revision types / distributions.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICdistributions Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMICdistributions	
		1	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Traditional	1	1
	Online	3	3
Total		4	4

As for micro-text-based level consolidations, table 23 reveals that only one student in the traditional group made 4 consolidations whereas a total of 4 students from the online group made a total of 7 consolidations at the level of micro-text-based level.

Table 23.

Frequencies of distributions for consolidations at the level of micro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMICconsolidations Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMICconsolidations		
		1	4	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Traditional	0	1	1
	Online	3	1	4
Total		3	2	5

However, forthcoming table 24 below reveals that the online group made the most number of reordering at the micro-text-based level.

Table 24.

Frequencies of distributions of reordering at the micro-text-based level.

*Control, Traditional, Online, Combination * TxtMICreordering Crosstabulation*

Count

		TxtMICreordering			
		1	2	3	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	0	1	0	1
	Traditional	0	0	1	1
	Online	4	0	0	4
	Combination	2	0	0	2
Total		6	1	1	8

In the table 24 above, one student in the control group made 2 reorderings at the micro-text-based level, whereas one student in the traditional group made a total of 3 reorderings at the micro-text-based level. Interestingly, 4 students in the online group made a total of 4 reorderings, while 2 students from the combination group made 2 reorderings at the micro-text-based level.

Consequently, the traditional group made the most number of changes when it came to micro-text-based level changes at the text-based / meaning level of revision types.

Text-Based / Meaning Changes Revision Types Macrostructure Level:

Concerning revision changes at the macro-text-based level, table 25 shows that none of the students in the control group made additions at the macro-text-based level.

Moreover, a total number of 2 students in the traditional group made 5 additions at the macro-text-based level. As for the online group, a total of 6 students made 18 additions at the level of macro-text-based level. However, a total of 8 students in the combination of both modes, online and traditional made 16 additions at the level of macro-text-based level. So, the online group made the most additions at the macro-text-based level.

Table 25.

Frequencies of distributions for additions at the macro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMACadditions Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMACadditions					
		1	2	3	4	7	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Traditional	1	0	0	1	0	2
	Online	1	2	2	0	1	6
	Combination	3	2	3	0	0	8
Total		5	4	5	1	1	16

A total of 2 students in the online group made 6 deletions at the macro-text-based level, whereas 2 students in the combination group made 2 deletions at the macro-text-based level. (See table 26 below)

Table 26.

Frequencies of distributions for deletions at the macro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMACdeletions Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMACdeletions		
		1	5	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Online	1	1	2
	Combination	2	0	2
Total		3	1	4

Table 27 reveals that two students in the traditional group made 2 substitutions at the macro-text-based level, while one student in the online group made one substitution and one student in the combination group also made one substitution.

Table 27.

Frequencies of substitutions for deletions at the macro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMACsubstitutions Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMACsubstitutions		
		1	2	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Traditional	2	0	2
	Online	1	0	1
	Combination	0	1	1
Total		3	1	4

Only one student in the control group made one permutation at the macro-text-based level. However, 10 students in the traditional group made a total of 22 permutations at the macro-text-based level. Furthermore, a total of 5 students in the online group made 6 permutations at the macro-text-based level, whereas five students in the combination group made a total number of 12 permutations at the macro-text-based level changes (Table 28).

Table 28.

Frequencies of substitutions for permutations at the macro-text-based level.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMACpermutations Crosstabulation*
Count

		TxtMACpermutations					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Traditional	4	3	1	1	1	10
	Online	4	1	0	0	0	5
	Combination	1	3	0	0	1	5
Total		10	7	1	1	2	21

Only one student from the traditional group as well as one student from the online group made one distribution each at the macro-text-based level. However, 2 students in the combination group made a total of 4 distributions at the macro-text-based level (Table 29).

Table 29.

Frequencies of distributions for macro-text-based level changes / distributions.

*Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination * TxtMACdistributions Crosstabulation*

Count

		TxtMACdistributions		
		1	3	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Traditional	1	0	1
	Online	1	0	1
	Combination	1	1	2
Total		3	1	4

Moreover, only two students from the online group made a total of 4 consolidations at the level of macro-text-based level.

Concerning reordering, only one student in the traditional group as well as the online group made one reordering each at the macro-text-based level. However, 4 students in the combination group made 4 reorderings at the macro-text-based level.

Consequently, the combination of both modes (face-to-face and online) group made the most number of changes when it came to macro-text-based level changes at the text-based / meaning level of revision types.

Additionally, a count was made of the number of positive compliments provided by each group in order to check for the differences across treatment conditions (Table 30 below).

Table 30.

Frequencies of distributions of positive comments used by participants across groups

*Control, Traditional, Online, Combination * positive comments Crosstabulation*

Count

		positive comments						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	6	0	0	0	0	0	6
	Traditional	2	2	1	0	0	1	6
	Online	2	2	2	3	1	1	11
	Combination	0	0	0	3	2	4	9
Total		10	4	3	6	3	6	32

Table 30 reveals that among those who participated in peer response training, traditional (face-to-face) group made 15 positive compliments, online group made 35 positive compliments, and combination of face-to-face and online group made up to 46 positive compliments which is the most number of positive compliments. However, participants in the control group who had not been subjected to peer response training made a total of 6 positive compliments which is the least number of positive compliment provided among the other groups.

To answer the research question about the effects of different peer response modes on students' attitude towards writing, hypothesis H3 was formulated:

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3. There will be no statistically significant differences in students' attitudes towards writing across peer response treatment conditions (traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

One-way analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was used to compare mean WAS (Writing Attitude Scale) scores of the treatment condition groups. To elaborate, in order to determine if differences existed among peer response treatment conditions (untrained, traditional, online, and combination of both traditional and online) on students' attitudes towards writing, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The treatment condition of peer response served as the independent variable, and attitude towards writing served as the dependent variable. Results from the one-way ANOVA F (3, 43) =6.51, p=.00.

Table 31.

ANOVA summary table for attitudes towards writing across treatment groups

ATTITUDES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1660.294	3	553.431	6.512	.001
Within Groups	3399.433	40	84.986		
Total	5059.727	43			

Table 32 below indicates that there was a significant overall difference between peer response groups in their attitudes towards writing F (3, 43) =6.51, p=.00. Specifically, the overall significant difference is in favor of the traditional peer response group (face-to-face).

Table 32.

Mean scores of students' attitudes towards writing by treatment conditions

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Control	10	-4.8000	10.54935	3.33600
Traditional	12	10.5833	12.28050	3.54507
Online	12	-2.9167	5.58339	1.61179
Combination	10	-1.0000	6.63325	2.09762
Total	44	.7727	10.84749	1.63532

Because the *F* value was significant *F* (3, 43) =6.51, *p*=.00, it was followed by a Post Hoc Tukey Test to determine on which independent variable (control, traditional, online, combination) there was a difference (Table 33). Hence; Post Hoc was used to know which group was different at the significant level $p < .05$.

Table 33.

Post Hoc multiple comparisons among peer response groups were made following a significant one-way ANOVA

(I) Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	(J) Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Control	Traditional	-15.38333*	3.94724	.002
	Online	-1.88333	3.94724	.964
	Combination	-3.80000	4.12276	.793
Traditional	Control	15.38333*	3.94724	.002
	Online	13.50000*	3.76355	.005
	Combination	11.58333*	3.94724	.027
Online	Control	1.88333	3.94724	.964
	Traditional	-13.50000*	3.76355	.005
	Combination	-1.91667	3.94724	.962
Combination	Control	3.80000	4.12276	.793
	Traditional	-11.58333*	3.94724	.027
	Online	1.91667	3.94724	.962

Specifically, results of Tukey post hoc tests ($p < 0.05$) for comparisons between peer response groups (means provided in parentheses) indicated that face-to-face peer response traditional group (M= 10.58) demonstrated most positive attitudes towards writing than those from all other peer response groups. To elaborate, tables 32 and 33 reveal a statistically significant difference between the traditional face-to-face peer response group (M=10.58, SD=12.28) and the control group (M= -4.80, SD=10.54) in students' attitudes towards writing, F (3, 43) =6.51, p=0.00. Moreover, the results also revealed statistically significant difference between the traditional group (M=10.58, SD=12.28) and the online group peer response (M= -2.91, SD=5.58) in students' attitude towards writing, F (3, 43) =6.51, p=0.00.

In addition, results also revealed statistically significant difference between the traditional group (M=10.58, SD=12.28) and the combination group; both modes online and face-to-face peer response (M= -1.00, SD=6.63) in students' attitudes towards writing, F (3, 43) =6.51, p=0.02.

To answer the fourth research question about the effects of different peer response modes on students' perceptions towards peer response, hypothesis H4 was formulated:

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis4. There will be no significant differences in students' perceptions towards peer response across peer response treatment conditions (traditional, online, combination of traditional and online).

Frequencies of distributions were calculated to address the null hypothesis and bar charts were used to compare students' perceptions towards peer response.

Between-group differences in students' perceptions towards peer response revealed that there was a significant difference between the treatment groups in questions 3 and 6 specifically.

More specifically, Table 34 below reveals that among those who participated in peer response training, traditional (face-to-face) group's responses were mostly positive when it came to agreeing that peer response was beneficial to them, in fact 11 out of 12 students in traditional group declared that peer response was beneficial. However, only two students out of 10 in the control group responded that peer response was beneficial to them.

Table 34.

Frequencies of distribution of students' responses to question 3 whether response peer was beneficial to them.

Crosstab

Count

		Was peerresponse training beneficial to you?			
		Yes	Somehow	No	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	2	5	3	10
	Traditional	11	1	0	12
	Online	6	5	1	12
	Combination	4	5	1	10
Total		23	16	5	44

The bar chart below further illustrates students' responses to question 3, whether peer response was beneficial to them or not (figure 16).

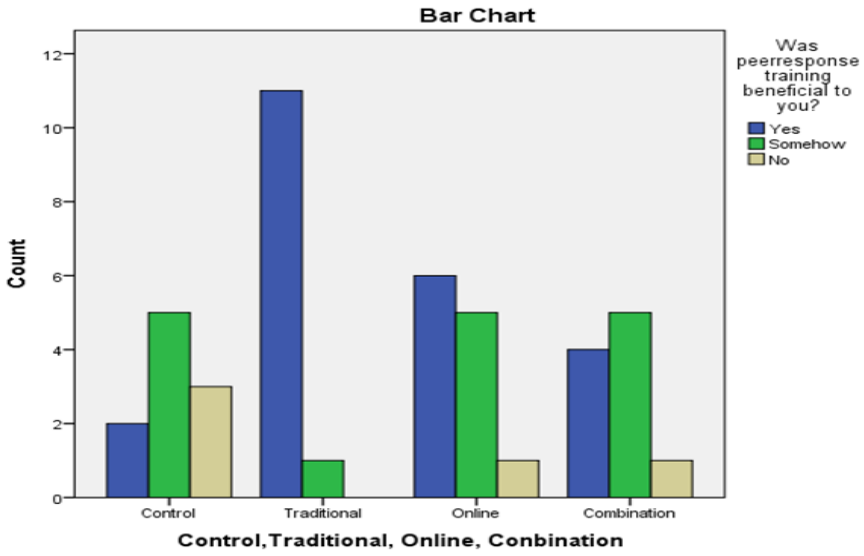

Figure 16. *Bar chart for students' responses to question 3.*

As for question 6, "Would you like your teacher to use peer response in all your writings?" there was an overall significant difference between the four groups. Specifically, students placed in the traditional group and who performed face-to face peer response were mostly positive in their responses (10 students out of 12) and agreed that their teacher should use peer response in all their writings. (See table 35)

Table 35.

Frequencies of distributions of students' responses to question 6 across treatment conditions

Crosstab

Count

		Would you like your teacher to use peer response in all your writings?		
		Yes	No	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	4	6	10
	Traditional	10	2	12
	Online	4	8	12
	Combination	3	7	10
Total		21	23	44

The bar chart below further illustrates students' responses to question 6, whether students would want their teachers to use peer response in all their writings (figure 17).

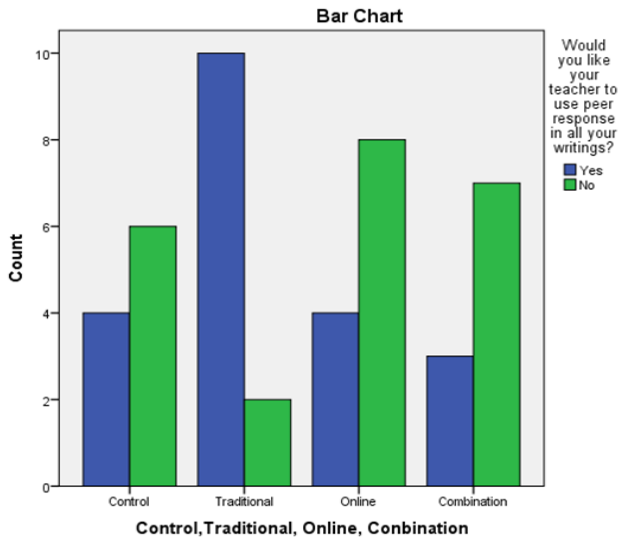

Figure 17. *Bar Chart for students' responses on question 6, whether they want their teacher to use peer response in all their writings.*

Concerning question 1, whether students across peer response groups found peer response to be useful, 11 students in peer response online group totally agreed that peer response was a useful activity while 9 students from the traditional group totally agreed that peer response was useful. However, only 7 students from the combination face-to-face and online peer response totally agreed that peer response was a useful activity. None of the students in the three aforementioned groups (traditional, online, and combination) answered negatively or responded that peer response was not a useful activity. Nonetheless, 2 students in the control group gave negative answers declaring that they did not find peer response to be a useful activity. (See table 36 below)

Table 36.

Frequency distributions of students' answers to question one whether they found peer response to be useful

Crosstab

Count

		Did you find your peer's response useful?			
		Yes	Somehow	No	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	6	2	2	10
	Traditional	9	3	0	12
	Online	11	1	0	12
	Combination	7	3	0	10
Total		33	9	2	44

The bar chart below further illustrates students' responses to question 1, whether they found peer response to be useful. (Figure 18)

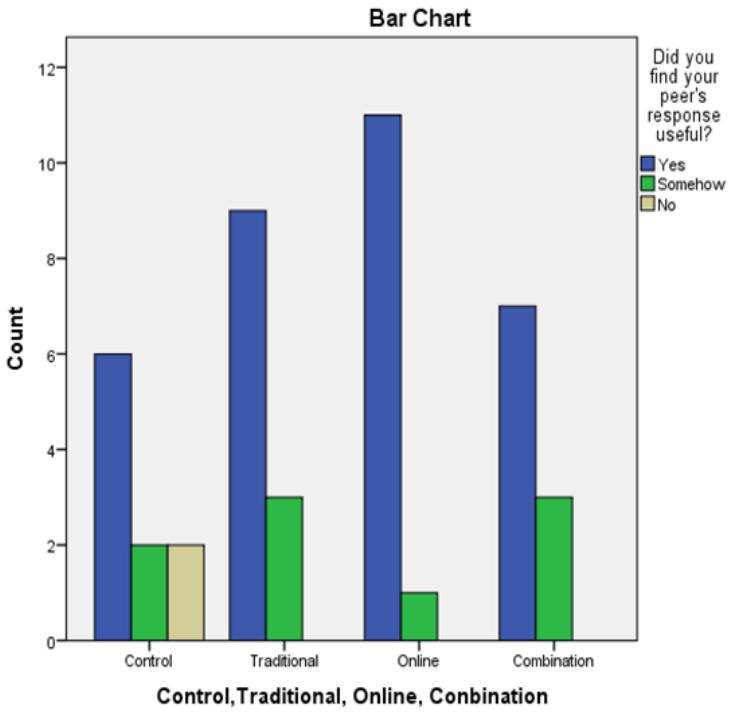

Figure 18. *Bar chart for students' Reponses to question 1 of their perception towards peer response.*

Concerning question 2, whether students used the comments made by their peers in revising their first drafts, no student actually answered negatively or denied using their peers' comments in revising their first drafts (see table 37 below).

Table 37.

Students' Reponses to question 2 of their perceptions towards peer response

Crosstab

Count

		Did you use the comments made by your peer in revising your first draft?		
		Yes	Somehow	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	5	5	10
	Traditional	10	2	12
	Online	9	3	12
	Combination	9	1	10
Total		33	11	44

The bar Chart below further illustrates students' responses to whether they used the comments made by their peers in revising their first drafts (See Figure 19).

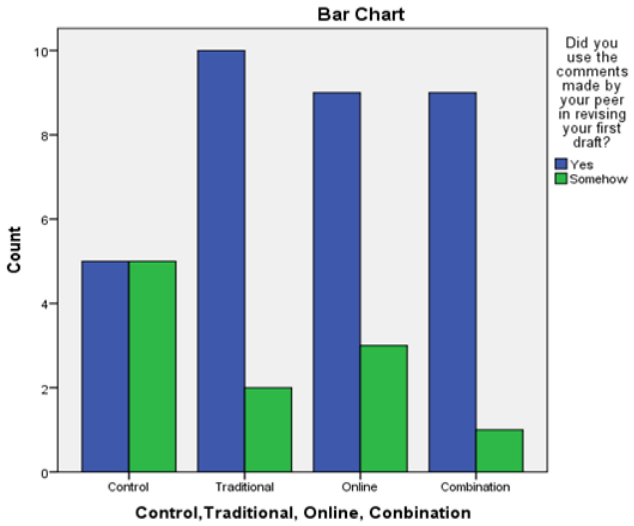

Figure 19. *Bar chart for students' Reponses to question 2 of their perception towards peer response.*

Interestingly enough, in question 4, "Do you think peer response is a positive or a negative activity, 12 out of 12 students in the traditional group totally agreed that peer response is a positive activity as well as 12 out of 12 students in online group totally agreed that peer response is a positive activity. Moreover, 10 out of 10 students in the traditional group totally agreed that peer response is a positive activity. However, unlike the other groups, not all students in the control group agreed that peer response is a positive activity (See table 38 below).

Table 38.

Frequency distribution of students' responses to whether they perceive peer response as a positive or negative activity.

Crosstab

Count

		Do you think peer response is a positive or a negative activity?		
		Positive	Negative	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	9	1	10
	Traditional	12	0	12
	Online	12	0	12
	Combination	10	0	10
Total		43	1	44

The bar chart below illustrated how students' responded to whether they think that peer response is a positive or negative activity (figure 20).

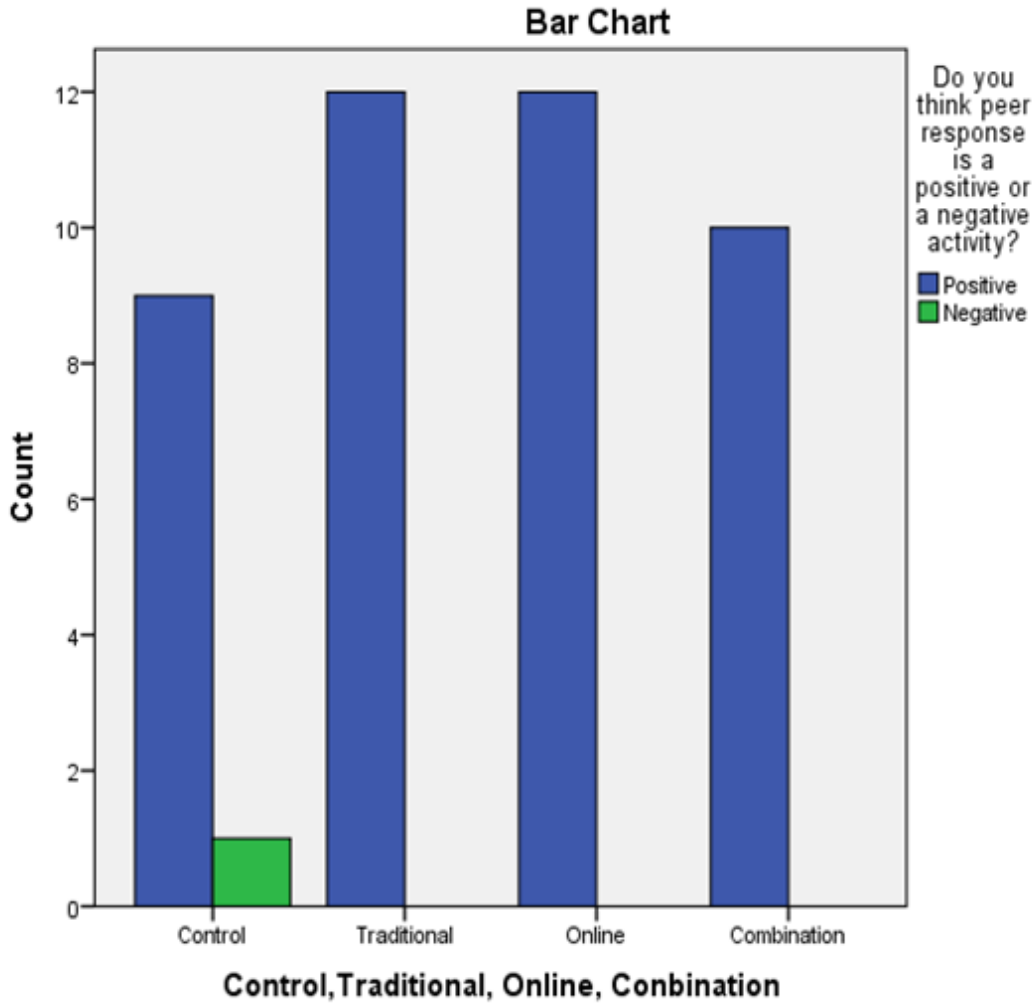

Figure 20. *Responses to whether peer response is a positive or negative activity.*

More interestingly, question 5, "Do you think that responding to your peer's essay helps you as a writer?" demonstrated the same responses given from both groups (traditional and online groups) where all the students in both groups totally agreed that responding to their peers' essays does help them as writers. More specifically 12 out of 12 students in the online group answered yes and 10 out of 10 students in the combination of both group agreed. However, only one student in the combination group and two students in the control group answered negatively to this question (See table 39 below).

Table 39.

Frequency distribution of students' responses to whether peer response helps them as writers.

Crosstab

Count

		Do you think that responding to your peer's essay helps you a writer?		
		Yes	No	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	8	2	10
	Traditional	12	0	12
	Online	12	0	12
	Combination	9	1	10
Total		41	3	44

The bar chart below (figure 21) further illustrates students' responses to question 5, "Do you think that responding to your peer's essay helps you as a writer?"

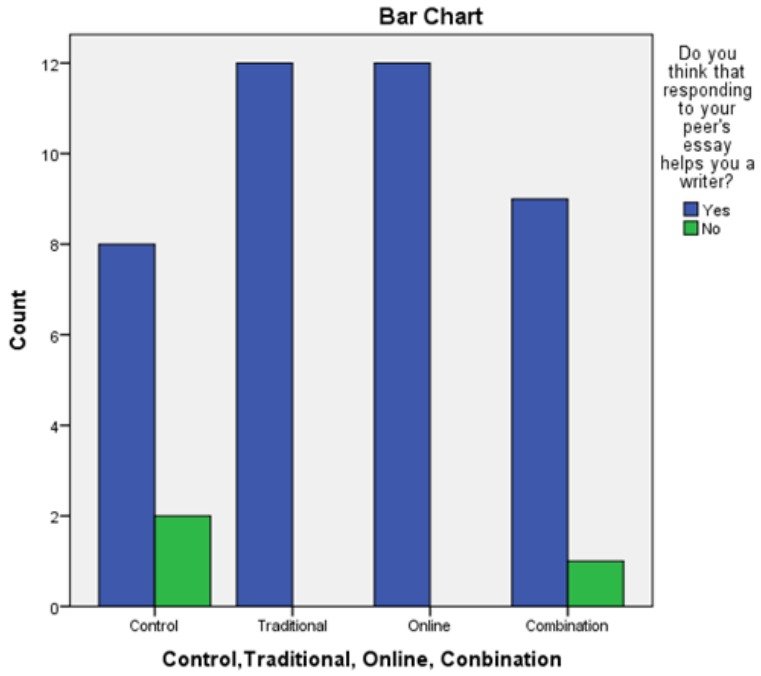

Figure 21. *Students' responses to question 5.*

As for the last question, question 7, “Do you feel that you need more practice to do peer response again?” students in the control group were torn; hence, (5 out of 10 answered that they wanted more training in peer response whereas 5 out of 10 answered that they did not need any more training in peer response).

The majority of traditional group students indicated that they were interested in more training in peer response (8 out of 12 said they wanted more peer response training); however, that was not the case with online group and combination group. Hence, the majority of online group students (8 out of 12) and the majority of traditional group students (8 out of 10) answered that they did not need more training in peer response (See table 40 below).

Table 40.

Frequencies for students' responses to question 7 according to treatment conditions.

Crosstab

Count

		Do you feel that you need more practice to do peer response again?		
		Yes	No	Total
Control,Traditional, Online, Conbination	Control	5	5	10
	Traditional	8	4	12
	Online	4	8	12
	Combination	2	8	10
Total		19	25	44

The bar chart below further illustrated students' responses on the last question (see figure 22).

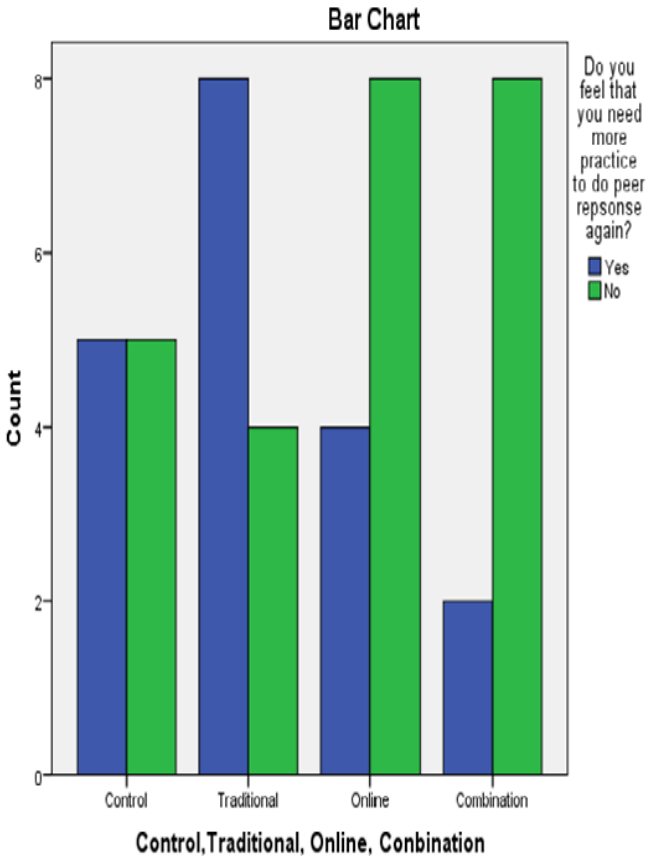

Figure 22. *Students' responses to whether they needed more training in peer response.*

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Interpretation of Results / Discussion

The present study aimed at examining the relative effects of trained peer response on college EFL learners' writing performance, revision types, perceptions towards peer response, and attitudes towards writing by comparing the three peer responses treatments (traditional face-to-face, online, and a combination of both modes) with a control group of writers who received no training in peer response at all.

Research question 1 asked whether training EFL writers in peer response in a process-approach to writing classroom was effective. It was expected that there would be no significant effect of trained peer reviews on EFL writers. However, the results of the data analysis did not support this expectation. In light of the analysis of the peer feedback, unlike students who were placed in the control group, students who were trained in peer response (traditional-face-to-face, online and a combination of both online and face-to-face) gave more considerable feedback (formal surface-level changes, meaning-preserving surface level changes, micro-text based changes, and macro-text based meaning changes) in their written essays than those who did not receive any training. To elaborate, traditional group students who were trained in peer response actually made the most number of revision changes at the formal surface level, meaning-preserving surface level, and micro-text-based level of revision types. However, students assigned to the combination of both modes (face-

to-face and online) made the most number of changes when it came to macro-text-based level of revision types and these macro-level text-based revisions caused major improvements in the quality of combination of both group's texts causing its students to attain the highest writing score amongst all groups (M=15.00, SD=6.46) . This finding actually supports the consensus that was reached among researchers like (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001) who advised that computer-mediated communication should be blended and integrated with traditional, face-to-face interaction during peer response process to reach ultimate benefits of peer response.

Besides, the combination of both group which attained the highest mean scores in writing and the most number of macro-text-based level revision changes was actually trained in peer response, so similar results were found by Stanely (1992), Berg (1999), Paulus (1999), Schultz (2000), Liu and Sadler (2003); Tuzi (2004); Min (2006), Fitze (2006); Ho and Savignon,2007; Liou and Peng (2009); Ting and Qian (2010); and Aydin and Yildiz (2014) whose findings experimentally proved that students' writing performance and quality of revisions improved due to training them in peer response.

The current study did not reveal statistically significant difference between the control group and the traditional group in students' writing scores. This finding is explained best by Faigley and Witte (1981) who stated that surface-level changes usually affect the structure of the written discourse such as sentences, paragraphs, or the whole written text but do not modify the overall summary of the text, whereas macro-text based changes do alter the overall summary of the text, changing the meaning of the presented ideas. So, results which showed no statistically significant difference between traditional and control

group writing scores were due to the fact that traditional group students made the most number of revisions on surface level and micro-text based levels which tackled the structures of the texts and therefore did not change the meaning of presented ideas as macro-text based level revisions done by combination of both group which in turn changed the meaning of the presented ideas and improved their written texts. So, although traditional group students gave the most number of revision changes, however, they focused on surface level and micro-text based level changes which did not improve the overall quality of writing as macro-text based level revisions did for combination of both group (as well as online group. Therefore, macro-text based revisions did cause major improvements in the quality of combination of both group's texts (39 macro-text-based revisions) who made the most number of macro-text based level as well as the online group's quality of writing (37 macro-text based changes) and these kinds of revisions improved the sufficiency, relevance and organization of information of students' written texts..

However, it is plain to see from the results that trained peer response experimental groups did actually give more considerable overall responses in their final drafts than those who did not receive any training (control group).

Interestingly, traditional face-to-face group (M=10.58, SD=12.28) demonstrated more positive attitudes towards writing due to peer response training than the control group (M= -4.80, SD=10.54) who never received training in peer response. As for students' perceptions towards peer response, all experimental groups who were trained in peer response showed 100% agreement rate that peer response is a positive activity. However, there was a mention from the untrained peer response control group of peer response as a negative activity.

Therefore and most critically, the overall gains made by the experimental groups (traditional, online, and combination of online and traditional) in the current study were significantly higher than those made by the control group whether in writing quality, revision types, attitudes towards writing and students' perceptions towards writing , and this could be attributed to the fact that trained peer response has cognitive, social, affective, and linguistic benefits in EFL writing classes (Mendonça and Johnson, 1994; Villamil and De Guerrero, 1998; Liu and Sadler 2003; Hansen and Liu, 2005; Hu, 2005; Storch, 2002, 2007; MacArthur, 2007; Ting and Qian, 2010;Aydin & Yildiz, 2014).

Research question 2 asked about the relative effect of trained peer response on students' writing performance and revision types. It was expected that there would be no significant differences in the writing quality and revising abilities of students treated with trained peer response in all its modes (traditional face-to-face, online, and a combination of both online and traditional) and students treated with no training in peer response at all (control group). The results of the data analysis to this study did not support this expectation. Hence, there were significant differences in students' writing performance and revising outcomes between the trained peer response groups and control group. Although the mean scores of the students in the traditional group (M=5.00, SD=2.69) were not higher than the scores of the students in the control group (M=5.50, SD=1.58), traditional group students demonstrated significant difference in their ability to revise and provide surface-level and micro text-based level revision types as we have demonstrated earlier in the results section. Besides, the mean scores of the online group (M=14.66, SD=4.29) and the combination group (M=15.00, SD=6.46) who were both trained in peer

response were significantly higher than the scores of the students who did not receive training in peer response i.e. control group (M=5.50, SD=1.58).

The results of this study concerning writing scores / performance are consistent with Sullivan and Pratt's (1996) study who reported that results of pretest-posttest writing scores reflected a significant increase in scores on behalf of the computer-assisted class. The aforementioned researchers documented the superior effects of computer-mediated peer response instruction in comparison with regular traditional teaching. The results of the current study also corroborate with Braine's (1997) findings who reported that the holistic scores for the first drafts and the final drafts indicated that the writing quality in networked classes was better than in the traditional face-to-face classes. Moreover, the results of this study seem to be in harmony with DiGiovanni and Nagaswami's (2001) findings where the researchers reported that the number of peer interactions were higher in face-to-face mode than in online mode which is the case in this study.

However, the findings of this study seem to contradict Liu and Sadler's (2003) experiment where technology-enhanced peer response made a greater number of comments suggested by peers. Hence, in this study, face-to-face, traditional peer response group made a greater number of comments. Still, this study seems to be consistent with Liu and Sadler's (2003) findings when it came to positive comments provided by students. The aforementioned researchers indicated that face-to-face interaction peer response did result in more positive comments and positive responses amongst members of the group and this is the case in this study where the combination group which performed peer response as a face-to-face activity in addition to online actually provided the most number of positive comments. These findings concur with Sengupta (2001) who analyzed the archives of

discussion both web-based and face-to-face interactions and reported that agreement and praise were used regularly throughout students' interactions since they used language in order to build a classroom community where peer socialized harmoniously.

A worthy of note is that the researcher detected a couple of negative comments provided by some of the control group students such as "this does not sound right, Nadine…., excessive wording….. stop repeating yourself….". Hence the control group students actually interacted defensively and were less willing to use their peers' suggested comments as they revealed in the questionnaire (adapted from Hu, 2005) when half of the control group students answered that they somehow used their peer comments in their writing compared to trained groups who provided more positive comments to their peers and mostly answered positively that they did use their peer comments in their writing. The before mentioned findings corroborate with Nelson and Murphy (1993), Mendonca and Johnson (1994), and Villamil and Guerrero's (1998) studies who reported that their student writers who interacted defensively with their peers were less likely to incorporate their peers' suggested comments into their revisions.

The results of the data analysis can also be related to research findings conducted by Min (2006) who revealed that substitutions (20%) and permutations (19%) at the micro-text-based level ranked the highest amongst her face-to-face trained peer response participants. This was the case in this study where the traditional group made the most number of changes when it came to micro-text-based level of revision types; particularly, a total of 13 substitutions at micro-text-based level which is the most number amongst all groups. Moreover, traditional group made the most permutations at the micro-text-based level; a total of 48 permutations at the micro-text-based level. However, these findings seem

to contradict Schultz's (2000) as well as Liu and Sadler's (2003) experiments where their participants in the online group made the most micro-level changes and the participants in their face-to-face group made more global macro-level changes. Thus, in this study, it was the combination of both modes group (online and face-to-face) who made the macro-level changes, whereas the face-to-face group made the most micro-level changes.

From a pedagogical perspective, the results of the data analysis can also be related to research findings conducted by (Schultz, 2000; Hu, 2005; Liu and Sadler, 2003; Tuzi, 2004; Sengupta, 2001; DiGiovanni and Nagaswami, 2001; Fitze, 2006; Ho and Savignon, 2007) who actually agreed that computer-mediated communication should be blended with face-to-face interaction when it came to applying the peer response process in EFL writing classroom. To elaborate, in this current study, it was the combination of both modes group (face-to-face and online) who made the most number of changes when it came to macro-text-based level changes at the text-based / meaning level of revision types, it was the combination of both modes group (face-to-face and online) who had the most number of positive peer response comments (46 positive comments), and above all, it was the combination of both peer response group who had the highest mean scores (M=15.00, SD=6.46) when it came to writing performance.

As for the third hypothesis, the results have shown that there was a significant difference across peer response groups when it came to students' attitudes towards writing in favor of the traditional (face-to-face) peer response group. These research findings are strikingly consistent with Katstra, Tollefson, and Gilbert (1987) whose results revealed an increased positive attitude towards writing on behalf of the experimental group which was trained in face-to-face peer response. However, the findings in the current study seem to

contradict Sullivan and Pratt's (1996) experiment where students in the computer assisted class significantly demonstrated more positive attitude than students assigned on the traditional class.

As noted earlier, the researcher has detected a paucity of research when it came to the effects of trained peer response on students' attitudes towards writing. Therefore, this study can be a great springboard for conducting research on training EFL students in peer response and examining its effect on their attitudes towards writing.

The last issue addressed in this study was students' perceptions towards peer response. Students' responses to the questionnaire revealed differences in perceptions towards peer response amongst treatment conditions (traditional, online, combination of traditional and online). In fact, students who were trained in peer response favored the usage of peer response in their L2 writing classes more than control group students who did not receive any peer response training. To elaborate, unlike control group students, students in groups who were trained in peer response demonstrated increased positive perceptions towards peer response and responded that peer response is as a positive, beneficial, and useful activity. Specifically, the traditional group demonstrated the most positive perceptions towards peer response as 11 out of 12 students in traditional group declared that peer response was beneficial, 10 students out of 12 agreed that their teacher should use peer response in all their writings, 9 students out of 12 students from the traditional group totally agreed that peer response was useful, 12 out of 12 students in the traditional group totally agree that peer response is a positive activity. In the last question, the majority of traditional group students responded that they were interested in more training in peer response (8 out of 12 said they wanted more peer response training) indicating that they needed more

practice in peer response in order to better implement it in their EFL writing classes and this actually was emphasized by many researchers including Stanely (1992), Berg (1999), Paulus (1999), Schultz (2000), Liu and Sadler (2003), Tuzi (2004), Min (2006), Fitze (2006), Ho and Savignon (2007), Liou and Peng (2009), Ting and Qian (2010), and Aydin and Yildiz (2014).

Trained traditional face-to-face peer response group's extremely positive perceptions towards peer response in the current study seem to contradict results reported by Nelson and Murphy (1993), Connor and Asenavage (1994), Zhang (1995), Nelson and Carson (1998), and Chong (2010) who did their research on face-to-face peer response groups. Hence, the aforementioned researchers reported that their participants had some reservations in applying peer response in their EFL writing classes and described peer response as a rather discouraging, negative experience. They even expressed their fear of being handled by their peers with sarcasm, and eventually announced that they favoured teacher feedback over peer feedback because they did not have the required skills that enabled them to provide appropriate, concrete, and useful feedback (Zhang, 1995; Nelson and Carson,1998; Hu,2005; Connor and Asenavage,1994; Mendonca and Johnson, 1994).

As for computer-mediated peer response groups, this current study revealed that the online group had more increased positive perceptions towards peer response than the combination of both group: 11 out of 12 students in the online group answered that they found peer response as useful, while 7 out of 10 from the combination of both group responded that it was a useful activity. Furthermore, 6 out of 12 students in online group found peer response beneficial compared to 4 out of 10 in the combination group who said

so. While all students in online group indicated that responding to their peers' essay helped them as writers, not all students in the combination group responded so (1 out of 10).

Either way, it is plain to see from the above discussion that the majority of students who were trained in peer response (traditional, online, a combination of both) responded extremely positively when asked to state their perceptions towards peer response. Results of this study concur with those of DiGiovanni and Nagaswami (2001) who revealed that most students in the two venues of peer response (face-to-face and online) expressed that they found peer response to be useful. However, results seem to contradict Schultz's (2000) study who revealed that the experimental group students (only computer format) were vague to assess because their attitudes towards peer response ranged from extremely positive to extremely negative.

Conclusion

The current study investigated the relative effect of trained peer response in all its modes i.e. treatment conditions (untrained, traditional face-to-face., online, and a combination of online and face-to-face) on college EFL students' writing performance, revision types, attitudes towards peer response, and perceptions towards writing. The results presented in the study clearly show that trained peer response experimental groups in all their peer response modes (traditional, online, and a combination of both online and face-to-face) had significantly better results than the control group.

Interestingly, the arguments presented in the rationale of this study in addition to the findings urge EFL teachers to explicitly train student-writers in peer response due to its

many cognitive, affective, social, and linguistic benefits as well as take an inquiry stance towards their practice and implement peer response within various contexts (traditional face-to-face, online, and a combination of both online and face-to-face); favorably, and for the ultimate benefits of EFL writers peer response modes should be seriously blended. More critically, the results of this study add to the literature that Lebanese EFL students who come from a homogeneous cultural background can be successfully trained in peer response and implement it in its different modes (traditional, online, and a combination of both modes) and are indeed able to collaborate in trained peer response groups and successfully pinpoint problematic rhetoric and content; and therefore, improve their writing performance as well as their ability to revise. Consequently, this study provides researchers in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, specifically within Lebanese context, a new fruitful exploratory environment to investigate the effect of peer response in its different modes on L2 writing.

Implications for Teaching

EFL teachers are responsible for teaching student-writers the purpose of peer response and encourage them to review their peers' drafts. More critically, EFL teachers should take into consideration positive outcomes reported in this study regarding the efficacy of trained peer response and teach student-writers how to present their peers with straight-to-the point, meaning level comments while taking into consideration the effectiveness of peer response in its different modes (face-to-face, online, and mixed mode).

Moreover, EFL teachers need to introduce peer response training during the early stages of pre-drafting and drafting in a process approach to writing class in order to be successful. More importantly, teachers should pay attention to students who think that revision is a waste of time and draw their attention to the importance of the revision process in helping them master many skills including the ability to give and receive critical feedback, evaluate their peers' pre-drafting and drafting strategies and provide suggestions for their improvement, voice their observations on particular strengths and weaknesses within a written task, critique the organization of a written task, and finally, differentiate between rewriting, editing, and proofreading stages of revision (Flower et al., 1986).

Moreover, EFL teachers should take an inquiry stance toward their practice. They should be well aware of the importance of Web 2.0 tools in engaging their L2 students in a collaborative learning environment. The current study helps teacher come to understand the affordances of Web 2.0 tools, especially wikis which work well for group projects and forums can allow for threaded discussions overtime which as we have seen in this study made a perfect milieu for peer response. According to DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010) "teachers can learn about digital writing by doing it and reflecting on it" (p.120). Therefore, it is imperative that teachers should develop as digital writers and learners themselves before incorporating the aforementioned technological interactive tools into their L2 writing classes. Hence, MacArthur and Karchmer-Klein (2010) persuasively indicated that "teachers must become fluent in the technology before they can develop, implement, and evaluate a technology-based writing curriculum" (p. 63). Hence, during this study, the researcher had to maintain the course wiki-based forum webpage all the time. The researcher was ready for some of the problematic issues which emerged due to usage of

technology in class. For instance, the researcher had to help some students register in the forum because they sent her emails indicating that they were having difficulties in registering. At some point, the researcher presented students with tutorials in the form of two PowerPoint presentations in order to demonstrate for students how to register in the wiki-based forum on one hand, and how to use the wiki-based forum in their peer responses on the other hand.

Therefore, teachers should spend enough time exploring and experimenting with Web 2.0 tools before bringing them into class. DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010, p. 119) state that "playful experimentation and engagement are as critical for teachers as they are for students". Hence, the aforementioned researchers insist that a very essential element of practice in teaching digital writing is opportunities to develop and reflect on curriculum as well as classroom practice. In fact, Darling-Hammond (1990) maintained that teachers learn just as students do by: studying, doing, and reflecting. Therefore, teachers can gain loads of experience with digital writing on their own by setting up blogs, collaborating with others in wikis, and participating in social networks. Frankly, because internet in this study was part of the researcher's writing instruction, the researcher spends hours navigating the web and looking for educational classroom webpages that post students' work, assignments and the projects their classes are involved in especially ones related to online peer response. Moreover, the researcher examined "noteworthy educational websites" that would enlighten her become "fluent" in using Web 2.0 tools. For instance, Karchmer-Klein (2007) explained the term 'noteworthy educational websites' as "websites that document their development over time, communicate to a variety of audiences, are organized and reader-friendly, and/ or include innovative ways of using technology to teach" (p. 226).

Moreover, DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010) emphasized that teachers should be provided with a culture that supports digital writing. Unfortunately, and out of experience, I believe that such digital culture is not provided to L2 teachers within the Lebanese context. In fact, I have always noticed that there is some kind of a policy language that portrays "Lebanese L2 teachers" as what DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010, p.135) has regarded as "technology–resistant digital immigrants reluctant to change". Hence, teacher educators in Lebanon should provide L2 teachers with the opportunity to experiment with technology through Web 2.0 tools. There should be a clear and well-defined procedure within the curriculum (national, school, and classroom levels) that explains how these tools should be integrated into L2 writing lessons. It is then that teachers can embrace and enjoy technology. Moreover, creating a culture that supports digital writing according to DeVoss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks (2010) requires four key investments:

- A supportive planning process through which instructors can build rich technology-intensive experiences.
- A team of stakeholders who recognize and value technological literacies.
- A process of budgeting for technology that is a living thing- that is , that has room to move and adjust as technologies change shape, break or disappear.
- A continual program of assessment and redesign to react and reinvigorate healthy technology- intensive programs (p. 127).

Limitations

I think the limitations below kind of constrained the results of the current study. First, this study is limited to one urban university (private, independent, non-sectarian institution of higher education) and to one course ENG 203 (Academic English) with students of homogeneous proficiency level in English. Therefore, external validity or generalization of findings is limited by the use of a specific institution which may not represent the all Lebanese college EFL students.

Moreover, the relatively small sample size (44) participants involved in this experiment makes it inaccurate to claim that the results of this current study can be applicable to populations of EFL college students who are studying Academic English across universities in Lebanon.

The duration of eight weeks limited the design of the study. Even though the results were good and came out in favour of the experimental groups, I believe results would have been much better, especially for traditional group students who actually asked for more training in their responses had the study lasted a whole semester i.e. 15 weeks.

In addition, participants involved in this study were well aware that a research study was in progress and this may have made them behave differently than they would have typically behaved. The researcher tried to be as objective as possible while delivering the treatment to ensure the success of the study.

The questionnaire which was adapted from Hu's (2005) study was a good means of eliciting students' perceptions towards peer response. However, the lack of open-ended questions may have hindered respondents from reporting all their views on their peer response experience. Maybe if data was triangulated with interviews, the respondents would

have elaborated more on their personal experience when it came to implementing peer repose in different modes (traditional, online, and combination of both).

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research could investigate the questions posed in the current study while taking into consideration the previously mentioned limitations. Other researchers could investigate the same research questions but with a larger sample. Further research which employs longer treatment periods (more than 8 weeks) is needed in order to investigate whether longer exposure to peer response training in different contexts (face-to-face, online, mixed modes) would improve EFL students' writing performance and revision abilities. Moreover, follow up studies are needed to examine the maintenance (delayed) effect of peer response on experimental group students whether traditional, online, or a combination of both. Hence, it would be really interesting to know if students (especially students assigned to online and mixed modes of peer response) will keep up such improvement in writing performance or won't.

Also, future research could investigate whether peer response affects students' proficiency levels. It would be really interesting to examine how participants with different proficiency levels would deal with peer response. It was mentioned before that the participants in this study were a homogeneous group who were enrolled in ENG 203 Academic English and demonstrated a higher intermediate proficiency level. The question is, 'would students with low proficiency levels benefit from peer response?' 'How would advance students who are proficient in writing benefit from peer response?'

Further research which investigates how females and males would react to peer response is also needed (paucity of research in this area, particularly using gender as a variable). Hence, studies which examine gender difference in responding to peer feedback in its different modes (traditional, online, and mixed) would be really interesting. 'Would females be more positive about peer response than males?' 'Would males prefer online peer response to face-to-face traditional peer response?

More critically, future research is needed to investigate the same research questions with different methodology. Hence, more rigorous data collection which combine quantitative data like the data used in this study with qualitative methods in order to get the best of both. For instance, future studies could use structured and semi-structured interviews to elicit responses on peer feedback. Moreover, different observation methods can be used and students' interactions during peer response can be taped and transcribed in order to investigate the patterns of peer talk. Therefore, qualitative methods can be an interesting way of studying peer response, and if they were triangulated with quantitative methods then it would be optimally comprehensive.

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APPENDIX 1

Narrative writing

SHORT STORY- MAKE SOME NOTES ON ALL OF THE FOLLOWING

THEME: What is the story about?

CHARACTER: Know your characters. Who are they? When and where were they born? Where do they come from? What makes them do what they do?

PERSPECTIVE: Stick to one perspective

DESCRIPTION: Let the reader see what your character is seeing. Let them smell what your character smells and fell what your character feels….

DIALOGUE: Don't say in dialogue what could be said in description. It must add something new and move the story along.

SETTING: Make it clear where the story is set.

CONFLICT: What is the central conflict for your character?

THE STRUCTURE

The Opening: Start not too far from the first important event in the story.

The Middle: Things must happen to and with your characters. They must react to and with each other and their situation. Tension must build up.

The End: Make list of possible endings. Characters must change by the time they get here or cause change in others.

BASIC GUIDELINES ON REVISING A SHORT STORY

When looking over your Peer's Story:

1. Does the opening explain who, where, what, and when? And Why?
2. Does the story have an ending? Can the author try a different ending? Does the author have a good dramatic ending? How can you improve the ending?
3. Does the story as a whole make sense? Can you tell someone what the story is a bout in one sentence?
4. Does it hang together structurally, is anything missing?
5. Are the characters believable? Every character must have a role to play.
6. Are there any unnecessary characters in there?
7. Has the perspective been used for this story? Would it work better from another characters' point of view?
8. Does the story work if you took out any chunk? Can you move chunks around and does it still work?
9. Clichés- strike them out.
10. Have the author used unnecessary words?
11. Pivotal Character: The author's central character should force his/her story forward. The characters should be relentless, almost obsessive in wat they are trying to achieve. He/She must force the conflict they are engaged in to the bitter end. Where the author does not have this sort of character the story will not work.

12. Contradiction: Has the author presented contradictions that could work in the story, like honesty Vs. Dishonesty; loyalty Vs dishonesty etc …And has the author fit these into the actions of his/her characters and story.
13. Transition: a) from one scene to the other, make sure that the reader knows where they are in the story and b) Emotional transition-does the author's character change from hate to love, or vice versa and if so what are the stages they are going to go through. Make sure the author has incorporated this into his/her story.

Based on notes taken in ENG 249

Peer Response

Narrative Essay

1. Is there a suitable title for the story?
2. Does the introduction include interesting and exciting opening statement that catchers the readers' attention?
3. Does the introduction end with a thesis statement that tells the reader what the story is about, the experience, and the lesson learned?
4. Is the body of the essay divided into three body paragraphs?
5. Does the first body paragraph include a detailed description of the conflict?
6. Does the second body paragraph include more description that leads to the resolution?
7. Does the third body paragraph has a clear resolution for the conflict?
8. Does the author of the story include sensory details that describe the senses of smelling, hearing, seeing, and feelings?
9. Does the author include dialogue in his/her essay?
10. Does the essay include transitional words that show time order?
11. Does the essay include a concluding paragraph that summarizes the characters' experience and tell what they have learned?
12. Proofread any spelling, punctuation, or grammar mistakes you find.

APPENDIX 2

Test of Written English (TWE) Scoring Guide

Scoring Range Included

Readers will assign scores based on the following scoring guide. Though examinees are asked to write on a specific topic, parts of the topic may be treated by implication. Readers should focus on what the examinee does well.

Scores:

6 = 95 Demonstrate clear competence in writing both at the rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it may have occasional errors.

A paper in this category

_____effectively addresses the writing task
_____is well organized and well developed
_____uses clearly appropriate details to support a thesis or illustrate ideas
_____displays consistent facility in the use of language
_____demonstrates syntactic variety and appropriate word choice

5 = 85 Demonstrates competence in writing on both rhetorical and syntactic levels, though it will probably have occasional errors.

A paper in this category

_____may address some parts of the task more effectively than others
_____is generally well organized and developed
_____uses details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea
_____displays facility in the use of language
_____demonstrates some syntactic variety and range of vocabulary

4 = 75 Demonstrates minimal competence in writing on both rhetorical and syntactic levels.

A paper in this category

_____addresses the writing topic adequately but may slight parts of the task
_____is adequately organized and developed
_____uses some details to support a thesis or illustrate an idea
_____demonstrates adequate but possibly inconsistent facility with syntax and usage
_____may contain some errors that occasionally obscure meaning

3 = 65 Demonstrates some developing competence in writing, but it remains flawed on either the rhetorical or syntactic level, or both.

A paper in this category may reveal one or more of the following weaknesses:

_____inadequate organization and development

_____inappropriate or insufficient details to support or illustrate generalizations
_____a noticeably inappropriate choice of words or word forms
_____an accumulation of errors in sentence structure and/or usage

2 = 55 Suggests incompetence in writing.
A paper in this category is seriously flawed by one or more of the following weaknesses:
_____serious disorganization or underdevelopment
_____little or no detail, or irrelevant specifics
_____serious and frequent errors in sentence structure or usage
_____serious problems with focus

1 = 45 Demonstrates incompetence in writing.
A paper in this category
_____may be incoherent
_____may be undeveloped
_____may contain severe and persistent writing errors

NOTE:

Range of TWE Scoring Rubric	
6+ = 96 - 98 6 = 95 6- = 90 - 94	3+ = 66 - 69 3 = 65 3- = 60 - 64
5+ = 86 - 89 5 = 85 5- = 80 - 84	2+ = 56 - 59 2 = 55 2- = 50 - 54
4+ = 76 - 79 4 = 75 4- = 70 - 74	1+ = 46 - 49 1 = 45 1- = 40 - 44

APPENDIX 3

Adopted from Faigley & Witte's (1981) Taxonomy of Revision Types

Taxonomy of Types of Revisions			
Surface Change		Text - based change	
Formal Changes	Meaning- Preserving Changes	Microstructure Changes	Macrostructure Changes
Additions	Additions	Additions	Additions
Deletions	Deletions	Deletions	Deletion
Substitutions	Substitutions	Substitutions	Substitutions
Permutations	Permutations	Permutations	Permutations
Distributions	Distributions	Distributions	Distributions
Consolidations	Consolidations	Consolidations	Consolidations
Reordering	Reordering	Reordering	Reordering

APPENDIX 4

Writing Attitude Test (WAS) / Adopted from (Kear et al, 2000)

Sex: M: ____ F: ____

Writing Attitude Survey

Name _____ School _____ Grade _____

1. How would you feel writing a letter to the author of a book you read?

2. How would you feel if you wrote about something you have heard or seen?

3. How would you feel writing a letter to a store asking about something you might buy there?

4. How would you feel telling in writing why something happened?

5. How would you feel writing to someone to change their opinion?

6. How would you feel keeping a diary?

7. How would you feel writing poetry for fun?

8. How would you feel writing a letter stating your opinion about a topic?

9. How would you feel if you were an author who writes books?

10. How would you feel if you had a job as a writer for a newspaper or magazine?

11. How would you feel about becoming an even better writer than you already are?

12. How would you feel about writing a story instead of doing homework?

13. How would you feel about writing a story instead of watching TV?

14. How would you feel writing about something you did in science?

15. How would you feel writing about something you did in social studies?

16. How would you feel if you could write more in school?

17. How would you feel about writing down the important things your teacher says about a new topic?

18. How would you feel writing a long story or report at school?

19. How would you feel writing answers to questions in science or social studies?

20. How would you feel if your teacher asked you to go back and change some of your writing?

21. How would you feel if your classmates talked to you about making your writing better ?

22. How would you feel writing an advertisment for something people can buy?

23. How would you feel keeping a journal for class?

24. How would you feel writing about things that have happened in your life?

25. How would you feel writing about something from another person's point of view?

26. How would you feel about checking your writing to make sure the words you have written are spelled correctly?

27. How would you feel if your classmates read something you wrote?

28. How would you feel if you didn't write as much in school?

APPENDIX 5

Permission Granted to Perform the WAS

The Writing Attitude Survey by Dennis J. Kear, Gerry A. Coffman, Michael C. McKenna and Anthony L. Ambrosia first appeared in the September 2000 issue of The Reading Teacher. Permission to copy was first granted by PAWS, Incorporated, who held the copyright on the Garfield character featured in the survey. That permission to copy expired in 2004. A new permission has been extended until further notice. PLEASE PASTE the following statement on each page of the survey prior to reproducing it.

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APPENDIX 6

Peer Response Sheet for an Essay Adopted from (Berg, 1999)

SAMPLE PEER RESPONSE SHEET FOR AN ESSAY

Responder _____ Author _____

Please answer the following questions, keeping in mind that the purpose of peer response is to help each other write better.

1. Can you find a thesis statement? __yes __no __I don't know
2. If you think you can find a thesis statement, please underline it.
3. Does each body paragraph have a clear topic sentence? __yes __no __I don't know
   Please explain your answer.
4. Read the essay carefully. Underline everything that you don't understand.
5. What do you like the best about this essay?
6. What questions, comments, and/or suggestions do you have for the author?

After you have answered these questions, discuss them and the essay with the author. Remember that you are writing for each other, so it's important that you understand each others' writing. Please tell the author what you think because it can help him/her write a really good essay.

Guidance Sheet for Reviewing Multiple-Paragraph Essays Adopted from (Min, 2006)

1. Read the introductory paragraph. Is there a thesis statement toward the end of the introduction?
2. Does the thesis statement contain main ideas? How many main ideas are there? Please underline the thesis statement and mark 1, 2, or 3 on each main idea. Are these main ideas at the same level of generality? Are they sequenced in accordance with importance? If you cannot find a thesis statement, drawing on what you have read so far, what do you expect to read in the following paragraphs? Summarize it in one sentence and show it to your partner.
3. Now read the first few sentences in the second paragraph. Did the writer write according to your expectation(s)? If not, what did the writer write instead? Do you think that writer was sidetracked? Go back to the thesis statement to make sure that you understand the main ideas. Did the author talk about the first main idea in the thesis statement? If not, remind him/her that he/she should. Are there any concrete examples or explanation in this paragraph to support the main idea? Are they well balanced (in terms of sentence length and depth of discussion)? Are they relevant and sequenced properly? Is there any direct quotation or paraphrased information in this paragraph? Is the quotation supporting the argument the writer has made? Check the original source if your partner wrote a paraphrase to make sure that the paraphrase reflects accurate information.
4. Read the first sentence of the third paragraph. Did your partner use any transitions to connect this paragraph with the previous one? If not, can you suggest one? Is there a

topic sentence that corresponds to the second main idea in the thesis statement? Make a suggestion if there is not.

5. Are there any concrete examples or explanation in this paragraph to support the main idea of this paragraph? Are they well balanced (in terms of sentence length and depth of discussion)? Are they relevant and sequenced properly? Is there any direct quotation or paraphrased information in this paragraph? Is the quotation supporting the argument the writer has made? Check the original source if your partner wrote a paraphrase to make sure that the paraphrase reflects accurate information.
6. Read the first sentence of the fourth paragraph. Does this paragraph connect well to the previous one? If not, can you suggest a sentence connector? Is there a topic sentence that corresponds to the third main idea in the thesis statement? Make a suggestion if there is not. Are there any concrete examples or explanation in this paragraph to support the main idea of this paragraph? Are they relevant and sequenced properly? Did your partner use pronouns and paraphrase to avoid repetition? Is there any direct quotation or paraphrased information in this paragraph? Is the quotation supporting the argument the writer has made? Check the original source if your partner wrote a paraphrase to make sure that the paraphrase reflects accurate information.
7. Read the conclusion. Does it begin with a restatement (but different wording) of the thesis statement? If not, suggest one. Does the conclusion move to more general statements on the topic as a whole? Does the conclusion contain too much irrelevant information to the thesis statement? If yes, make a suggestion.

8. What did you learn from reading this essay, either in language use or content? Is there anything nice you want to say about this essay? Are there any grammatical errors or inappropriate word usage?

Four – Step Procedure Adopted from (Min, 2006)

Step	Definition
1. Clarifying the writers' intention	Reviewers try to get further explanation of what writers have said or what is not clear to them in the essays (e.g., unknown term , an idea)
2. Identifying the problem	Reviewers announce a problematic word , sentence , or cohesive gap
3. Explaining the nature of the problem	Reviewers explain why they think a given term , idea, or organization is unclear, or problematic, which should or should not be used
4. Making specific suggestions	Reviewers suggest ways to change the words, content, and organization of essays.

APPENDIX 7

Students' Perceptions towards Peer Response adapted from a study by (Hu, 2005)

ENGLISH 203

PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS PEER RESPONSE (adapted from Hu, 2005)

Name: _____

Group: _____

Directions: Complete the questionnaire.

1.	Did you find your peer's response useful?	**YES** ☐	**Somehow** ☐	**NO** ☐
2.	Did you use the comments made by your peer in revising your first draft?	**YES** ☐	**Somehow** ☐	**NO** ☐
3.	Was peer response training beneficial to you?	**YES** ☐	**Somehow** ☐	**NO** ☐
4.	Do you think peer response is a positive or a negative activity?	**Positive** ☐	**Negative** ☐	
5.	Do you think that responding to your peer's essay helps you as a writer?	**YES** ☐	**NO** ☐	
6.	Would you like your teacher to use peer response in all your writings?	**YES** ☐	**NO** ☐	
7.	Do you feel that you need more practice to do peer response again?	**YES** ☐	**NO** ☐	

APPENDIX 8

Peer Response Lesson Plans over the course of Five weeks / 9 sessions

Week One

- Lesson One: Peer Response Training
- Domain: Oral & Written Communication
- Teaching Points: Speaking, Reading, Writing, Vocabulary & Study Skills
- Estimated Time: WEEK ONE : Sessions 1& 2, each session is (50 minutes)
- Material: worksheets, whiteboard, LCD, activboard
- Students' Status: Groups, Pairs and Individuals
    - **Performance Objectives**

      Students should be able to:

      - Establish background knowledge about peer response
      - Demonstrate critical understanding of process approach to writing
      - Identify different modes of peer response
    - **Teaching Procedures**

      Session One:

Researcher introduces the unit by showing students two short YouTube videos. This first video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=O3lkm8LsgoU defines peer review as an exercise in which writers comment on each other's written work in order to improve writing. The video provides an introduction to peer review processes including discussion, revision, and editing.

The second YouTube video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VCio7AbO3vo simulates how peer response can improve their peers' writing.

Researcher and students discuss the videos for a few minutes. Researcher elicits from learners as many vocabulary words as possible that deal with the thematic focus "Peer response" such as Peer response is also known as peer review, peer editing, peer tutoring, or peer critiquing.

Then the researcher shares with students the scholastic definition of peer response as defined by Hansen and Liu (2005, p. 31) as:

"The use of learners as sources of information, and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher , tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing (as cited in Hansen and Liu, 2002:I).

Session Two:

The researcher then identifies the different types / modes of peer response: Modes of Peer Response: (1) oral where peers read the paper and then orally give suggestions, (2) written where peers read the paper and write comments to give back to the writer, (3) face-to-face written plus oral where peers write comments and then orally discuss the comments with the writer just as they watched in the YouTube video, and (4) computer-mediated peer response mode where peers papers online and respond either asynchronously (delayed frame such as in emails) or synchronously (real-time). In order to motivate students, the teacher informs them that they are going to be trying new modes. This way, "trying the different modes may increase students' participation and interest levels, and motivate them to spend more energy on the task" (Hansen and Liu, p.33, 2005).

Researcher records the related vocabulary terms (different modes of peer response) on the board and asks learners to copy them on their copybooks.

Researcher provides students with an **intervention sheet** that explains to students how to revise, plus the revisions are based on the mistakes they have made in their writings.

Researcher invites a learner volunteer to read a sheet about the "**The Role of Peer Response in the writing Process**". Learners comment on what they have read. The researcher guides the discussion by drawing students' attention to the role of peer response in the writing process by indicating that researchers have suggested benefits of having peers , as opposed to just teachers , respond to one's writing. Students suggest more benefits for peer response and share them with their friends.

Role of Peer Response in the writing Process

According to Hu (2005) summarized the potential benefits of peer reviews as it contributes to learners' developing understandings of themselves and others as both writers and classroom learners of writing.

Hu (p.324, 2005) adds that peer response can improve the quality of student writing:

1) Students can provide very useful feedback that deals with content, rhetoric and language.
2) Peer response may constitute an important complementary source of feedback.
3) Peer response creates a fruitful environment for students to negotiate meaning and practice a wide range of language skills.
4) It helps in preparing students for real-world writing tasks because utilizing peer response is an authentic, real world activity.

Can you think of other benefits for peer response? Please write them down and discuss them with your peers

---

Week Two

- Lesson Two: Peer Response Training
- Domain: Oral & Written Communication
- Teaching Points: Speaking, Reading, Writing, Vocabulary & Study Skills
- Estimated Time: WEEK TWO : Session 3 (50 minutes)
- Material: worksheets, whiteboard, LCD, activboard
- Students' Status: Groups, Pairs and Individuals
    - ***Performance Objectives***

      Students should be able to:

        - Establish background knowledge about peer response
        - Demonstrate critical understanding of process approach to writing
        - Develop thinking strategies specifically revising
        - Identify types of revision
    - ***Teaching Procedures***

      Session Three:

Watch a YouTube video about the process approach to writing to learn that revising is part of the whole process. https: //www.youtube.com/watch?v=HZQ9VC_hsAY

Researcher shares a **PowerPoint presentation** about peer response" Making Peer revision Work" and triggers a discussion with students.

Researcher gives a worksheet that includes different examples of peer response entitled "**Types of Revision**". Through the sheet "Types of Revision" students should be informed

to focus on meaning changes that affect the meaning of a text instead of focusing on surface changes which do not affect the meaning of the text.

Types of Revision (adopted from Min, p.139, 2006)

Type	**Example (in bold Faces)**
Addition: reviser adds information	**First draft:** GM foods can increase harvest. **Feedback:** *There seems to be a logic problem. GM foods do not help increase harvest. It is the use of genetic engineering technique that leads to an increase on harvest.* **Second Draft: Planting** GM foods **can help farmers** increase harvest.
Deletion: reviser deletes information	**First Draft:** In today's society, GM food is becoming increasingly trendy. **That is GM food is a must.** **Feedback:** *A trendy thing does not mean it is a must.* **Second Draft:** In today's society, GM food is becoming increasingly trendy.
Substitution: reviser substitutes information	**First Draft:** Today, GM food has tremendously benefited farmers around the world, .. **Feedback:** *I suggest that you change farmers into people.* **Second draft:** Today, GM food has tremendously benefited **people** around the world
Permutation: reviser rephrases information	**First Draft:** Cell phones are not just chic gadgets, but with them we can talk to anyone on the planet from just about everywhere. **Feedback:** *Can you use a noun phrase to make the structure more parallel. For example," … But communication devices that can…"* **Second Draft:** Cellphones are not just chic gadgets, but **communication devices that can bring people together.**

Distribution: reviser re-writes same information in larger chunks	**First Draft:** Fifty years ago people were threatened by poverty and starvation. My grandma described it a world riddles with suffering. **Feedback:** *It looks like the starvation is because of poverty, not lacking of food.* **Second Draft**: Fifty years ago, people were threatened by poverty and starvation. My grandma described it a world of riddled with suffering. **Indeed, without harvests, lots of people were as poor as church mice.**
Consolidation: reviser puts separate information together	**First Draft:** Cell phones with attachable cameras or cameras embedded in them have become ubiquitous that they might be a potential for intruding people's privacy. Gym lockers, for example, where photography is greatly discouraged since long time ago. **Feedback:** *The second sentence is not a full sentence. You might want to combine it with the first one.* **Second Draft:** The **ubiquity** of cell phones with attachable or **built-in** cameras might be **intruding people's privacy, especially in private places such as gym lockers, where photography has long been discouraged.**
Re-order: reviser moves information	**First Draft:** GM Food nearly can be seen everywhere you can reach. **Feedback:** *"Nearly can be seen" means people do not see it. The "nearly" see it.* **Second Draft:** GM Food can be seen nearly everywhere you can reach.

Week Three

- Lesson Three: Peer Response Training
- Domain: Oral & Written Communication
- Teaching Points: Speaking, Reading, Writing, Vocabulary & Study Skills
- Estimated Time: WEEK THREE : Sessions 4 & 5, each session is (50 minutes)
- Material: worksheets, whiteboard, LCD, activboard
- Students' Status: Groups, Pairs and Individuals

- ***Performance Objectives***

Students should be able to:

- Identify the revision process
- Develop understanding of the revision process
- Apply revision process to a piece of writing
- Pay attention to grammar instruction which help in revising first drafts

- ***Teaching Procedures***

Session Four:

Identify the four bases to use when revising stories including unity, coherence, support, and sentence skills through using the sheet "The Revising Process". Students then complete an activity "An Illustration of the Revising Process" to find out how an author's revisions served to make the paragraph more unified, better supported, and better organized.

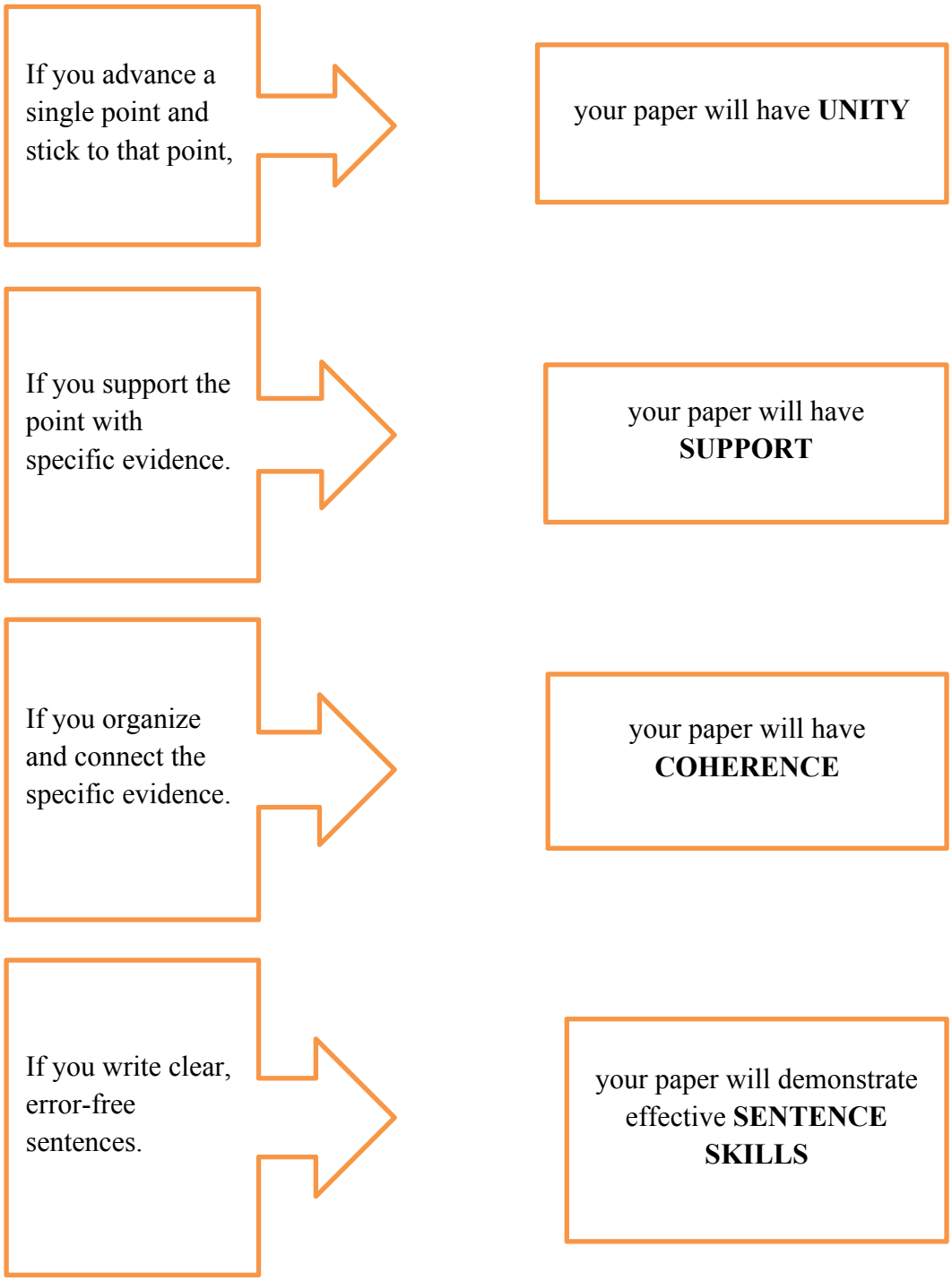
Session Five:

Students use a guidance sheets about grammar instruction entitled "revising sentences" to help them better revise their peers' written narratives.

The Revising Process

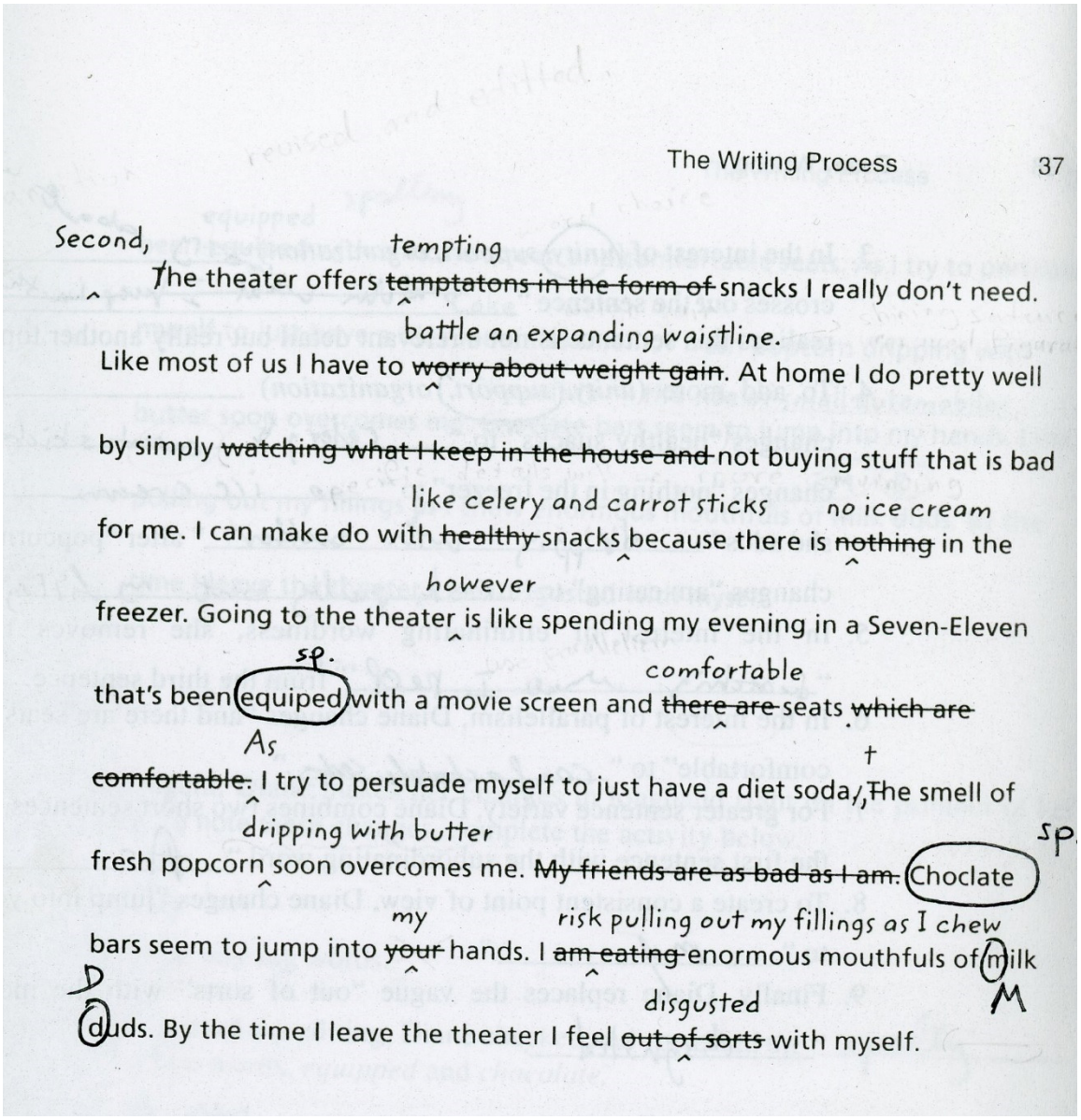
Based on College writing Skills with readings by John Langan

There are four bases or standards you have to use in revising your story.



An illustration of the Revising Process:

Below is an example of Diane Woods' revised paragraph:



The Writing Process 37

Second, tempting
The theater offers ~~temptatons in the form of~~ snacks I really don't need.
battle an expanding waistline.
Like most of us I have to ~~worry about weight gain~~. At home I do pretty well
by simply ~~watching what I keep in the house and~~ not buying stuff that is bad
like celery and carrot sticks no ice cream
for me. I can make do with ~~healthy~~ snacks because there is ~~nothing~~ in the
however
freezer. Going to the theater is like spending my evening in a Seven-Eleven
sp.
comfortable
that's been equiped with a movie screen and ~~there are~~ seats ~~which are~~
As t
~~comfortable.~~ I try to persuade myself to just have a diet soda, ~~T~~he smell of
dripping with butter sp.
fresh popcorn soon overcomes me. ~~My friends are as bad as I am.~~ Choclate
my risk pulling out my fillings as I chew
bars seem to jump into ~~your~~ hands. I ~~am eating~~ enormous mouthfuls of milk
D O M
disgusted
duds. By the time I leave the theater I feel ~~out of sorts~~ with myself.

-Complete the activity below to find out how Diane's revisions served to make the paragraph more unified, better supported, and better organized.

-Use Diane's **revised paragraph** to fill in the missing words.

1. To achieve better organization, Diane added at the beginning of the paragraph the transitional phrase "_____" making it very clear that her second supporting idea is tempting snacks.

2. Diane also added the transition "_____" to show clearly the difference between being at home and being in the theater.

3. In the interest of unity, Diane crossed out the sentence "_____". She realized that the sentence is not a relevant detail but really another topic.

4. To add more support, Diane changed "healthy snacks" to _____"; she changed "nothing in the freezer" to "_____", she added "_____" after "popcorn"; and she changed "am eating" to "_____".

5. In the interest of eliminating wordiness, she removed the words "_____" form the third sentence.

6. In the interest of parallelism, Diane changed "and there are seats which are comfortable to "_____".

7. For greater sentence variety, Diane combined two short sentences, beginning the first sentence with the subordinating word "_____".

8. To create a consistent point of view, Diane changed "jump into your hands" to "_____".

9. As part of her editing, Diane checked and corrected the _____ of two words, equipped and chocolate.

10. She realized that "milk duds" is a brand name and added _____ to make it "Milk Duds".

11. Finally, Diane replaced the vague "out of sorts" with the more precise "_____".

Revising Sentences

Based on College writing Skills with readings by John Langan

The following strategies will help you to revise sentences effectively.

- Use parallelism
- Use a consistent point of view
- Use specific words
- Use active words
- Use concise words
- Vary your sentences

1. Use Parallelism:

Words in a sentence should have the same kind of structure. Parallel sentences are clearer and easier to read than nonparallel sentences.Examples:

Nonparallel Sentences	**Parallel Sentences**
Grandma likes to read mystery novels, to do needle point, and browsing the Internet on her home computer.	Grandmother likes to read mystery novels, to do needlepoint, and to browse the Internet on her home computer. A balanced series of verbs: to read, to do, and to browse
The game-show contestant was told to be cheerful, charming, and with enthusiasm.	The game-show contestant was told to be cheerful, charming, and enthusiastic. A balanced series of descriptive words: cheerful, charming, and enthusiastic.

2. **Use a Consistent Point of view:**

-*Consistency with verbs*: do not shift verb tenses randomly. If you begin writing a paper in the present tense, do not shift suddenly to the past

Example:

Jean punched down the risen yeast dough in the bowl. Then, she damps it onto the floured worktable, and kneaded it into a smooth, shiny ball	Jean punches down the risen yeast dough in the bowl. Then, she *damps* it onto the floured worktable, and *kneads* it into a smooth, shiny ball

-*Consistency with pronouns:* You should not shift your point of view unnecessarily. Be consistent in using first, second, and third person pronoun.

First person pronouns: I, we

Second person pronouns: you

Third person pronouns: he, she, it, they

Example:

Inconsistent	*Consistent*
One of the fringe benefits of my job is that *you* can use a company credit card for gasoline.	One of the fringe benefits of my job is that ***I*** can use a company credit card for gasoline.

3. Use specific words:

Specific words create pictures in the reader's mind rather than general words. The help capture interest and make your meaning clear. Details show us exactly what happened.

-use exact names

She walked down the street ⟶ Ann walked down Hamra Street.

-use lively verbs

The flag moved in the breeze ⟶ The flag fluttered in the breeze.

-use descriptive words

Use words related to senses – sight, hearing, taste, smell, touch.

She worked hard all summer ⟶ All summer, Eva sorted mouthwatering peached and juicy blueberries in the hot, noisy canning factory.

4. Use Active verbs:

When the subject of a sentence performs he action of the verb , the verb is an active voice. When the subject receives the action then it is a passive verb. Active verbs are more effective than passive verbs.

Example:

Passive	Active
The computer was turned on by Hakim. The car's air conditioner was fixed by the mechanic.	Hakim turned on the computer. The mechanic fixed the car's air conditioner.

5. Use concise words:

Wordiness, which is using more words than necessary to express a meaning, is a sign of careless writing. Make your writing direct and concise.

Example:

Wordy sentences and expressions	Short forms
In this paper, I am planning to describe the hobby that I enjoy of collecting old comic books.	I enjoy collecting comic books.
at the present time	now
in the near future	soon
for the reason that	Because
a large number of	many
red in color	red

6. Vary your sentences: To vary the kinds of sentences you write, you can use the following methods to revise simple sentences:

a. *Add a second complete thought:*

add a complete sentence to another sentence by connecting them with a comma plus a joining word (and, but, for, or, nor, so, yet).

E.g. I tried to sleep.

The thought of tomorrow's math exam kept me awake.

I tried to sleep, but the thought of tomorrow's math exam kept me awake.

b. *Revise by adding a dependent thought:*

Add a dependent thought to a simple sentence. A dependent thought begins with one of the following words; *after, although, even though, if, even if, in order that, since, when, whenever, which, while, unless.*

E.g. I was tired.

I stayed up to watch the horror movie.

Even though I was tired, I stayed up to watch the horror movie.

c. *Revise by beginning with a special opening word or phrase"*

Among the special openers that can be used to start sentences are –ed words, -ing words, -ly words, to word groups:

-ed words:

Concerned about his son's fever, Paul called the doctor.

-ing words:

Hesitantly, Sue approached the instructor's desk.

to words group:

To protect her hair, Eva uses the lowest setting of her blow dryer.

Prepositional phrase:

During the exam, drops of water fell from the ceiling.

Quotation Marks

Use quotation marks to enclose the exact words of a speaker. Periods and commas should be inside closing quotation marks. Question marks and exclamation points should be inside the quotation marks if they are part of the quotation.
Dana said, "Let me show you my telescope."

"May I look through it?" asked Tania.

"Look at the moon!" she said excitedly.

Week Four

- Lesson Four: Peer Response Training
- Domain: Oral & Written Communication
- Teaching Points: Speaking, Reading, Writing, Vocabulary & Study Skills
- Estimated Time: WEEK FOUR: Sessions 6 & 7, each session is (50 minutes)
- Material: worksheets, whiteboard, LCD, activboard
- Students' Status: Groups, Pairs and Individuals

  - ***Performance Objectives***

Students should be able to:

- Establish background knowledge about fiction/ short story
- Demonstrate critical understanding of process approach to writing in order to write a short story
- Use guidelines to write a short story
- Use revising guidelines to revise short stories
- Use given tutorials to use the data driven website for e-feedback

  - ***Teaching Procedures***

Session Four:

Review the genre "short story". Inform students that they will be writing a first draft, a short story. Ask: Where do ideas come from? What is a story? Review key elements in friction: characterization, perspective, narrative, description, and dialogue. This can be done through an IN-class writing exercise workshop discussion.

Session Five:

Students use a guidance sheet "**Short Story- Make some notes on all of the following**" to help them review the story.

The researcher makes copies of students' first drafts. Then, they are divided into pairs in order to perform peer response.

Pairs are given a sheet entitled "**Basic Guidelines on revising a short story**" which will be used as a guideline for revising a short story written by a previous ENG 203 anonymous student. The aforementioned guidance sheet will be used along Min's **Guidance Sheet for Reviewing Multiple-Paragraph Essays** so those students provide their peers with peer response that matters. (Go Back to Appendix 6)

Week Five

- Lesson Five: Peer Response Training
- Domain: Oral & Written Communication
- Teaching Points: Speaking, Reading, Writing, Vocabulary & Study Skills
- Estimated Time: WEEK FIVE: Sessions 8 & 9, each session is (50 minutes)
- Material: worksheets, whiteboard, activboard
- Students' Status: Groups, Pairs and Individuals
  - ***Performance Objectives***

    Students should be able to:
    - Demonstrate critical understanding of the revision process
    - Apply revising strategies to improve a piece of writing
    - Use guidance sheets to review multiple essay paragraphs
    - Identify Dos and Don'ts of peer response
  - ***Teaching Procedures***

Session Six:

Discuss with students the "**Four Step Procedure**" adopted from (Min, 2005).Discuss with students "**Guidance Sheet for Reviewing Multiple-Paragraph Essays"** adopted from (Min, 2006). In pairs, students provide a response to the first draft of given piece of writing "**Family Portrait**" (adopted from the McGraw-Hill Company) .The sheet is entitled "**Development through revising**". Students use the **Guidance Sheet for Reviewing Multiple-Paragraph Essays** to revise first draft of **"Family Portrait"**. Students discuss their responses with class.

Session Seven:

Discuss the sheet about **Dos and Don'ts of peer response**. Students are given the answer key (final draft family portrait and examples of peer response and discuss the peer response sheets).

Then in pairs, students discuss their responses to the first draft. The teacher performs one-on-one conferences with students to make sure that students know the difference between surface changes and meaning changes. Students are given the answer

key to the revised draft (final draft) which includes examples on how to provide other with peer review

SOME "DO'S" AND "DON'TS" OF PEER EVALUATIONS

Peer Evaluations: Some "Do's"

1. Do treat the writer with courtesy and respect.
2. Do comment on the performance, not the person.
3. Do focus on how the argument is supported (or not), rather than whether you agree or disagree with it.
4. Do aim for balance and completeness in pointing out strengths and problem areas.
5. Do comment on specific examples of strengths and problem areas.
6. Do aim to help the writer see how to improve future work as well as the current draft.

Peer Evaluations: Some "Don'ts"

1. Don't use snippy marginal comments such as "So what?" or "What's your point?"
2. Don't get into debates over unresolvable questions of individual value and belief (for example, questions relating to religion, gun control, or abortion).
3. Don't argue with the writer. Raise objections or ask for explanations only to clarify and suggest ways of strengthening the argument.
4. Don't confine your comments to mechanical details.
5. Don't make vague, global comments.
6. Don't rewrite for the writer.

Development through Revising (practice exercise)

Below is Cindy's first draft essay. Kindly read it and revise it by jotting down comments.

Family Portrait (First Draft)

I have a photograph of my mother that was taken fifty years ago, when she was only twenty. She sent it to me only recently, and I find it very interesting.

In the photo, I see a girl who looks a good deal like I do, even though it's been a long time since I was twenty. Like most of the women in her family, including me, she's got the Diaz family nose, waving brown hair, and large brown eyes. Her mouth is closed and she is smiling slightly. That isn't my mother's usual big grin that shows her teeth and her "smile lines".

In the photo, Mom is wearing a very pretty skirt and blouse. They look like something that would be fashionable today. The blouse is made of heavy satin. The satin falls in lines and hollows that reflects the light. It has a turned-down cowl collar and smocking on the shoulders and under the collar. Her skirt is below her knees and looks like it is made of light wool. She is wearing jewelry. Her silver earrings and bracelet match. She had borrowed them from her sister. Dorothy eventually gave them both to her, but the bracelet has disappeared. On her left hand is a ring with a big yellow stone.

When I look at this photo, I feel conflicting emotions. It gives me pleasure to see Mom as a pretty young woman. It makes me sad, too, to think how quickly time passes and realize how old she is getting. It amuses me to read the inscription to my father, her boyfriend at the time. She wrote, "Sincerely, Beatrice." It's hard for me to imagine Mon and Dad ever being so formal with each other.

Mom had the photograph taken at a studio near where she worked in Huston. She spent nearly two weeks' salary on the outfit she wrote for it. And I think she wore the ring,

which another boy had given her, to make Dad jealous. She must have really wanted to impress my father to go to all that trouble and expense.

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Cindy showed her first draft to her classmate Elena, who read it and returned it with these notes jotted in the margin:

PEER RESPONSE:	**Family Portrait (Revised Draft)**
Was this the first time you'd seen it? And "very interesting" does not really say anything. Be more specific about why it interests you.	I have a photograph of my mother that was taken fifty years ago, when she was only twenty. She sent it to me only recently, and I find it very interesting.
The "Diaz family nose" isn't helpful for someone who doesn't know the Diaz family- describe it! Nice beginning, but I still can't quite picture her. Can you add more specific detail? Does anything about her face really stand out?	In the photo, I see a girl who looks a good deal like I do, even though it's been a long time since I was twenty. Like most of the women in her family, including me, she's got the Diaz family nose, waving brown hair, and large brown eyes. Her mouth is closed and she is smiling slightly. That isn't my mother's usual big grin that shows her teeth and her "smile lines".
Color? This is nice- I can picture the material. What is smocking? How – what are they (the jewelry) like?	In the photo, Mom is wearing a very pretty skirt and blouse. They look like something that would be fashionable today. The blouse is made of heavy satin. The satin falls in lines and

	hollows that reflects the light. It has a turned-down cowl collar and smocking on the shoulders and under the collar. Her skirt is below her knees and looks like it is made of light wool. She is wearing jewelry. Her silver earrings and bracelet match. She had borrowed them from her sister. Dorothy eventually gave them both to her, but the bracelet has disappeared. On her left hand is a ring with a big yellow stone.
It'd make more sense for the main points of the essay to be about your mom and the photo. How about making this-your reaction- the conclusion of the essay?	When I look at this photo, I feel conflicting emotions. It gives me pleasure to see Mom as a pretty young woman. It makes me sad, too, to think how quickly time passes and realize how old she is getting. It amuses me to read the inscription to my father, her boyfriend at the time. She wrote, "Sincerely, Beatrice." It's hard for me to imagine Mon and Dad ever being so formal with each other.
This is interesting stuff- she really did go through a lot of trouble to have the photo taken. I think the story of the photograph deserves to be a main point.	Mom had the photograph taken at a studio near where she worked in Huston. She spent nearly two weeks' salary on the outfit she wrote for it. And I think she wore the ring, which another boy had given her, to make Dad jealous. She must have really wanted to impress my father to go to all that trouble and expense.

Family Portrait (Final Draft)

Making use of Elena's comments and her own reactions upon reading her essay, Cindy wrote the final draft that appears below:

Family Portrait

My mother, who is seventy years old, recently sent me a photograph of herself that I had never seen before. While cleaning out the attic of her Florida home, she came across a studio portrait she had taken about a year before she married my father. This picture of my mother as a twenty-year-old girl and the story behind it have fascinated me from the moment I began to consider it.

The young woman in the picture has a face that resembles my own in many ways. Her face is a bit more oval than mine, but softly waving brown hair around it is identical. The small, straight nose is the same model I was born with. My mother's mouth is closed, yet there is just the slightest hint of a smile on her full lips. I know that if she had smiled, she would have shown the same wide grin and down-curving "smile lines" that appear in my own snapshots. The most haunting feature in the photo, however, is my mother's eyes. They are an exact duplicate of my own large, dark-brown ones. Her brows are plucked into thin lines, which are like two pencil strokes added to highlight those fine, luminous eyes.

I've also carefully studied the clothing and jewelry in the photograph. Although the photo was taken fifty years ago, my mother is wearing a blouse and skirt that could easily be worn today. The blouse is made of heavy eggshell-colored satin and reflects the light in its folds and hollows. It has turned-down cowl collar and smocking on the shoulders and below

the collar. The smoking (tiny rows o gathered material) looks hand-done. The skirt, which covers my mother' calves, is straight and made of light wool or flannel. My mother is wearing silver drop earnings. They are about two inches long and roughly shield-shaped. On her left wrist is a matching bracelet. My mother can't find this bracelet now despite the fact that we spent hours searching through the attic for it. On the third finger of her left hand is a ring with a large, square-cut stone.

The story behind the picture is as interesting to me as the young woman it captures. Mom, who was earning twenty-five dollars a week as a file clerk, decided to give her boyfriend (my father) a picture of herself. She spent almost two weeks' salary on the skirt and blouse, which she bought at a fancy department store downtown. She borrowed the earrings and bracelet from her older sister, my Aunt Dorothy. The ring she wore was a present from another young man she was dating at the time. Mom spent another chunk of her salary to pay the portrait photographer for the hand-tinted print in old-fashioned tones of brown and tan. Just before giving the picture to my father, she scrawled at the lower left, "Sincerely, Beatrice."

When I study this picture, I react in many ways. I think about the trouble that Mom went to in order to impress the young man who was to be my father. I laugh when I look at the ring, which was probably worn to make my father jealous. I smile at the serious, formal inscription my mother used at this stage of the budding relationship. Sometimes, I am filled with a mixture of pleasure and sadness when I look at this frozen long-ago moment. It is a moment of beauty, of love, and -in a way-of my own past.

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