

St. John's University

**St. John's Scholar**

---

Theses and Dissertations

---

2021

## Academically Underprepared First Year Writing Students' Perceptions and Implementation of Teacher and Peer Feedback

Jacqueline Marie Regan

*Saint John's University, Jamaica New York*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholar.stjohns.edu/theses\\_dissertations](https://scholar.stjohns.edu/theses_dissertations)



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Regan, Jacqueline Marie, "Academically Underprepared First Year Writing Students' Perceptions and Implementation of Teacher and Peer Feedback" (2021). *Theses and Dissertations*. 247.  
[https://scholar.stjohns.edu/theses\\_dissertations/247](https://scholar.stjohns.edu/theses_dissertations/247)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by St. John's Scholar. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of St. John's Scholar. For more information, please contact [fazzinol@stjohns.edu](mailto:fazzinol@stjohns.edu).

ACADEMICALLY UNDERPREPARED FIRST YEAR WRITING STUDENTS'  
PERCEPTIONS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF TEACHER AND PEER FEEDBACK

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
to the faculty of the  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION SPECIALITIES  
of  
THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION  
at  
ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY  
New York  
by  
Jacqueline Regan

Submitted Date: 3/31/2021

Approved Date: 5/19/2021

---

Jacqueline Regan

---

Dr. Olivia Stewart

**© Copyright by Jacqueline Regan 2021**

**All Rights Reserved**

## **ABSTRACT**

### **ACADEMICALLY UNDERPREPARED FIRST YEAR WRITING STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF TEACHER AND PEER FEEDBACK**

Jacqueline Regan

When entering the university, students from under-resourced schools may not have the same educational experiences as their peers and are more likely to be held back by a lack of instruction in writing. Framed by sociocultural theory and viewing both peer and teacher feedback as dynamic conversations and literacy events, the purpose of this mixed methods action research study was to measure academically underprepared students' perceptions of feedback and to understand how these perceptions of writing feedback align with the decisions they make about implementing changes to their essays. Focusing on first-year writing students ( $n=29$ ) at a diverse state university, the researcher attempted to learn how students perceive feedback as a tool for revision. Quantitative and qualitative data consisting of survey data, teacher and peer feedback, open-ended survey responses, peer review surveys, and focal student interviews were collected. The findings of the study suggest that even though academically underprepared students perceived feedback as valuable and helpful, there was also a strong negative emotional component. Students expressed a preference for specific feedback that appears in the margin of the papers rather than end notes. The results indicate that although students perceive feedback as a conversation with their teachers and peers, it is not occurring as such. The major finding of this study is that academically underprepared students are still transitioning from the mentality that teacher is authority to having a role and choice in

their development as a writer. For academically underprepared students, feedback mediates the transition from dependence on teacher to becoming an autonomous writer. Included are suggestions for practice that can help this population transition from viewing learning to write as top-down to understanding and engaging in a relationship where teacher is mentor and student is apprentice.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing this dissertation would not have been possible without the support of my family, friends, and colleagues. I am so fortunate to have so many people who believe in me. I want to acknowledge the patience, love, support, and encouragement I have received from my husband, John, and my children, Julia, Sean, and Liam, while I spent many days in front of the computer. With you all besides me, anything is possible. You are pure joy.

First, I must acknowledge my amazing and tireless mentor, Dr. Olivia Stewart, who thankfully reignited me in and helped me to create a realistic dissertation project. Thank you for sharing your knowledge and guiding me through the dissertation journey. I so appreciate your rapid responses to my questions, motivating meetings, unending offers for help, and unlimited access. And of course, the hours you have spent giving me thoughtful and helpful feedback and taking part in feedback conversations. I appreciate all you have done to make this possible for me.

Thank you, Dr. Ortlieb, for being part of my dissertation committee as well as for your guidance and support during this process. Thank you for introducing me to publishing in the literacy field and collaborating with me on an article. During my program, you have been a wonderful mentor and always available and willing to help. I am deeply appreciative for all you have done to help me in this process.

Finally, I must acknowledge the wonderful students who took the time to teach me about how they learn. I am always amazed and humbled by my students. I am very fortunate to work with such motivated, creative, and intelligent young people.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	ii
LIST OF TABLES .....	v
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vii
CHAPTER 1 .....	1
Introduction .....	1
Background .....	2
Statement of Problem .....	6
Significance of the Study .....	9
Purpose of the Study .....	10
Research Questions .....	11
Definition of Terms .....	11
CHAPTER 2 .....	13
Review of Related Literature .....	13
Theoretical Framework .....	14
Literature Review .....	17
CHAPTER 3 .....	36
Methods and Procedures .....	36
Research Design .....	37
Curriculum Overview .....	39
Sample and Population .....	42
Research Site .....	44
Data Collection and Analysis .....	45
CHAPTER 4 .....	64
Results .....	64
Data Cleaning .....	65
Student Writing Background .....	66
Data Analysis .....	70
CHAPTER 5 .....	137
Discussion .....	137
Perceptions of Feedback: Affect .....	138
Perceptions of Feedback: Improvement Strategies .....	145

Perceptions of Feedback: Benefit .....	151
Revision Changes.....	156
Limitations of Study .....	158
Recommendations for Future Research .....	159
Recommendations for Future Practice .....	161
Conclusion .....	166
APPENDIX A.....	168
APPENDIX B.....	170
APPENDIX C .....	174
APPENDIX D.....	175
APPENDIX E .....	176
APPENDIX F.....	177
APPENDIX G.....	180
APPENDIX H.....	181
REFERENCES .....	182



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Course Objectives for College Writing II.....	40
Table 2	First-Year Writing Assessment Criteria.....	41
Table 3	Demographics of Survey Respondents.....	43
Table 4	Demographics of Focal Students.....	43
Table 5	Number of Essays Completed for English Class During Senior Year of High School.....	67
Table 6	Number of Essay Drafts Completed for Senior Year English Class.....	67
Table 7	Types of Writing Feedback Experienced by Students.....	69
Table 8	Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 1-7.....	73
Table 9	Paired T-Test Results for Items 1-7.....	74
Table 10	Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Response Items 1-7.....	77
Table 11	How Students Feel When Receiving Peer and Teacher Feedback.....	78
Table 12	Focal Students: Affect.....	82
Table 13	Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 8-12.....	91
Table 14	Paired T-Test Results for Items 8-12.....	92
Table 15	Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Response Items 8-12.....	95
Table 16	How Students Use Feedback to Improve their Writing.....	96
Table 17	Focal Student Responses: Improvement Strategies.....	99

Table 18	Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 13-17.....	109
Table 19	Paired T-Test Results for Items 13-17.....	110
Table 20	Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Responses for Items 13-17.....	113
Table 21	Frequencies of Preferences of Peer or Teacher Feedback.....	115
Table 22	Student Perceptions of Peer and Teacher Feedback.....	115
Table 23	Focal Students' Perceptions of the Benefits of Peer Feedback.....	118
Table 24	Examples of Teacher Feedback.....	125
Table 25	Frequencies of Implementation of Marginal Comments by Criteria....	128
Table 26	Frequencies of Implementation of End Comments by Criteria.....	130
Table 27	Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Conversation with Sources.....	131
Table 28	Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Introduction and Conclusion.....	132
Table 29	Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Essay 2.....	133
Table 30	Frequency of Feedback Implemented from Peer Reviews.....	134
Table 31	Action Research Plan.....	165

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Writing Module Timeline.....	53
Figure 2	Coding of Teacher Feedback .....	60
Figure 3	Coding of Peer Feedback.....	62

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

The most recent NAEP (National Assessment of Educational Progress) *Nation's Report Card* (2011) reported that only 27% of high school seniors had achieved proficiency in writing. Meanwhile, the NCES (National Center for Education Statistics) annual *Condition of Education* (Hussar, et al., 2020) report found that sixty-nine percent of the 3.2 million high school completers enrolled in either a two-year or four-year college or university in the fall of October 2018. The alarming discrepancy between proficiency, or college readiness in writing, and college enrollment indicates a gap between the expectations of college composition classes and the skills that students have mastered. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) self-report student study, researchers found that “29 percent of students in 4-year colleges and universities and 41 percent of students at 2-year colleges had taken at least one remedial course” (Chen, 2016, p.4). Remedial college courses in English have attempted to provide extra support for developing writers and to bridge the gap between high school and college writing. However, the current trend is to cut those courses because there is little evidence that remedial education benefited students' academic success or long-term economic success (Martorell & McFarlin, 2011; Scott-Clayton & Rodriguez, 2015; Ulmer, et al., 2016).

With the elimination of these courses, all students, regardless of academic or language background, are placed in general education writing courses. Some schools provide additional support for students who may not be academically prepared, such as summer bridge programs (Relles, 2016), longer classes or “stretch programs,” (Glau,

2007), and extra tutoring (Reid & Moore, 2008), but without an extra course, students lose a semester of writing instruction aimed at helping them transition into college writing. As a result of the discrepancy between college writing readiness (NAEP, 2011) and immediate college enrollment after high school graduation (NCES, 2020), first-year writing (FYW) instructors must find ways to address this gap in their regular general education courses. Providing specific writing feedback that assesses students' strengths and weaknesses and provides instruction is one way to help fill this gap. Writing feedback, both teacher and peer, is a primary and important instructional method in teaching writing (Black & William, 1998; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Rasdmen, 2003). However, academically underprepared, or developmental writers, may not have the background information or experience to understand or implement the feedback into their revision (Higgins, 2000; Perun, 2015).

## **Background**

The expectation that all students who graduate from high school are college ready should not be an unrealistic one. The goal of secondary education is to prepare students for their next steps in life, whether it be college or career, and earning a high school diploma should be evidence that a student is prepared for that transition. However, national education statistics tell quite a different story (e.g., NAEP, 2011; NCES, 2012; NCES, 2016). Perhaps, one of the most startling examples of this disparity was highlighted in New Jersey Governor Chris Christie's 2014 state of the state report in which he announced that the city of Camden's graduating class only contained three college-ready students (NJ State of State Address, 2014). Although this only measured the 214 seniors in Camden who took a standardized college admission test, it calls

attention to the growing crisis in education concerning the definition of college readiness and what it predicts success for students from underserved school districts. These students often suffer as a result of unfair resource allocation in terms of class offerings, incorrect tracking, and having less qualified teachers—those who are more experienced and have higher degrees. Bottia et al. (2016) conducted a longitudinal study in the public schools in North Carolina in which they followed students from middle school through their first year of college. They found that students of color and lower socioeconomic backgrounds were often placed in the wrong academic track and were not offered the same college preparatory experiences as students of higher SES (Bottia et al., 2016). Ultimately, the lack of distributive justice (Bottia et al., 2016) and allocation of resources determined the futures of students in this North Carolina school system.

As a response to the growing inequity, college readiness in terms of math and writing proficiencies has become a major concern and focus for policy. Currently, the US Department of Education has attempted to address the issue of college readiness in writing by including anchor skills in the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Associate Center for Best Practices, 2010). These ELA anchor skills provide goals for student proficiency in reading, writing, speaking, and listening that are necessary for success in student's first year writing courses. Although these standards can help to academically prepare students for the rigors of college writing, they still must be applied equitably in all secondary school systems to achieve a difference.

### ***Barrier to Academic and Economic Success***

Being underprepared for academic writing classes can result in a failing grade and a loss of confidence in one's sense of belonging to the higher education community

(Moss et al., 2014). In a classroom situation with a diverse group of learners, these students can be fearful that their peers will view them negatively— as unintelligent and not belonging in college (Moss, et al., 2014). Retention rates, and therefore the pathway to economic equality and success (Bourdieu, 1986), are strongly linked to a student's performance in their first year courses, but it is most strongly correlated with performance in their writing courses (Garrett et al., 2017). Using ten years of data from a university in a major metropolitan area with a large minority population, Garret, et al. (2017) found that students who failed their first-year writing courses had a 17% chance of graduating while those who passed had a 53% chance of graduating. Based on the data, they found that students who failed either of the two required general education writing courses were 38% less likely to graduate from college, and if they failed one of the courses a second time, this dropped to 8%. Studying the relationships of measures of academic college readiness, socioeconomic status, financial resources, and demographics with retention, DeAngelo and Franke (2016) found that for students from underrepresented groups, academic readiness is the most important predictor of student retention. Thus, the researchers argue that students who start academically prepared have a better chance for success even if they come from a low-income background and are first generation. A lack of preparation creates a barrier to education and better social mobility for disenfranchised groups.

### ***Academically Underprepared Students and First Year Writing (FYW)***

These findings on underprepared or underserved students mean they arrive at college without the academic literacy foundation needed to be successful in the college writing classroom. Academic literacy may be viewed as understanding how to write for

different audiences and purposes, having the ability to find and critically evaluate information, using critical thinking, creating a variety of new texts, and contributing to the creation of new knowledge as well as having the maturity to reflect upon one's learning (Yancey, 2009). Students who are poor and those who have been historically underserved may not have these skills (Henry & Stahl, 2017). The low rates of proficiency in reading and writing and lack of skills are in stark contrast to the rigorous expectations of college writing programs.

### ***First Year Writing (FYW) Expectations***

According to the Council of Writing Program Administrators (2014), first year writing (FYW) courses must “cover an extensive amount of knowledge that includes rhetorical knowledge, critical thinking, reading, composing, the writing process with multiple drafts, grammar, writing conventions, and an understanding of genre.” This type of curriculum expects students to refine their voice and create their individual style. This style includes complicated processes, such as making informed decisions about writing, learning to create a rhetorical and linguistic balance, mastering operational aspects of writing such as grammar, integrating ideas of others into writing, identifying weaknesses, responding to feedback, and making appropriate edits (Donahue & Foster-Johnson, 2018). In a climate of high stakes testing, students from marginalized schools are often taught writing in a systematic way so they can do well on standardized tests (Fanetti, et al., 2010). The contrast between the two creates the gap between high school and college writing, where the college instructor is faced with teaching students who view writing as formulaic, and now they must redefine writing as a more personal process (Fanetti, et al., 2010; Donahue, & Foster-Johnson, 2018).



### ***Filling the Gap***

One of the ways that writing instructors attempt to fill this gap and help students develop self-efficacy as writers is to provide students with experiences to engage with feedback on their writing (Ekholm et al., 2015). This feedback can come from the instructor or peer and may take a variety of forms, including conferences, audio, and text. While instructors teach writing and provide feedback to help students develop literacy in academic writing, they are often unable to know if students find feedback helpful, if they understand it, or if they implement it in their revisions (Wilson & Post, 2019). In addition, although peer review is central to most FYW classes it is often viewed negatively because students are unsure of their peer's abilities to review papers, and in some classes, peer review is counted toward a student's grade or may even replace instructor grading (Ducasse & Hill, 2019; Kaufmann & Schunn, 2011).

While providing students with teacher and peer feedback for writing revision is typically considered the most effective way of helping students develop as writers, many times students do not act upon this feedback (Boud & Molloy, 2013). Feedback can also be perceived as criticism or as a teacher imposing authority (Ducasse & Hill, 2019; Ekşı, 2012) and may then be ignored. Finally, academically underprepared students may not have had writing experiences that included process writing and may be unfamiliar with the process of revision and how to use feedback to help them make revision decisions (Higgins, 2000; Perun, 2015).

### **Statement of Problem**

Academically underprepared students may be viewed from a deficit perspective in the college writing classroom. The terms "at-risk" or "struggling" are often employed in

describing this population and positioning these students as outsiders at the university. These students may mistakenly be considered the problem, with reasons being ascribed to them such as a result of lacking motivation, not engaging in class, and performing poorly in their academic pursuits (Cilesiz & Drotos, 2016; Harklau, 2000; Hull, 1999). As a result of being viewed as outsiders and dismissed as “non-collegiate,” students may withdraw from engaging in classes, feel isolated, and eventually drop out. Creating a sense of community in first-year writing (FYW) courses can help students feel as if they belong. This sense of community happens through a dialogue between instructor and peers. This individualized conversation can occur through a recursive process of providing and responding to feedback (Carless, 2016; Sommer, 2006; Wilson & Post, 2019).

The purpose of feedback is to help students improve and accelerate their learning (Sadler, 1989). Feedback helps students find ways to approach their writing and revision, reflect upon it, and engage with it (MacArthur, 2017). Feedback is considered a type of formative assessment. Formative assessment or formative feedback has the following characteristics: helps learners follow a progression and set goals; creates a discussion with students by providing understandable advice for improvement; leads to self and peer assessment by helping students understand their role in learning; and creates a collaborative learning environment (Coffey, 2009). It should not be a process that reinforces an authoritative relationship in which “teacher knows best,” but instead, it should help students move from being “recipients to agents of the written word” in which they claim their identity as part of the writing community (Kwok et al., 2017, p. 260). Feedback should provide a dialogue between students and teachers that establishes a

mentor/apprentice relationship where a student is allowed to be an active participant in his or her learning (Carless, 2006; Sommers, 2006; Torres et al., 2020).

With rigorous course expectations, instructors spend hours writing marginal comments and end notes that serve as formative feedback. Formative feedback serves to “feed-forward” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) to help students improve their writing to meet the expectations of that mode of writing. Thus, while effective feedback provides assessment, it also provides instruction (Parr & Timperley, 2010). Peer feedback should not replace teacher feedback, but it can reinforce class instruction and allow collaboration to solve writing problems (Ekşi, 2012). Essentially, writing feedback in all forms can help students progress to become confident, self-regulated, productive academic writers who feel comfortable as members of the university community (Mustafa, 2012).

Although feedback can help students develop their identities as writers, it can be difficult to know how students perceive feedback and if they believe it is useful. This problem is especially relevant for academically underprepared students who may not understand or implement feedback due to earlier experiences with feedback, previous educational experiences, or even home support (Hughes, 2012; Irvin et al., 2011; Xuan et al., 2019). To ensure that feedback is effective, instructors must learn about student perceptions of teacher and peer feedback as well as align those findings with revisions, or evidence of implementation, and understanding. There are many studies on feedback in its various forms, but less on how students perceive this feedback and even fewer that align perceptions to the revisions made in student papers (c.f., Calhoon-Dillahunt & Forrest, 2013; Wu & Schunn, 2020). The largest gap in research related to feedback and

perceptions concerns the most vulnerable students at the university--academically underprepared first year students.

### **Significance of the Study**

Viewing academically underprepared students from a deficit rather than as being underserved can create an unjust environment that places blame on the poor. From this perspective, students from poverty are viewed as having control over the barriers they face and making individual decisions not to succeed (Cilesiz & Drotos, 2016). To create equity and accelerate learning for the underserved, instructors need greater insight into how students view and respond to peer and teacher feedback, and how that feedback influences the changes they make in their papers. Although much research has been conducted on perceptions of peer and teacher feedback (e.g., Barnard, et al., 2015; Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Lizzio, et al., 2008; Song, et al., 2017; Wu & Schunn, 2020), little has been done on feedback perceptions of students from underserved schools. In addition, it is important to align students' perceptions of feedback with the revisions and improvements they make to their drafts (c.f., Calhoon-Dillahunt & Forrest, 2013; Wu & Schunn, 2020). Understanding what students find most helpful concerning feedback can help practitioners optimize the feedback they provide students as well as decide how much peer review to assign to best improve students' writing. Approaching writing feedback as a collaborative process between instructor and student can provide insights into how academic writing literacy develops for academically underprepared students in their FYW courses. In turn, providing a student voice in the process of their academic development can create a more socially-just learning environment, improve motivation,

and provide practitioners with insights on what is happening while students develop academic writing proficiencies.

This action research study attempts to fill this gap and help provide practitioners with a broader understanding of how academically underprepared students' perceptions of writing feedback contribute to revision. These findings will help guide teachers of this population in writing effective feedback and designing peer feedback opportunities that will hopefully accelerate learning and fill the gaps these students have in their education to this point.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Viewing both peer and teacher feedback as dynamic conversations and literacy events, this study attempts to learn how academically underprepared students perceive both peer and teacher feedback and how revisions made to their work reflect understanding of feedback. As new members of an academic writing community, teacher feedback serves to scaffold writing skills learned in class and provides mentorship while peer feedback creates a literacy activity in which students work together to solve problems in their papers. In this study, it is this feedback conversation that allows for the development of student's self-awareness as a writer.

The purpose of this study is to measure students' perceptions of feedback and to understand how students' perceptions of writing feedback align with the decisions they make about implementing changes to their essays. The study will use a mixed method design to answer the research questions. The quantitative data will include a survey on perceptions, while the qualitative data will be comprised of interviews, student writing, and open-ended survey questions.

## **Research Questions**

In order to understand student perceptions of feedback and how they use that feedback to revise their papers, this study will attempt to answer the following questions:

## **Definition of Terms**

**Academic Writing:** traditional evidence-based argumentative writing conducted at a college level (claim, organization, analysis & development, and clarity).

**Academically Underprepared Students:** Post-secondary students with low reading and writing skills who have graduated from under-resourced schools. These students may also be second language learners. The term developmental writers may be used interchangeably with academically underprepared writers.

**College Writing II:** This course is the second of the two course general education requirement at the university.

**EOF Program:** Equal Opportunity Funding program is a program that provides financial support for higher education to students from underserved backgrounds. These students are all required to take 4-credit writing courses rather than the traditional 3-credit course.

**Four-credit Writing Course:** Instructors make recommendations for placement for students for this course, which provides extra support for writing students. The course includes an additional 50 minutes per week of computer lab time for students to compose with the help of the instructor. It is assumed that the course is appropriately scaffolded for developing writers.

**Global Changes:** For this study, global changes suggested in writing feedback refer to changes that require deep revision and must be applied to the entire essay.

**Peer Feedback:** This feedback occurs when students are asked to view a peer's paper and given a specific assessment task.

**Teacher Feedback:** For this study, teacher feedback is written feedback on students' drafts, either within the paper or end comments, that provides students instruction on revising their drafts.

**Under-resourced/underserved schools:** Students in underserved schools often suffer from unfair resource allocation in terms of class offerings, incorrect tracking, and having less qualified teachers—experienced and with higher degrees (Bottia, et.al, 2016).

**Stretch Program:** College English course in which students have the same books and content as the other general education writing courses but have extra time for writing (Glau, 2007).

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **Review of Related Literature**

This chapter reviews the present literature on feedback perceptions and how they align to student revisions as related to the present study. Writing feedback provides students and teachers with a transactional way to communicate about a student's writing development. Effective peer and teacher feedback can be one of the most important instructional methods in helping students develop as writers (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Black & William, 1998; Carless, 2006; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Rowe, 2011; Topping, 1998). Writing feedback creates or supports the institutionalized expectations of university FYW programs, which for underprepared students can be difficult to understand and implement as a result of a lack of background knowledge (Lei et al., 2010).

This literature review begins with a discussion of the theoretical lens that provides the framework for this study. Beginning the literature review is a definition of feedback and a synthesis of research on viewing feedback as an interactive dialogue between students and teachers. Next, writing feedback and academically underprepared students are discussed before introducing studies on student perceptions of teacher and peer feedback. Finally, the chapter ends with an examination of the few studies that attempt to align perceptions with changes made in students' papers. Because there are limited studies on student perceptions that deal with this specific population, studies were chosen that would most effectively help frame this study.



## **Theoretical Framework**

By establishing a classroom community that shares a common academic language, where teacher is viewed as mentor and feedback viewed as conversation, underprepared students can use teacher and peer feedback to facilitate literacy development. An individual's literacy development cannot simply be defined as the ability to read and write. While this is certainly true, the concept of literacy is much more complex and multi-faceted than this view. Literacy is dynamic, forever changing, and defined by one's experiences, history, culture, and changes in society (Halliday, 1978; Heath 1983; Gee, 1999; Scribner & Cole 1981; Street, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). Literacy is not only the way we make meaning, communicate, and connect with others, but the way we define ourselves and create (Gee, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Furthermore, being literate can provide the key for financial success, upward mobility, and social justice for those in poverty (Freire, 1972). Literacy enables individuals to empower themselves and change their lives.

This research study is framed by a sociocultural perspective. Viewing literacy from this perspective means that literacy is a social activity influenced by one's culture and history. This definition is based on Vygotsky's (1978) sociohistorical theory "that the mind emerges from social interaction with other minds, that activities of the mind are mediated by tools and symbol systems (languages), and to understand a mental function one must understand the roots and processes contributing to that functions' development" (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013, p. 67). Bazerman (2017) summarizes the sociocultural definition of literacy concerning writing as "a complex social participatory performance in which the writer asserts meaning, goals, actions affiliations, and identities with a

constantly changing, contingently organized social world, relying on shared texts and knowledge” (p. 18). Students do not arrive at school empty vessels to be filled with knowledge from an expert (Freire, 1972); instead, they bring their own expertise which can be valued and shared as they develop their literacy skills in a dynamic process and establish their identity in the academic community. It is upon the concepts and framework of this definition that the following study has been designed.

### ***Writing as a Social Event***

Understanding how one learns cannot be done without understanding how an individual’s culture, history, and social experiences mediate a person’s literacy development (Halliday, 1978; Heath 1983; Gee, 1999; Scribner & Cole 1981; Street, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). This perspective is especially relevant in the FYW classroom where students’ academic backgrounds and knowledge vary greatly. Teaching writing from a sociocultural perspective allows for an opportunity for students to draw from the skills they bring to the classroom and share them with their peers.

Students’ writing development can be viewed as a collaborative social event involving constructing relationships with others (Beach et al., 2017). Shifting the view of writing and learning to participation in a particular activity creates composing habits (Cole, 1996; Engeström, 2014) and facilitates learning that occurs within the activity using tools, languages, genres, and discourses, unique to the activity (Kwok et al., 2017). This perspective can help marginalized students whose academic experiences may have left them underprepared for the academic expectations of college writing.

The interdependence between social experience and individual creates an opportunity for people to learn from each other, especially when one comes in contact

with a person more knowledgeable on a certain topic (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991). This concept is reflected in Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD); this is the space between what a learner can do on his own and what he or she needs assistance with.

### ***Writing Feedback as a Scaffolding Tool***

The ZPD can define the teacher and student relationship because it stresses the social aspect of learning, focusing not on what can be done alone but what can be accomplished with the help of a knowledgeable person or mentor (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013). Teacher writing feedback provides an opportunity for teacher and student to assume the roles of mentor and apprentice as students develop their writing. Central to this concept is guiding students by engaging in dialogic feedback where students take time to reflect on their writing and make decisions about their writing rather than simply applying teachers' corrective feedback (Carless, 2016). Similarly, guided participation (Rogoff, 1990) also relies on the knowledge of another, but a student can be working on his or her own applying what has been taught and using the tools of the classroom, which mirrors the expectations of learning at most universities.

### ***A Common Language and Community***

When students are working together in the classroom to solve problems in each other's writing, they are transitioning into the academy. While teacher feedback helps indoctrinate students into the college writing community and hopefully upsets the traditional power dynamic of the classroom by reframing the relationship in a more collaborative light, peer feedback provides another collaborative activity in which students share expertise and benefit from assessment and receiving assessment

(Falchikov & Goldfinch 2000; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Wakabayashi, 2013). The peer review process creates a community where writing or composing is a social activity in which students apply knowledge. The discourse of these social activities is situated, meaning it occurs in the context of the academic writing classroom (Gee, 1999). In order for students to be successful in working with each other, they must acquire a specific academic discourse that applies to the first year writing classroom so all members can share a common language. The ability to meaningfully exchange ideas in this community reflects the understanding of students to interact with their audiences. Feedback is an important method of exchanging ideas and fostering community in the FYW classroom.

## **Literature Review**

### ***What is Effective Feedback?***

Feedback is the term used for providing formative instruction to student writers that helps them achieve their writing goals. In their literature review of effective feedback, Beach and Friedrich (2006) concluded that for feedback to be effective, it must help students to understand the rhetorical tasks expected, explain problems and provide suggestions, and help students to self-regulate. The assumption is that students will use feedback to make corrections as indicated, to remove problematic passages, and to motivate themselves to improve their writing to meet their goals (Hyland, 1998). Hattie and Timperley's (2007) meta-analysis of feedback research found the effect size largest when students received feedback that was on a specific task and provided a way to accomplish that task, and the lowest effect size was on praise only. These findings highlight the student perspective of feedback as instructional rather than personal. Based on their findings, they divided the types of feedback into three levels—first level

identifying what works and what does not; the second level had an emphasis on learning and provided students with explanations or solutions; and the third level had to do with praise (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Henderson et al. (2018) view feedback as effective when student and teacher value and understand feedback, and learners are actively part of the feedback. Carless et al. (2011) also found that feedback holds the greatest potential for true learning when it is dialogic between teachers, learners, and their peers.

### ***Teacher Feedback as Scaffolded Instruction***

Because the goal of teacher feedback in this study is to create teacher-student dialogue that aids in development of writing ability, teachers must scaffold feedback, so it is appropriate for the individual student. Scaffolded feedback refers to the support provided by teacher expertise to help new learners achieve and internalize new learning (Lidz, 1991; Stone, 1993; Wood et al., 1976). Teacher feedback provides information on individual student progress (Noor et. al, 2010) as well as including suggestions for improvement, especially when students can compare their work to a model draft and identify strengths and weaknesses (Srichanyachon, 2012). The goal is for students to self-regulate after the instructor attempts to draw on students' skills so they can build new skills and then the instructor gradually withdraws support (Athaneses & Olievera, 2014). Viewing the student as an apprentice (Gee, 1996, 1999) allows a teacher to help students acquire the social practices of writing and academic language that are needed for entering the academic writing community as a confident member. Scaffolding is also a tool used in peer feedback because it can occur between peer groups and be considered collective scaffolding (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Donato, 1994). During the peer review process, students are not expected to

take over the teacher's role; instead, they act as agents where they can scaffold upon each other's skills and learning (Wakabayashi, 2013).

### ***Teacher Feedback as Conversation***

Research on student revision practices earned attention with Nancy Sommer's (1982) case-study of eight student writers and seven adult writers in which she found that the two groups differed in their approaches to revision. She had students rewrite compositions twice after suggested revisions. She then interviewed them three times. She found that younger students have a more operational process of revision, in which they make changes and can explain reasons, but have not yet created a theory of their own process. Older writers approached their first drafts as already being through revision through a "recursive" process. She concluded that there was no way to really know or understand how instructor comments made student writers better writers.

Responding to her first study on revision, Sommers headed the *Harvard Study of Undergraduate Writing*. The longitudinal study looked at four years of comments on student writing of 400 students. The investigators found that students rarely received feedback and were rarely required to revise. This study attempted to learn more about the importance of revision and the role it plays from the eyes of the student. Data collection included 520 hours of interviews, survey responses, and a subsample of 65 who were interviewed every semester with their writing from their present instructors. Ninety percent of the participants of the study asked that faculty give specific feedback. After this study, Sommers (2006) challenged her previous views that there is no way to know if a student's writing is shaped by instructor comments and instead viewed feedback as a transaction with students in which the instructor treats them as "apprentice scholars."

While composition scholars agree that feedback should be viewed as a conversation (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Englert et al., 1991; Sommers, 2006) where the writer has control of the product (Sprinkle, 2004), it is still not occurring in this manner and feedback is not usually collaborative but only provided from the viewpoint of the instructor (Still & Koerber, 2010). Englert et al. (1991) three-year study focused on the use of “talk” or an active conversation between students and teachers as an intervention. Findings showed that the dialogue between teacher-student and student-student improved students’ writing. Based on the findings of this study, Englert (1992) claimed that dialogic interactions helped develop cognitive skills in students’ Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) and that knowledge is attained through the social and cultural context. In a dialogic study of college students (Wiemelt, 2001) also found that discussion played a central role in the development of writing. In this case study of four students, discussion was found to help students to negotiate and re-negotiate the communitive aspects of their writing.

Viewing feedback as dialogue with an expert can help students reflect on their writing process without having to provide specific instruction (see MacDougall et al., 2013). When the teacher is viewed from the lens of the first reader or audience rather than evaluator, feedback becomes a dynamic and collaborative conversation about not only areas for improvement but how an audience will receive the work (Leki, 1990; Sperling, 1996). When teacher is viewed as the reader, students become more critical of their own work and become more independent in their process (Sadler, 2013). This dialogue can empower students by upsetting the power dynamics of the traditional classroom and letting students take control of their writing while they explore in a

supportive and safe environment (Torres et al., 2020). The position of the teacher makes them an important part of creating agency for students and helps them to create their identity as a writer (Fairclough, 2001). In this manner, teachers become partners with students and create trusting relationships (Charteris, 2016; Whipp et al., 1997).

Yet, even with these findings on the positive outcomes of dialogic feedback, a recent longitudinal study on writing development did not find being used in this manner. The researchers followed students through four years of university collecting 322 surveys, 131 interviews, 94 e-portfolios, and 2,406 pieces of writing (Gere, 2019). When reviewing the data through the lens of feedback, investigators found that a student's paper is viewed as successful if changes based on instructor feedback appear in the final draft, and often students did not agree with feedback and implementation does not mean understanding and learning (Wilson & Post, 2019). However, many students did attribute growth to instructor comments on papers while some attributed it to conversations about the paper with the instructor (Wilson & Post, 2019). Nicol (2010) argues that students are dissatisfied with feedback because of a lack of dialogue and counters objections that this type of feedback is too time consuming by suggesting that students direct teacher feedback. By providing questions on a cover page, students have agency and can let teachers know what parts of their paper they would like feedback on (Nicol, 2010). Studies have also found that perceptions of what is helpful feedback may be quite different from teacher and student viewpoints (e.g., Carless, 2006; Holmes & PapaGeorgiou, 2009; Price et al., 2010). This disconnect is especially troubling for students from under-resourced schools.



### ***Feedback and the Academically Underprepared Student***

Understanding how feedback is perceived is especially important when teaching academically underprepared students. These students may not have the academic background knowledge needed to understand the teacher's directions and often only make surface level changes that are provided in corrective feedback (line edits). Orsmond and Merry (2009) investigated the difference in feedback perceptions of college biology students. Using the interviews of 36 students from four different universities, the researchers identified a pattern among lower achieving biology students. These students focused on using feedback to figure out what the teacher wanted and had an increased dependency on the teacher (Orsmond & Merry, 2009). Because they have low prior knowledge, they may view feedback as a directive from the teacher that must be followed, even if they do not agree or understand (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Gulley, 2012).

Marginalized students often question whether they should be at the academy and are may not confident in their abilities compared to peers (Moss et al., 2014). When these students receive feedback, they are not only reflecting upon the feedback, but what the feedback says about them as a member of the academic community (Torres et al., 2020). When Sommers (2012) asked community college students how feedback from teachers made them feel, many expressed that it was difficult to decipher and made them question their abilities as college students. It is necessary for teachers to educate themselves on their students and not to assume students have the background necessary to fully understand feedback and revision (Lei et al., 2010). Underprepared students often question their place at the academy, and as a result of being unfamiliar with the revision

process, they may respond more emotionally than logically to feedback. However, this emotional component is essential to understanding how students may perceive feedback and then position themselves in the writing classroom.

Perun's (2015) qualitative phenomenological study provides insights into the difficulty this population faces as they transition into college writing classes. His findings revealed that students may not understand what is expected of them concerning writing feedback. College instructor's feedback was often overwhelming because it involved many different ideas for students to address in their revision process, a process that most students had not practiced in high school. Using a snowball sampling technique, the researcher followed three professors and 23 students at a diverse community college. Using Miles and Huberman's (1994) analytical induction process to compare findings, Perun (2015) identified that part of the gap between high school and college writing was the concept of revision. In addition to finding that the lack of rigor in high school did not prepare students, he found that 17 of the 23 students had never written an essay and the rest of the students had no process or did not understand the concept of revision.

Perun's findings are important because they highlight the idea that students not only do not know how to apply teachers' comments to revisions, but also that when they do, they were stalled by only revising exactly as expected (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Gulley, 2012; Orsmond & Merry, 2009; Perun, 2015; Taggart & Laughlin, 2017). Some studies have found that although teachers expect developmental students or second language students to want more explicit direction, they are often eager to receive more indirect feedback that allows them to have control over their own writing and facilitate their own learning (Bijami, et al., 2016; Calhoon-Dillahunt & Forrest, 2013).

### ***Student Perceptions of Teacher Feedback***

Studies of students' perceptions of writing feedback have found that students appreciate and value teacher feedback (e.g., Holmes & Papageorgiou, 2009; Lizzio & Wilson, 2008; Sommers, 2006; Wilson & Post, 2019). Higgins et al. (2002) found that although students view themselves as consumers of education and expect teachers to provide them with feedback, students wanted to engage with the teacher and valued more personal feedback. In order for feedback to be effective, students must trust and find their instructor credible (e.g., Poulos & Mahony, 2008). Researchers have also investigated the emotional component of students' perceptions of feedback, such as how it affects self-efficacy (Ekholm et al., 2015; Zumbrunn et al., 2016) and how its reflective process can affect self-perceptions (Torres et al., 2020). Another focus of feedback studies is how students' perceptions align with their response to feedback as shown in their revising process (e.g., Calhoon-Dillahunt, & Forrest, 2013; Song et al., 2017).

If the goal of feedback is to begin the revision conversation and move students toward self-efficacy, students must perceive teacher feedback as helpful. Unfortunately, students do not always perceive feedback as useful (Carless, 2006; Higgins et al., 2002) and often differ from their teachers in which types of feedback they find most effective (Mulliner & Tucker, 2017). Students may be able to find feedback more useful if they have reflective methods to understand it (Ducasse & Hill, 2019). Carless' (2006) highly cited mixed methods study focused on how student perceptions of feedback differed from the perceptions of what teachers found to be helpful. Using quantitative survey and qualitative methods, he collected data from 460 staff members and 1740 students from public universities in Hong Kong. Findings suggest that students valued feedback but did

not find it as useful to them as the teachers believed it was. Carless (2006) recommends dialogues to discuss the assessment process rather than writing down the specific issues on a paper. In a later essay on feedback, Carless (2016) explores the many ways to create dialogic feedback to help students use and apply teacher feedback.

Mulliner and Tucker's (2017) quantitative study utilizing surveys, also explored the difference between teacher and student perceptions of feedback. Analyzing frequencies and comparing the responses of students and teachers, they found that students viewed individualized written feedback to be the most effective form while teachers found that verbal feedback was the most effective way to deliver feedback. Yet, students did indicate a preference for verbal feedback, while staff preferred to give the written feedback. This contrast indicates that students may believe that individual written feedback is the most effective type of feedback, but they prefer to engage in a conversation with their teacher through the feedback process.

One way to engage with instructor feedback can be with reflection. Studying 50 students in their third semester of university-level Spanish, with an age range from 19-35, Ducasse and Hill, (2019), sought to learn more about the perception of the usefulness of feedback. The researchers used an intervention of "reflective feedback conversation." Ducasse and Hill (2019) found that students appreciate comprehensive feedback as long as it is clear and does not overwhelm the reader. The student-directed dialogic feedback provides direction for creating a collaborative situation where students have an opportunity to ask questions and engage with the specifics of the feedback they have received (Nicol, 2010). While academically underprepared students may feel less confident, this method can help empower them and provide agency.

However, it is difficult to help empower students when they have negative perceptions of teacher feedback. Taggart and Laughlin (2017) sought to find out which factors students identified as negative when receiving feedback. Their research questions focused on how students may feel pressured to shape their writing based on teacher feedback, thus conforming to a teacher's point of view and creating a work that is not aligned with their identity as a writer. They also sought to learn what specific scenarios may influence and cause a negative effect. Using a snowball sampling technique, they increased their nationwide sample ( $n=243$ ). The survey included open and closed questions that asked for responses from previous experiences. Many of these comments related to confusion, disrespect, and hierarchal issues. Responding to the negative perceptions, students expressed a desire for more independence and respect, and for instructors to clearly articulate feedback so students can follow directions. The study focused on the student experience and validated Sommers' concept of the apprentice-scholar relationship, which aims for respectful guidance rather than strictly top-down authority. While teacher feedback works to engage students in a conversation about writing, peer review begins with this established as its foundation.

### ***Student Perceptions of Peer Feedback***

Topping's seminal (1998) meta-analysis of peer review found that peers are effective teachers and are just as effective and sometimes better than teachers. Peer review allows members of the academic community to work together to solve the problems of composition. Peer review (Kroll, 2001) is defined as placing students in groups, having them read each other's papers, and then having them respond to each other's strengths and weaknesses. Peer review offers differing opinions and backgrounds

and creates a collaborative conversation about writing. Peer review allows students an opportunity to engage with their audience and actively collaborate from a place of equality (Atwell, 1987; Calkins, 1986). Like teacher feedback, peer feedback can provide suggestions and instruction that enables students to revise their work. It is often viewed as most beneficial to the student who receives the feedback, but it is also beneficial to the reviewer.

Studies have focused on investigating whether peer feedback is more beneficial to the reviewer or reviewee (e.g., Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Tsui & Ng, 2000), but not all have found that one of these roles is more beneficial (e.g., Huisman et al., 2018; Wakabayshi, 2013). Lundstrom and Baker's (2009) highly-regarded qualitative study of ninety-one second-language students from nine writing classes and two proficiency levels, investigated whether receiving feedback or giving feedback was effective in helping students revise. Split into two groups—givers and receivers of feedback—the researchers found that the givers made significant gains in their writing, more than those receiving feedback from a peer. However, the givers of feedback were given sample essays rather than student essays, which may have contributed to the gain. The results indicated that peer review had more value than just receiving feedback.

On the other hand, Wakabayshi's (2013) study of students at a Japanese university enrolled in writing classes divided participants into two groups—students of higher proficiency, who reviewed their own texts, and those of lower proficiency who reviewed peer's texts. She found that students who focused on revising their own papers had more significant gains in writing than those who conducted peer review. Huisman et al. (2018) compared the outcomes of undergraduates who had provided or received

anonymous feedback. Findings revealed that the impact of giving and receiving feedback was about the same. These studies all showed gains from peer feedback, but those gains did depend on student's perceptions of the value of this feedback.

When students view feedback through the lens of teacher as expert, they are less likely to incorporate peer suggestions into their revision process (Yang, 2006). This belief of teacher as the only expert can discourage students from adopting peer revisions due to their worry about grades and viewing the teacher as the authority (Ekşil, 2012). Peer review is an important learning tool in the writing classroom and can help students to develop their identities as academic writers in a manner that can be perceived as less threatening. College level studies of peer review, (e.g., Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Liu & Carless, 2006) reveal that although most students benefit from taking part in the peer review process, they are concerned about whether it is fair and correct, and often students do not feel comfortable taking part in the process.

Students' perceptions of their peers can also influence the outcome of peer review (e.g., Dijks et al., 2018; Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Strijbos et al., 2010). Studying the gap between the perception of reviewer and reviewee experiences, Dijks et al. (2018) found that the reviewee's perceptions of the ability of their peer influenced whether or not they would make suggested changes to their paper. In an attempt to alleviate the peer pressure and discomfort that results from this process, the researchers kept the peer review anonymous, as this has been found to increase student participation and more critical responses (Lu & Bol, 2007; Raes, et al., 2015; Vickerman, 2009). By keeping the reviewer anonymous, the student would only have their own perception of the level of expertise of their peer. Using multilevel regression analysis to analyze the relationship

between perceptions of the perceived ability level of the reviewer and the perceptions of the feedback, they found that when reviewers perceived themselves as having expertise, students felt that feedback was strong, and if they feel that the reviewer is at the same level as they are in expertise, they are also more likely to incorporate changes.

Students do respond differently based on ability levels (Patchan & Schunn, 2015). Patchan and Schunn's (2015) study to determine why students ( $n=186$ ) learn from feedback found that students of higher writing ability provided more criticism and instruction on how to improve writing while lower reviewers provided more praise. Also, students of higher ability were able to distinguish between higher and lower quality writing while lower-achieving writers did not. This study focused on writing, but participants were members of a psychology class. It does reveal that the importance and knowledge of writing ability affects success in all disciplines. For peer review to work for academically underprepared writers, students must be provided with instruction in the class criteria and how to conduct a peer review.

Wichman, Funk, and Rummel (2018) investigated how to aid less experienced writers with sense-making support when reading comments from peer review and saw that this increased feedback uptake. Falichok and Goldfinch (2000) conducted a quantitative analysis of 48 studies on peer assessment and found that student judgment was much like teachers when students understood the assessment criteria. Hovardas et al. (2014) found that students perceived expert feedback as more valuable than that of their peers, but that students often drew from their peers' feedback when revising their writing.

The perceptions of peer and teacher feedback have also been studied at the college level. Ekşı (2012) investigated how feedback from peer review compared to the



feedback from the teacher; she also investigated how peer review might alleviate teacher labor. Students were grouped into two groups--one using peer feedback and one using teacher-guided feedback for paper revisions. Using frequency counts, Ekşî was surprised to find that writing quality improved in about the same way in each group. She found that peer review can be a successful replacement for teacher feedback in lessening the load for teachers.

Because students can often feel that peer review is not helpful, they may have a negative association with the classroom tool. An action research study from a sociocultural perspective, Barnard et al. (2015) wanted to learn how instructor and student perceptions of peer feedback differed and how this could influence classroom practice. The mixed methods study was conducted over one semester at a New Zealand university. The investigators found that both teacher and student perceptions of peer review supported the belief that their skills improved over time. These positive views are not always the case.

Some instructors may view peer review as a way to grade papers, which makes the stakes much higher and can lead to a negative effect. For example, Kaufmann and Schunn (2011) conducted a study with 250 students in ten courses among six universities. Findings were based upon an end-of-course survey for students using the SWORD online peer assessment program. Students submitted their drafts electronically and they were then given to five students anonymously. Classes were divided into two groups--one where the instructor did no grading and one group where the instructor took peer review into consideration and graded alongside peers. The researchers did an in-depth study of perceptions and revisions of 84 students. They found that students in conditions where

the instructor graded alongside the peers had more positive perceptions of peer review while students who were graded by peers felt that grade was unfair because they believed peers were unqualified to assess them. Their perceptions of fairness dropped greatly; this is understandable as university students still expect to be assessed by their teachers and gain from their expertise. The findings may not be realistic as most instructors would not allow peer review grades to take precedent over their own grading. However, the study did identify a gap between student perceptions and how they influence performance.

### ***Aligning Revision Changes with Perceptions of Feedback***

Although the goal of feedback is to create conversations with peers and teachers in order to improve one's writing, changes are not always implemented in the final drafts. Li and De Luca's (2014) review of feedback assessment literature found that although much research was focused on student's perceptions of feedback, very few studies followed through to see what changes were implemented. Song et al. (2017) corpus-based exploratory study of student writing ( $n=41$ ) explored whether or not students implemented teacher feedback focusing on the grading criteria of language and style, rhetorical situation, and format (Song et al., 2017). Students focused the most on rhetorical situations and this indicates that students perceived improving the larger global issues in their writing as more important than surface-level mechanics of writing.

Few studies follow through on aligning perceptions of feedback usefulness with changes in drafts or revisions. The following two studies were instrumental in framing the current study and are therefore discussed in more detail. First, Calhoon-Dillahunt and Forrest (2013) created a pilot study responding to Sommers's (2006) findings that feedback is the central factor in determining the way students learn to write. While

participants in Sommers's (2006) study were students at Harvard, Calhoon-Dillahunt and Forrest (2013) focused their study on student responses to teacher feedback on developmental or academically underprepared writing students at a community college.

The researchers believed that, unlike Sommers's Harvard study, these developmental writers would want more directive feedback and would unquestionably accept the instructor's commentary. To understand student perceptions of teacher feedback, the researchers created two questionnaires—one administered at the beginning of the semester and then again at the end of the semester. It measured students' affective responses and preferences for feedback. The other questionnaire titled "Thinking about the Instructor Feedback" asked students to respond directly to teacher comments they received on their papers. The researchers interviewed about a quarter of these students about responses to the feedback. The researchers were surprised to learn that this population had the same expectations of feedback as Sommers had found in her Harvard study.

Student interviews, in which students read papers aloud, however, indicated that students did not understand the marginal comments and often did not even read them. In other words, they may read comments separately, but not in the context of the paper in order to apply corrections. They did not see these notes as conversation with their instructors. Finally, the researchers attempted to align the feedback and types of comments that students felt were useful and planned to implement in their work. Students had noted that they had found the end comments rather than the marginal comments the most helpful in their papers, yet the revisions in the 92 essays they analyzed revealed that students only used end comments that addressed global changes half of the time, and

made more corrections for marginal comments and editing. This may suggest that students find the marginal notes easier and quicker to respond to but appreciate the personal response to their writing that comes at the end. These researchers believe that teacher comments can validate students' experience in college and make them a part of the academic writing community. The study did not use any statistical measures to validate the questionnaire responses or any coding process for the qualitative findings. It is one of the few studies that attempts to align perceptions to implementation of changes.

Wu and Schunn (2020) also did a study on aligning feedback perceptions to the changes made in student papers. But this study focused on peer feedback and how students' perceptions of that feedback affected the likeliness of this feedback being implemented. The study collected data from 185 high school students from ages 16-19 years old who were enrolled in an Advanced Placement writing class (AP Language and Composition). The study included 60 students from low-performing schools that served lower income families. The other 125 students came from school systems that served middle and high income families. Students used the program Peerceptiv (this program had been previously titled SWORD), an online peer review program. Feedback perception was measured by responses to peer review and double-coded according to whether students understood the problem or agreed. Researchers used three sets of regression analysis to test relationships between feedback features, perceptions, and implementation to find out what made those relationships between the three.

Although the study was one of the most comprehensive in an attempt to align the perception of feedback—agreement and understanding—it was mostly correlational, and participants were high school students. However, it is important to look at learner

characteristics to get a clearer picture of how feedback perceptions influence implementation choices. The findings that Title 1 students are less likely to implement feedback than those from non-title 1 schools indicated a need for further research. Although a percentage of students were from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, all were AP writing students, which may have affected the results because they must be strong writers to be enrolled in the course. Also, using an anonymous peer review system does not contribute to the idea that peer feedback is collaborative.

The studies chosen for this literature review provide insight into the development of the present study. Understanding the findings on effective feedback, students' perceptions of peer and teacher feedback and the needs of the academically underprepared helped design a study geared for this population. Although there are many studies on feedback, few of these studies deal with both how students perceive feedback and how those perceptions result in the implementation of feedback suggestions. The research clearly shows a gap concerning learner characteristics and perceptions of feedback, most specifically the perceptions of developmental or academically underprepared students and feedback uptake.

The present study attempts to fill the gap in the research by working with a small sample of students in a stretch program in a public university. These first-year students are part of the university's Equal Opportunity Fund (EOF) program for students from underserved schools. This study attempts to follow closely the way students make changes between drafts and what influences students to make these changes. The data collected will provide insights on not only how students respond to instructor and peer

feedback, but also on how those perceptions align with the changes they make between drafts, viewing implementation as agreement and understanding (Wu & Schunn, 2020).

## CHAPTER 3

### Methods and Procedures

Most FYW classes are conducted as writing workshops. Using the writing workshop model (Calkins, 1994; Graves & Kittle, 2005), the teacher creates a student-centered framework where learners work together as a community to improve their writing. Although focused on the writer as opposed to the process, the cognitive process of writing (Flowers & Hayes, 1981) still frames writers' development. This process includes generating ideas, planning, reviewing, and revising. In a community of writers, each step of this process is shared with peers and teachers in a collaborative manner that includes peer and teacher feedback. Most FYW instructors rely on the laborious practice of providing feedback to students to help direct their revision process and their development as writers. Peer review assignments are designed with the expectation that the feedback provided will help students revise their papers (Topping, 1998).

Relying on assumptions on how students use feedback may result in missed teaching opportunities. Like many students who have learned to write in high-stakes testing environments, academically underprepared students may have limited experience with participating in workshop classes, creating multiple drafts, using academic language specific to writing or interpreting feedback (Fanetti et al., 2010).

This study attempts to learn more about this population's perceptions of both teacher and peer feedback by answering the following research questions:

1. What are academically underprepared students' perceptions of peer and teacher feedback as tools for revision?

2. What feedback features do students feel are most beneficial to their revision processes?
3. What changes appear between student drafts that are linked to types of feedback given--peer and teacher feedback?

### **Research Design**

A mixed methods action research design (MMAR) was utilized to collect and analyze the data. Quantitative and qualitative measures were collected according to the explanatory sequential research design methodology with the goal of informing practice and creating an action plan. Creswell (2015) defines explanatory sequential design as a means to study a problem “by beginning with a quantitative strand to both collect and analyze data, and then to conduct qualitative research to explain the quantitative results” (p. 37). Using both methods will enable the practitioner to use data to come to more credible conclusions (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). The quantitative strand of this study measures the perceptions of feedback, including whether students understand feedback, view feedback as useful or whether they implement it in their work. The qualitative methods used in this study include open-ended survey items, teacher and peer feedback, student evaluation of peer reviews, student interviews, and student papers. The merging of the data will link how students’ perceptions of feedback are aligned with the changes they make between drafts. In this way, mixed methods help to establish credibility and relevance, which makes it a strong research approach for action research (Lingard et al., 2008).

Action research can be defined as a teacher or group of teachers who attempt to improve their practice by identifying and analyzing teacher problems and studying them



as a way to gain knowledge and in turn use that knowledge to better one's practice (Calhoun, 1994; Corey, 1953; Glickman, 1992). Action research "seeks to bring together action and reflection, theory and practice, in participation with others, in the pursuit of practical solutions to issues of pressing concern to people" (Reason & Bradbury, 2008, p. 4). With the goal of creating an action plan, this approach seeks to identify what is working through the collection of knowledge from multiple sources of evidence, based both on experience and more scientific knowledge (Ivankova & Wingo, 2018). Action research often includes a quantitative component that measures internal and external factors related to the topic of study while including a qualitative dimension that seeks to understand the participants' motivations, which, in turn, helps to create a more effective action plan (Martí, 2016).

Because this study aims to understand how students perceive and use feedback based on their particular experiences, it is grounded in the constructivist worldview (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). This worldview proposes that context is vital to understanding and that the researchers' and participants' interactions influence the findings (Kivunja & Kiyuni, 2017). Researchers interpret data through the lens of their relationships with the participants (Punch, 2005). In this way, researchers learn about how an individual's experiences influence the way people make meaning and engage in their studies (Crotty, 1998).

This study follows the basic steps of action research—identify the topic, collect data, analyze data, and create an action plan based on results (Padak & Padak, 2001). My goal for this study was to collect data in my professional setting to understand how students perceive and use writing feedback as a tool for revision. Upon the basis of the

findings, I created an action plan for the most effective way to help academically underprepared writers accelerate their learning.

### **Curriculum Overview**

I conducted this study during the second of the two introductory academic courses for FYW students. The course, College Writing II, is the second in the sequence and described to students as one that explores different genres of literature through discussion, creative response, analysis, multimodal creations, and film. The class is based on creating a community of writers where students can sharpen composing skills and develop and grow as writers. The course is a four-credit course that differs from the traditional three-credit because it includes an extra 50 minutes of instruction each week. The extra time models the stretch program approach (Glau, 2007) in which developmental writers are provided the same text and materials as the non-developmental class but are provided additional time to complete course work.

The additional time stretches instruction and provides an opportunity for additional feedback and one-on-one instruction and replaces the developmental course, which was once part of the sequence for academically underprepared students. Many students who take the four-credit course are not from under-resourced schools, but they may be second language learners, students with writing disabilities, or students seeking extra help. For this study, I focused on two classes of EOF (Equal Opportunity Fund) students, who are part of a program for students from schools with marginalized populations.

In order to understand the goals of this FYW course, the objectives for the course as well as assessment criteria are included. Table 1 provides the course objectives and

description as they appear in the syllabus. The objectives describe what the students can expect to learn and hopefully master during the class. Table 2 includes a description of course assessment criteria that is also considered the departmental rubric for all general education writing courses, which includes courses in the stretch program and courses in the presidential scholars' program (those students who have been recognized for academic excellence). The department also provides grading criteria that is the same for all three levels. Currently, Writing Studies has the largest rate of W/D/F (withdrawals and grades of D and F) of the general education courses. The department is currently revising its syllabus and grading breakdown in an effort to lower that rate. I have not included descriptions of A-F papers as they are not directly relevant to the study.

**Table 1**

*Course Objectives for College Writing II*

Objective	Description
Critical reading and writing about diverse and interdisciplinary texts	Students will learn to read and write critically using a range of texts that represent diverse interdisciplinary approaches to and theories of knowledge-making
Writing and analysis of disciplinary genres	Students will gain familiarity with writing in multiple genres and disciplines and will develop the ability to interpret and analyze a diverse range of texts.
Writing Process	Students will understand and be able to execute the key elements of a writing process: a series of rigorous, thoughtful revisions which re-imagine and rework any—and likely all—of the key criteria of good writing.
Close Reading	Students will be able to demonstrate an ability to closely read text (i.e., be attentive to finer details of content, argument, rhetorical moves, audience, social/cultural/historical context, and reader/author assumptions), through analytical writing that draws on these skills of close reading to advance their own arguments.

Citation & Referencing	Students will be able to appropriately document and integrate external research into their writing, and be familiar with an appropriate, professional style of citation.
------------------------	--

**Table 2***First Year Writing Assessment Criteria*

Assessment Criteria	Description
Central Claim	The central claim is a debatable, complex stance or position that establishes your argument for an intended audience. Your high school teacher might have called this a “thesis statement.” You should further explore, support, and advance the central claim or “set of ideas” throughout the composition (the word “composition” represents an essay or multimodal project). The central claim is the foundation upon which you build the essay or multimodal project and which you use to drive the discussion forward. Successful compositions consistently demonstrate attention to and focus on the central claim.
Development	An effective argumentative essay or multimodal project integrates evidence and analysis into an extended discussion that engages in sustained and expanded conversation. Effective development uses examples and evidence from other writers, primary and outside sources, scholarly and popular research, anecdotes, and lived experience. Effective development means going beyond listing examples by exploring the implications of the central claim and taking your audience through the building of your ideas.
Analysis	Analysis is the innovative heart of a composition where you synthesize the connections and relationships between texts, ideas, evidence, and the central claim. Analysis explores and answers the questions “So what?” or “How?” or “Why?” These questions push you as the writer to offer reasons for the connections between ideas and available supporting evidence. The most successful analysis affirms and furthers the central claim by demonstrating its complexity and significance.
Organization	Two main criteria define organization: (1) a core argument that is presented consistently throughout the essay and (2) sub-claims, supported by logically connected and structured paragraphs, that move through the argument as it is developed and substantiated. The organizational logic of a

	composition relies on a series of sub-claims designed to support and advance the central claim. The composition moves from one sub-claim into another in a cohesive way. You may have in the past used the word “flow” to describe this movement and cohesiveness. With good “flow” the progression of ideas makes sense to readers as they follow your argument. In a composition with effective organization, each sub-claim builds on what comes before it and transitions smoothly to the next in a logical progression.
Clarity of Prose	A successful essay demonstrates clarity of prose, which requires proficiency with English grammar, usage, and mechanics, as well as MLA formatting and citations. Such proficiency may also involve varied sentence structure, accurate word choices, and careful proofreading that serve the rhetorical purpose you are exploring.

### Sample and Population

The convenience sample in this study are students ( $N=48$ ) in two sections of a first-year general education course. The course is a part of a four-credit stretch program for developing writers. The students in these two classes are part of the university’s EOF (Equal Opportunity Fund) program. The program provides access to higher education for high-achieving students from underrepresented populations that meet income criteria. These students come from under-resourced schools and take part in a summer academy to help them transition to the university. The program includes the first semester of college writing that most freshmen take in the fall semester. The summer program condenses the class from 16 weeks into five weeks. The students in the fall course, were first-semester freshman, but were taking the second of the general education sequence. Students took the first course during the summer of 2020 when due to public health issues, the class was only offered in an online version. The EOF program decided that all fall semester courses would be held online. Table 3 shows the demographic make-up of the students who responded to the survey.

**Table 3***Demographics of Survey Respondents*

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Age		
17-19	26	9.7
20-22	3	10.3
Gender		
Male	6	20.7
Female	23	79.3
Ethnicity		
African American	8	27.6
Hispanic or Latino	17	58.6
Asian	2	6.9
White	1	3.4
Other	1	3.4

*Note.* *n*=29

**Table 4***Demographics of Focal Students*

	Characteristic			
	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Reported Feedback Experience
Student 1	17-19	Female	Hispanic/Latina	Low
Student 2	17-19	Female	Asian	Moderate
Student 3	17-19	Female	Hispanic/Latina	Low
Student 4	17-19	Female	African American	Moderate
Student 5	17-19	Male	Other	Low
Student 6	17-19	Male	African American	Moderate

Table 4 includes the demographics of the focal students (*n*=6) who were interviewed. Focal students were chosen by their survey responses and feedback

experiences as described during student interviews. The perspectives of students who had reported less writing feedback experience in high school, on the survey, and in the interviews, were best able to inform this study concerning how the lack of preparation may have affected their college experiences with writing feedback.

Each of the focal students chosen, like the majority of the students in this course, attended high schools in marginalized communities. According to the data collected for the Public School Review database, five of the students attended high schools performing in the bottom 50% of schools. One student attended an inner-city school that was in the top 20% with a minority enrollment of 87% and 87% free or reduced lunch. One student attended a school in the bottom 50%, but with a 49% minority population and 53% free or reduced lunch rate. The other schools attended were in the bottom 50% with minority rates of approximately 95% and free and reduced lunch between 68% and 78%.

### **Research Site**

The research site is a diverse state university in Northern New Jersey. The university has a total enrollment of 16,988 (89% full-time students and 11% part-time). The self-identified gender make-up is 61% female and 39% male. The university does have the distinction of being a Hispanic Serving Institution with 29% of the student body being Hispanic/Latino. The remainder of the student body includes the following 13% African American/Black, 6% Asian, 40% White, 3% two or more races, and 6% unknown. There is also a 2% population of non-resident alien. In 2018, 14,324 students applied. Accepted candidates comprised 71% of those applications and 31% enrolled. The first year undergraduates were ranked in the 65<sup>th</sup> percentile of their classes with an average GPA of 3.2 and combined SAT scores of 974.

## **Data Collection and Analysis**

After gaining IRB approval, a colleague in the Writing Studies department electronically distributed and collected permission forms for student consent to use data collected during our class. Student identities were unavailable until the end of the semester to ensure there will be no teacher bias concerning grading or treatment of students. Students were able to opt in or opt out of any part of the process. In addition, video and audio permission was requested for Zoom interviews. With the exception of the survey and interview, all data collected for this study was part of regular class procedures and not interventions. As a result of Covid-19, the class was held online synchronously. All data was collected online through Canvas, Google Docs, and Zoom.

### ***Phase 1: Quantitative Data Collection (Stage 1).***

**Procedures.** The first phase of the MMAR was the quantitative phase of the explanatory sequential design. Students were administered the survey on perceptions of feedback towards the end of the first month of the course. Distributing at this time enabled students to adjust to the college environment and allowed time to form a relationship of trust with the instructor. It also allowed me to model the process of peer review as well as gave students time to adjust to a new teacher and my expectations for feedback and revision. The survey was designed using Qualtrics Survey Software and was distributed to students during their regular class period. Using Qualtrics provided me with initial summaries of data, which I then exported to SPSS for statistical analysis. I explained to students the purpose of the survey, which is to help me design and improve my practice, so they understood that it would not affect their grades in any manner. The



survey was not anonymous. The statistical information provided in the survey was used as a guide when choosing the focal student for interviews.

**Instrument.** The survey tool was designed to measure students' perceptions of teacher and peer feedback. These perceptions include questions about students' experiences with teacher and peer feedback, negative or positive associations with feedback, whether they understand feedback, and whether they are likely to implement it. The question design was influenced and based on the work of Marrs (2016), Rowe and Wood (2008), and Calhoon-Dillahunt and Forrest (2013) who developed survey tools to measure perceptions of feedback. The survey tool also includes questions related to the types of feedback students find most effective (e.g., teacher feedback, peer feedback, marginal comments, end comments, etc.). The survey uses a 5-point Likert scale for measurement, with agreement at the high end of the scale, and includes open-ended items that offer room for explanations of perceptions. It is divided into four sections—background information, affect, improvement strategies, and benefits. The survey was distributed using the Qualtrics Survey platform (see Appendix B).

**Background Information.** This section of the survey required students to answer questions about their writing experience in high school. It includes questions on drafting and the types of feedback received during high school. This information helped me ascertain the level of understanding and experience students had with the process before joining my class. The background information assured me that students knew what to do with writing feedback and understand the revision process (Perun, 2015) Although students took College Writing I and experienced using feedback for revision during the

course, the course took place during an abbreviated summer session, and it was important to learn if it had been some students' first experience with the revision process.

***Affect.*** Social psychologists see affect as a component of attitude and define it as the feeling that an “attitude object (person, activity, physical object) arouses” (Hogg et al., 2010, p. 668). This block of seven survey items (1-7) measures students' positive and negative perceptions of writing feedback. These questions focus on overall associations with receiving feedback from teachers and peers, such as feeling motivated, viewing themselves as bad writers and feeling pressured to use all teacher feedback. It also measures students' understanding of feedback and comfort level giving and getting peer feedback.

***Improvement Strategies.*** In this block of five survey items (8-12), students' perceptions of feedback to improve their writing is measured. Students were asked to rate the effectiveness of feedback features in helping them improve their writing—marginal comments, end comments, praise, and problem-solution-based feedback. The items focus on the perceived usefulness of these comments and whether or not students believe that feedback improves their writing.

***Benefit.*** This block of five survey items (13-17) measured the perceived benefits of feedback. For this section, benefit can be defined as what students perceived as valuable to their revision process. The items focus on the perceived usefulness of personalized feedback, teacher and peer feedback, and the perception of feedback as a conversation.

Because this study is action research based on my classes and knowledge, the survey questions were based on what I believed would best inform my practice. To

ensure that the survey is measuring perceptions, I tested for validity. First, to check for content validity, I shared the survey with the Department Chair of Writing Studies, the Director of FYW, and the Associate Director of FYW. To check for construct validity, the survey was distributed to another four-credit College Writing II course that was not involved in the study. Statistical testing was conducted to ensure internal reliability, and high reliability was found.

**Tracking of Revision Changes.** Student revision changes based on teacher and peer feedback were tracked during the drafting process for the second class essay (see Appendix C).

**Teacher Feedback.** Teacher comments included marginal comments and end comments. Comments included points for deep revision (claim, organization, analysis, development, and organization) and surface level comments (clarity and MLA issues). Each end comment began with positive feedback stating student strengths and provided two to three suggestions for deep revision. In viewing feedback as conversation, I asked students to respond to my comments in the Google Doc if they had further questions on how to make revisions. Data was collected by examining highlighted changes, Google Doc history, and re-reading, final drafts of student papers were checked to see whether or not feedback was implemented. This material was coded and prepared for statistical analysis.

**Peer Feedback.** Due to Covid-19 related restrictions, the peer review component took place using Google Docs, Canvas, and Zoom break out groups. Students took part in two mini-peer reviews—one focusing on writing openings and closings and the other on integrating research, which were conducted on Canvas and students were assigned by the

computer. Students were given task sheets for these peer reviews (see Appendices D and E). The first mini-peer review followed modeling and instruction on the writing structure of introductions and conclusions. Students then exchanged introductions and conclusions from their drafts with peers. They used a task sheet that required students to identify specific elements of a strong introduction and conclusion that had been reviewed in class, such as identifying the hook for an introduction or synthesis of key elements in the conclusion, in their peer's paper. The second mini-peer review followed the same format, but it occurred after an assignment in which students followed steps for integrating research into their writing. Using a task sheet, they also provided peer feedback on whether or not their peer had followed the steps for integrating and analyzing research from outside sources. Students were urged to provide suggestions for revision based on their evaluations. For a lengthier peer review based on the entire essay (5-6 pages), students were assigned a peer with a similar topic, shared their papers on Google Docs, and met in breakout rooms. This peer review also included a task sheet (see Appendix F). This task sheet included questions specific to each aspect of the FYW criteria, such as identifying a claim and checking body paragraphs to make sure that each one focused on one specific idea. Students were then asked to provide two commendations and two recommendations for revision. I used those recommendations to track changes from this more complete peer review and used any implementable comments from the mini-peer reviews.

Changes were coded during the qualitative stage and then analyzed using SPSS. Students also completed three Qualtrics survey exit tickets for each peer review (see Appendices G and H). This brief survey consisted of three statements measured on a

seven-point Likert scale. The items asked students if student comments were helpful, if they would use revision comments, and if they understood comments. The seven-point scale was employed as it provided more gradations in response because students made choices whether or not to use all or some of comments (Joshi et al., 2015).

***Preference for Feedback.*** The third open-ended question on the survey required students to include a preference for teacher or peer feedback. This information was coded and tracked for statistical analysis.

### ***Quantitative Data Analysis (Stage 2)***

**Survey Responses.** The survey was distributed during the fifth week of school and then a second time at the end of the semester. Qualtrics provided summaries of the information from the survey, which I then exported as SPSS worksheets. After cleaning the data, I used SPSS to analyze frequency distribution statistics and descriptive statistics. Measures of central tendencies provided me with a general idea of the distribution of responses and whether the majority of student responses were on the high end or low end of the scale. These descriptive statistics provided a snapshot of the information about the sample and provided me with an initial understanding of perceptions. Instead, frequency distributions provided the core understanding of the quantitative data. Organizing frequency distributions into tables allowed me to summarize data in a clear and concise manner, and detect and investigate outliers (Lavrakas, 2008). More important, studying frequency distributions allowed me to better understand and gain insights into the sample as individuals. For this reason, outliers provided important information and were included in data analysis.

Because students completed both a presurvey and a postsurvey, I compared the data from both surveys to see if there was a significant statistical difference between any items. The goal of administering the survey a second time was not to measure the effect of an intervention but to see if samples' perception of feedback had significantly changed over the course of the semester. There is always the possibility that students may respond with what they believe the teacher wants to hear, or they may not have understood the question during the first time they responded. The statistical analysis was limited to the students who had taken both surveys. Using SPSS, I used a paired samples t-test to compare the data from the presurvey and postsurvey to see if any of the variables had changed significantly.

**Revision Changes.** Once feedback was coded, it was prepared for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics and frequencies were used to summarize findings from tracking revision changes.

**Teacher Feedback.** After changes between drafts were tracked and coded as described in the qualitative data analysis section, frequency distribution statistical analysis was then completed. The analysis provided an understanding of the frequency of the type of teacher comments—end comments or marginal comment—that were implemented, not implemented, attempted to be implemented, and implemented once but not followed through in student papers. Data concerning deep revision (claim, organization, analysis, development, and organization) and surface level changes (clarity and MLA issues) were also tracked.

**Peer Feedback.** After changes were tracked and coded as described in the qualitative data analysis section, frequency distribution statistical analysis was completed

to learn the percentage of peer review comments that were implemented. The data from the peer review exit surveys was run through SPSS to learn measures of central tendencies as well as the frequency in which students agreed or disagreed with the items measured.

***Preference for Feedback.*** As student open-ended responses were read and coded, responses indicating preferences for peer or teacher feedback or viewing both equally was tracked separately for presurvey and postsurvey. This information was submitted for frequency distribution for analysis using SPSS.

### ***Phase 2: Qualitative Data Collection (Stage 1)***

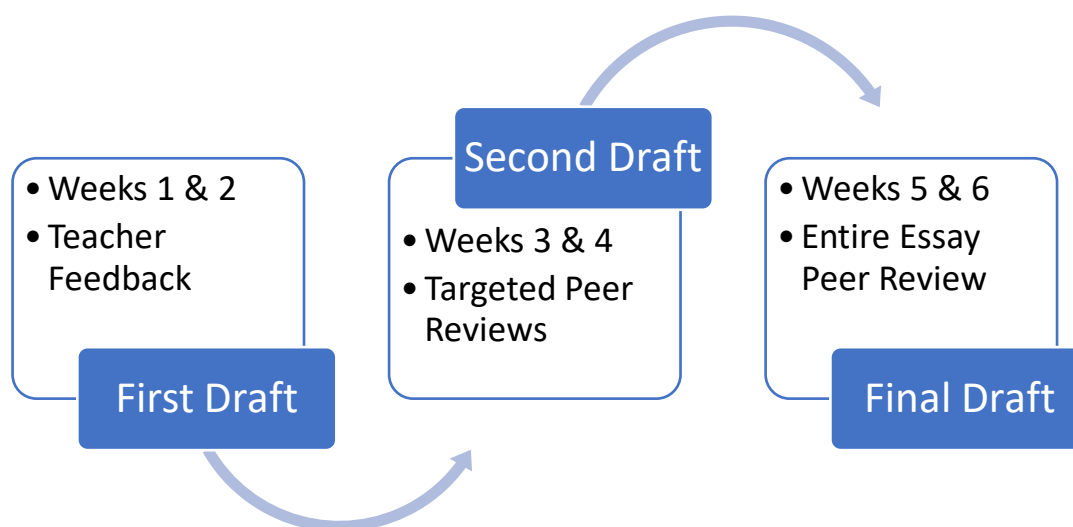
The qualitative phase of this research design will focus on one module of the writing course, open-ended survey responses, and interviews of six focal students. This phase occurred during the second module of the semester to ensure that students understood the revision process and how to use teacher feedback and participate in peer review. This understanding included the expectations that students use feedback to help guide their revisions. The goal of the module is to write a four- to five-page literary analysis paper. Each student wrote three drafts and received teacher feedback on the first draft and peer feedback on the second draft. Because of Covid-19 related restrictions, all written work was done in Google Docs, and interviews were conducted and recorded using Zoom. These interviews were conducted during a student writing conference in which, with permission, I conducted and taped interviews on feedback.

**Assignment.** For this module, students completed a literary analysis paper using a critical lens to focus their analysis (see Appendix C). The assignment required students to use the primary literary text as well as a minimum of two additional sources to provide

evidence and strengthen their interpretations. Students began the module with course readings, and then we unpacked the writing prompt and used class discussion to brainstorm ideas. The module spanned six weeks with approximately two weeks between drafts. The first draft of the student paper only included the primary source as evidence and received teacher feedback. This draft also included students' claims and initial analysis and organization. The second draft included a revised introduction and conclusion and evidence for other sources that further supported students' claims. Students were instructed to highlight all changes between drafts. See Figure 1 for the timeline.

**Figure 1**

*Writing Module Timeline*



**Student Drafts.** Student drafts and recorded changes are the evidence that feedback is working. Although Google Docs kept a record between drafts, students were also required to highlight any changes made. Revisions were coded according to whether they were responses to marginal, end comments, or surface or deep revisions. Surface level revisions are grammatical changes, proofreading changes, or MLA formatting



changes. Deep revisions included rewrites that reflect attention to global issues, such as organization, claim, development, and analysis.

**Open-ended Survey Items.** The presurvey and postsurvey included three open-ended items that provided students with the opportunity to expand upon their answers. The presurvey was administered during the fifth week of class, and the postsurvey was administered at the end of the semester. The three questions asked students how they felt when they received peer and teacher feedback, how they used writing feedback to help them revise, and whether they found peer or teacher feedback more helpful.

**Interviews.** Six focal students were chosen to be interviewed. Because I was unable to know student identities while being their teacher and evaluator, I chose to interview all students during their writing conferences. Every student is required to meet with me over the course of the semester to discuss their paper. At the beginning of each conference, I asked students if it was okay for me to audiotape our meeting using my iPhone. Students often forget what takes place during our conferences, and I sent them the audio file at the end so they could review our discussion. At the end of those conferences, I asked students whether or not they would answer a few questions for me on feedback and explained that I would like to use their responses in my research. If they consented, which all students did, we continued with a semi-structured interview. Most interviews lasted about ten minutes.

Although I had originally planned on choosing students based solely on survey results, I found that learning more about their feedback experiences and then choosing students was a more efficient method of identifying focal students. As a result of Covid-19, this semester was extremely challenging for many students, and many were unable to

keep up with the class as they may have done in an on-campus version. Progress was interrupted by illness, loss of loved ones, poor Wi-Fi, and financial problems. The six students I chose were highly representative of the population having attended high schools with large minority populations and high rates of reduced or free lunch rates. As members of the university's EOF program, they had been accepted into the university program because they were high performers from marginalized schools. The students consisted of four young women and two young men. This combination accurately represented the ratio of gender in the two classes (32 females, 14 males). The two young men were excellent candidates for the interviews, but they were also the only two young men who attended a conference. Students represented different levels of feedback experience with three students having received some feedback in high school and three students receiving no writing feedback in high school. After interviewing many students, these students were chosen from those who had given permission because their interviews best articulated the views on feedback that had also been presented by other class members.

The interviews were semi-structured to allow for participants to fully express themselves and to allow for themes to surface that may not be direct answers to the interview questions. The interview questions (see Appendix H) focused on how students perceive "good" and "bad" feedback, how they determine what feedback to use, their opinions of feedback as conversation or suggestions, and peer review. Students led the discussions and often chose other related topics to discuss.

I listened to audio recordings of interviews several times as I transcribed student interviews, repeatedly listening and stopping to make sure students' exact words were represented. Identifying material was removed and stored in a password-protected file.

### ***Qualitative Data Analysis (Stage 2)***

**Coding.** The qualitative data from tracked revision changes, open-ended survey items, and focal student interviews was coded using various methods. Because coding is considered the “critical link” between data and meaning (Charmaz, 2001), each section of the data (feedback and each open-ended items) was coded using a different method that helped explain meaning as guided by the research questions (Saldaña, 2016).

Coding for all qualitative data was approached through a sociocultural lens in which a student's background is considered a major factor in the development of literacy (Prior, 2005) and writing is viewed as a social practice because it takes place in sociocultural contexts (Halliday, 1978; Heath, 1983; Gee, 1999; Scribner & Cole, 1981). Through this lens, I reviewed student transcripts and responses with an awareness of each student's position in the classroom, perceptions of feedback as dialogic (Englert et al. 1991; Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Sommers, 2006), views of writing as a social event (Cole, 1996; Engeström, 2014), and feedback as a scaffolding tool in which teacher is mentor and expert and student is apprentice (Gee, 1996, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991).

***Open-ended Survey Responses.*** Before coding, I combined the responses from the presurvey and postsurvey. I did an initial reading and noted any significant differences between the two for further analysis. Then, I conducted first-cycle coding. For all open-ended survey questions, I began with line-by-line In Vivo Coding. This

method of splitting the data may be considered more trustworthy because it “reduces the likelihood of imputing your motives, fears, or unresolved personal issues to your respondents and to your collected data” (Charmaz, 2008, p. 94). This approach is especially important in an action research study where the investigator is also the teacher. I chose In Vivo Coding because students’ words “prioritize the participant’s voice” (Saldaña, 2016, p.106). Giving marginalized students a voice in this process enabled me to shape my research and findings on students’ perspectives rather than only interpreting through my lens and experiences. Doing so, provided me insight “into their cultures and worldviews” (Saldaña, 2016, p.106). Using students’ own words was also important to me to show respect for their ideas and include them in the decisions being made about them. Students conduct highly literate lives outside of school (Jocson, 2010; MacGillivray & Curwen, 2007; Moje, 2008; Scribner & Cole, 1981) and often their abilities are not appreciated or given the same value as institutionalized ideas about college composition.

To begin, I went through the responses while being attuned to words and phrases that best represented students’ views and used specific and evocative language (Saldaña, 2016) that answered the open-ended item as well as the research question. Many times, students included information that applied to another open-ended item or that simply provided a generic response that did not provide any insight into the topic. Those responses were either coded for another question or removed. The next step in the first-cycle coding process was to review the In Vivo codes while applying a coding method that helped me choose responses that best depicted the relationship between the data and the question being answered.

Because the first survey response item (*Briefly describe how getting feedback from teacher and peers makes you feel.*) was measuring affect, I applied Emotion Coding. Emotion Codes enabled me to organize data according to the feelings or “emotions recalled and/or experienced by the participant” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 125) and best summarize responses to the open-ended item as well as answer the research question. I went through responses several times refining codes and making sure that Emotion Coding was accurately applied and based on students’ words.

The second open-ended item (*Briefly explain how writing feedback helps you revise.*) measures how students perceive revision as a tool for improving their writing. Students were asked “how” they use feedback, for the first cycle coding process, so I used both Process coding and In Vivo Coding. Process Coding identifies actions and uses “ing” words (Charmaz, 2002). General conceptual processes, such as learning, can be coded (Saldaña, 2016). I went through the responses both in presurvey and postsurvey generating codes, eliminating codes, and refining first cycle codes. I removed responses that did not provide a specific response to the open-ended item, such as “helps me revise because it is helpful.”

The third open-ended item (*Do you feel teacher or peer feedback is more helpful to your revision process? Or are they the same? Please explain.*) required students to evaluate whether they find peer feedback or teacher feedback more helpful or view both equally. Because students are asked to determine a preference, I used a combination of In Vivo Coding and Versus Coding. In this context, Versus Coding is not being used to examine a direct conflict but instead is being used to inform me about my students and their views on authority and power dynamics in the classroom (Altrichter et al., 1993;

Stringer 2014). I also kept a tally of students' preferences to be used for statistical analysis.

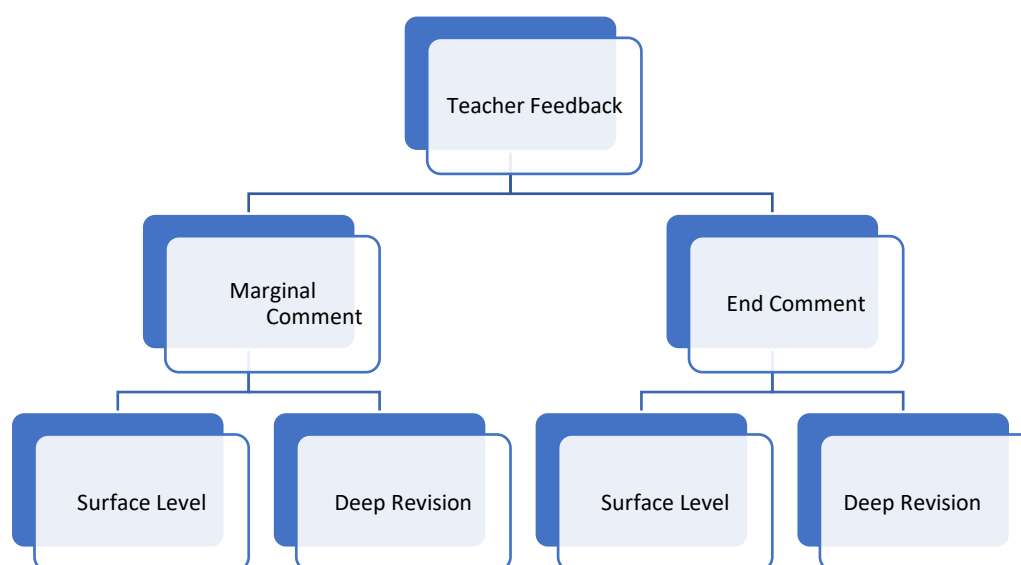
After reviewing the responses line-by-line and re-reading and adjusting codes several times, I then moved on to second-cycle coding. In this cycle, I attempted to categorize the most prevalent concepts from responses. Categorizing information enabled me to re-organize information and inspect codes once again to see if they indeed linked data to my research questions. Focused Coding requires looking for the most frequent or significant codes or concepts (Saldaña, 2016) that appear in the first cycle, but it also “requires sections about which initial codes make the most analytic sense” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 138).

***Teacher Feedback.*** The qualitative data gathered from teacher feedback was coded using a codebook. For teacher feedback these codes including FYW writing criteria addressed by the feedback, marginal and end comments as shown in Figure 2, and the status of the feedback in relation to its implementation. First, written teacher feedback was separated into marginal comments and end comments. Surface level feedback was coded based on FYW criteria for clarity, which included grammar, proofreading, and MLA formatting. Deep revisions were coded according to FYW criteria—claim, organization, development, and analysis. As I reviewed students' first drafts, I provided students with feedback using both marginal and end comments. Feedback comments were based on meeting first-year writing criteria. While reviewing papers, I copied marginal and end comments into an Excel worksheet creating a page for each individual student. As I did so, I labeled each comment according to the five components of criteria—claim, development, analysis, organization, and clarity—and added a fifth

criterion that consisted of development/analysis for those pieces of feedback that encouraged students to do both while revising their papers. I then removed any comments that may have been unclear or were praise only and focused on those comments that students could implement, and I could measure.

**Figure 2**

*Coding of Teacher Feedback*

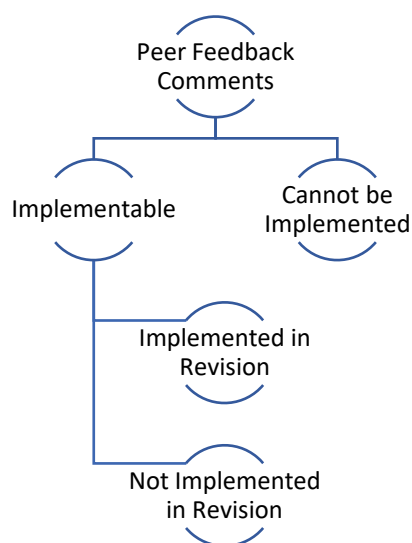


After coding by type, when I received students' final drafts, I checked to see if revision changes had been made by reviewing highlighted changes, Google Doc history, and re-reading papers to check for implementation of feedback. I noticed four different ways feedback was being used—1) implemented, 2) not implemented, 3) attempted to implement, but did not do so correctly 4) implemented once, but did not carry through the paper, such as capitalization or misusing a comma. I then coded the feedback using the

number of each stage to determine the status of the feedback. These codes were then used in quantitative analysis.

***Peer Feedback.*** Tracking student peer reviews and changes was much more challenging than tracking teacher feedback. Students often did not participate, have a draft ready, or provide feedback that could be implemented. To prepare the data, I went through all student peer review comments on Canvas and entered them into a spreadsheet. I then reviewed student comments based on those that were implementable, meaning a student can respond and use the feedback to revise or improve an essay. I then further reviewed the feedback for comments to ensure that they could reasonably be implemented and checked. For example, a comment such as “check your paper for mistakes” would not be considered concrete enough for measurement. Feedback that did not provide implementable suggestions was removed. Peer review feedback was then coded by breaking the feedback into ideas. Each separate idea in the feedback was coded as to whether or not it can be implemented (Wu & Schunn, 2020). Figure 3 illustrates how the three peer reviews were examined to track feedback. Students’ feedback was coded by whether a comment was implementable or not. I reviewed student papers for implementation. Although I kept track of comments and changes during the grading process, I went back through papers and changes a second time to see that I was effectively evaluating whether or not feedback was implemented. I ran the collected data through SPSS for frequencies and descriptive statistics.



**Figure 3***Coding of Peer Feedback*

**Transcripts.** As the instructor and researcher, I approached coding with my own bias and lens (Punch, 2005). As the transcripts are from interviews that I conducted, it was essential that I code the data several times to eliminate any bias. I coded the data from the focal students one student at a time. Doing so, helped me to redefine my codes as I look at each new student's work (Saldaña, 2016) but resulted in my returning several times to the same data and reviewing it with the new codes in mind.

To code the interviews, I used In Vivo Coding for the first cycle. I read through the transcripts and then highlighted any sentences that at first stood out to me. I then went through a second time, taking additional notes and creating analytic memos. I also went through the interview transcripts another time while listening to the audio recordings. Listening to the tone of voice of students and their exact words provided me with further information for my analytic memos. Students were eager and comfortable sharing their

perceptions on writing feedback. I then reviewed the analytic memos for possible codes, using codes from previous coded qualitative material.

Approaching the second cycle coding with a sociocultural lens, I used Focused Coding to identify themes and categories that had come from student interview responses and answered my research questions. After refining my ideas and generating codes, I organized coded material by affect, improvement strategies, and benefit.

### ***Phase 3: Merging the Data***

In this phase, data from the quantitative and qualitative phases were analyzed using methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1978). Using data obtained from several sources through different methods helped to increase my confidence in the validity of my conclusions (Bryman, 1988). To answer RQ1 and RQ2, quantitative data and qualitative data were analyzed. In this phase, the findings from the survey data were further explained and analyzed by the qualitative findings in the open-ended items and data from the focal student interviews. In answering RQ3, the qualitative coded teacher and peer feedback was further explained by the quantitative data. These findings are important as they indicate how students are using feedback as a revision tool. Quantitative data and qualitative data also provided information on how students' perceptions aligned with the changes they made in their papers.

## CHAPTER 4

### Results

The purpose of this study is to learn how academically underprepared students perceive both peer and teacher feedback and how these decisions align with their revision process. In order to create an environment in which writing feedback is viewed as a dynamic conversation and a social event, it is important to understand how academically underprepared students' perceptions of writing feedback align with the decisions they make about revising their essays. As an action research study, the goal is not only to inform my teaching but also to provide a starting point for other instructors to reflect upon their relationships with their students through writing feedback.

To answer the research questions, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Out of the student population ( $N=48$ ), the survey results include the responses of those students who gave permission to use their responses and to be interviewed ( $n=36$ ). In accordance with the university IRB requirements, instructors conducting research with their own students are not allowed to view permission decisions or any identifying factors until after final grades have been posted. To conduct the research within those parameters, a colleague in the Writing Studies Department visited my two Zoom classes for 20 minutes, explained the permissions requirements and research project, and stayed with the classes while they completed the survey. Students who did not sign permission forms ( $n=12$ ) included 4 students who were not in class on that day; they were either absent or had "ghosted the class"—signed in, turned the camera off, and did not actively participate in class. Of the signed permission forms, two students signed consent (illegible) but did not type their names into the allotted space. Of the two, one of

those students was easily identified by process of elimination and her responses were included in the analysis.

### **Data Cleaning**

Before running the presurvey and postsurvey data through SPSS, it needed to be cleaned to ensure that the information would yield accurate results. Data cleaning is the removal of “dirty data”—“incomplete, incorrect, improperly formatted, duplicated or irrelevant records” (Willes, 2017, p.338). First, the data was reviewed for double entries, which were then removed. Double entries were not an issue with the presurvey, but several students responded more than once to the postsurvey. In this case, the first entry a student submitted was considered the accurate entry, and any others were deleted. Then in order to keep all responses consistent, responses were checked to make sure there were no typographical errors and that all responses were uniform. Blanks in questions where students had several answer options were coded to be read by SPSS as missing data, and surveys were also checked for missing values. Student responses that were mostly incomplete or where students gave the same answer to every question were removed. One student’s data was removed because he was a transfer student and was not part of the university’s EOF program. This cleaning resulted in a reduced sample ( $n=29$  in presurvey and  $n=27$  in postsurvey). The three brief two-question peer review follow-up surveys were also cleaned using the same process.

The survey had been piloted in another four-credit section of the same general education writing course that was not included in the study or part of the university’s EOF program. To test for internal reliability, a Cronbach coefficient alpha was used. Cronbach’s alpha (1951) is a commonly used statistic to check the reliability of scales

“intended to measure attitudes and affective constructs” (Taber, 2017). For the pilot study, the Cronbach alpha showed high reliability with  $\alpha=.852$ . Although this course content and design was the same as the other two sections, few students were freshmen. The class had a wider range of age (six of 15 students were over age 20 and none of the students were first-year students) and likely more experience in writing than the other two sections. The reliability analysis for the sample suggests that on both the presurvey ( $\alpha=.497$ ) and postsurvey ( $\alpha=.641$ ) that the alpha coefficients did not reveal a high internal consistency. The higher Cronbach alpha score on the postsurvey shows that items may have become more similar as a result of the content-based instruction that occurred between administering the surveys (Berger & Hänze, 2015; Bretz & McClary, 2014). The alpha statistic can be considered sensitive to its population (Taber, 2017), and the pilot survey revealed higher internal reliability among a more mature group of students. Therefore, for this group of academically underprepared students, these statistics can be considered satisfactory as they are influenced by students’ understanding and experience with writing feedback.

### **Student Writing Background**

Students’ background in receiving feedback is important in understanding their perceptions about feedback. Learning how many papers students were assigned during their last year of high school as well as their experiences drafting papers can provide insight into understanding the survey data. The first group of questions measured the sample’s high school experience with writing papers for their senior year English class. The term “papers” refers to formal essays rather than journal writing or test prep. According to the findings of the massive 2011 Nation’s Report card study on writing,

which included data from 28,100 twelfth graders from 1,220 schools, students who write four to five pages of homework per week for their language arts classes scored higher than those who wrote zero to three pages per week; 82% of those students asked were in the latter group (NCES, 2011). Graham (2019) in his review of writing research found that time spent writing is essential for student's writing development (e.g., Gilbert & Graham, 2010; Hsiang et al., 2018). Table 4 shows the number of papers students completed rather than how many pages students wrote for homework. Table 5 reports the number of drafts students completed for essays for students' high school English course. The data in both tables represent students' best estimation of the number of essays and drafts they completed for that class during their senior year.

**Table 5**

*Number of Essays Completed for English Class During Senior Year of High School*

Number of essays		
	<i>n</i>	%
1	3	10.3
2	2	6.9
3	8	27.6
4	9	31
5+	7	24.1

*Note: n=29*

**Table 6**

*Number of Essay Drafts Completed for Senior Year English Class*

Number of drafts		
	<i>n</i>	%
1	5	17.2
2	14	48.3
3	10	34.6

*Note: n=29*

With a range of 1-5+ papers, the average number of papers written by this population during an entire school year was 3.52 ( $n=29$ ,  $M=3.52$ ,  $SD=1.243$ ). About a quarter (24.1%) of students had written more than 5 papers for their English classes over the course of their senior year. As far as writing and learning to write by creating drafts, almost half of the students (48.3%) reported that they followed a two-draft process, meaning at least one rough draft was written before completing a final draft for grading ( $M=2.17$ ,  $SD=.711$ ). These findings indicate that most participants did not have a great deal of writing practice during their senior year English course. Covid-19 and the transition to online learning may have affected the number of opportunities that students had for writing and receiving feedback. However, even if no writing occurred after March 2020, this means that almost half of the sample ( $n=29$ , 44.8%), had only written three papers from September to March of their senior year. This information does not provide the length of the papers, five-paragraph essay writing, or types of papers, but provides insight into the frequency students wrote papers, as well as the limited possibilities to receive teacher and peer feedback.

To further understand student familiarity with receiving feedback from teachers and peers before attending college, students were asked to note all types of feedback they received on their writing work (see Appendix B). Table 7 shows that the majority of students received marginal teacher comments. These comments are defined as notes, suggestions, and instructions that appear in the margins of the essay, indicating a specific area the student needs to focus on for revision. Of the students completing the survey ( $n=29$ ), it is apparent that all students did not receive each of the feedback conditions listed, as is often done in the FYW courses at this university. About a third (34.5%) of

students, reported that they have experienced feedback in the form of a rubric with expectations circled and no personalized feedback. Of those ten students, one had only received a rubric and had not experienced any other type of writing feedback, and another student had only received rewrites (line edits) and a rubric. Although it may be expected that students have experienced all types of feedback, only one of the 29 students reported that they had this experience. There was not one method that all students had experienced, and marginal comments, with the highest response rate, only included a little over half of the sample (55.2%).

**Table 7**

*Types of Writing Feedback Experienced by Students*

Types of Feedback	<i>n</i>	Percent
Marginal teacher comments	16	55.2
	13	44.8
End Comments-Draft comments with suggestions for improvement for final draft/graded essay	13	44.8
End Comments-Justification for grade and recommendation and commendation	8	27.6
Rewrites of sentences and grammar	12	41.4
Peer Feedback	10	34.5
Rubric—points measured on rubric; no verbal or written feedback		

Students were asked to differentiate between two types of end comments—those given on a draft and those given when receiving a grade. The distinction is important because feedback on a draft allows for implementation on the next draft. Comments given on a final paper may only provide justification for a grade or may also include specific suggestions for writing improvement and praise, which may or may not be used



for future essays. A little less than half (44.8%) of the respondents had received end comments that justified their grade and offered suggestions that did not directly apply to an upcoming draft. Draft comments were also received by almost half of the student sample (44.8%). These comments provide students with instruction and scaffolding for revising their papers and meeting the requirements of the rubric or objectives provided for the assignment. Far fewer students had experience with grammatical corrections or rewrites/line edits ( $n=8$ , 27.6%) while peer feedback was reportedly experienced by 41.4% of students.

### **Data Analysis**

To answer the first two research questions both quantitative and qualitative data from the survey were used as well as focal students' interview responses.

RQ1: What are academically underprepared students' perceptions of peer and teacher feedback as tools for revision?

RQ2: What feedback features do students feel are most beneficial to their revision processes?

In the mixed method sequential explanatory design, the quantitative results provide the baseline for the answer to the research questions and then qualitative responses provide further explanation of those results (Creswell, 2015). Because the survey was organized by affect, benefit, and improvement, the survey responses, open-ended items and focal student interview responses were organized in this manner as well. The qualitative data from open-ended items, and focal student interviews were analyzed separately because the context of each was different, with the survey being part of a classroom task and the interview being a more personal exchange.

### ***Quantitative Analysis: Affect***

In measuring student perceptions of feedback, the first seven questions attempted to measure affect, or the feelings and emotional associations students may have toward the feedback process.

**Descriptive Statistics.** Descriptive statistics were run on the presurvey and the postsurvey as shown in Table 8. The table includes statistics for the mean, standard deviation, range, and skewness for items 1-7. In the following analysis, values for skewness are listed with the presurvey value followed by postsurvey value. Negative values for skewness for both presurvey and postsurvey were shown for item 1 (Feedback motivates me to write my paper,  $-.266, -.206$ ), and item 4 (I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers,  $-1.067, -.451$ ), indicating that the bulk of the scores were at the higher end of the scale and responses expressed agreement. Positive values for both the presurvey and postsurvey were found for item 2 (I find feedback very critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer,  $.571, 1.262$ ), and item 6 (I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me,  $.260, .327$ ) indicating that for both surveys the bulk of responses were at the lower end of the scale and expressed disagreement. Finally, values for skewness for item 3 (When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper,  $-.458, .000$ ), item 4 (I am comfortable giving feedback to my peers,  $-1.042, .000$ ) and item 7 (I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them,  $-.223, .827$ ) indicate a shift in the bulk of answers. For items 3 and 4, the shift was from a negative value to a symmetrical distribution. For item 7, there is a

shift from presurvey responses on the high end of the scale to a positive skewness in the postsurvey, indicating a slight change in student perceptions.

The distributions for the items in the presurvey are within the normal range. In the postsurvey, the second item (I find feedback critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer) with a positive kurtosis of 2.401 and item 3 (When an instructor does not provide feedback it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.) with a negative kurtosis of -1.059 did not reveal normal distributions. Upon examining the histograms, item 2 is heavier tailed with one outlier at the high end of the scale, and item 3 reveals that scores are more concentrated in the middle. Although both lie outside of the normal distribution range, this occurrence was only in the postsurvey, and the information provided by this deviation from the norm is essential to understanding students' perceptions and the decision was made to move forward.

While descriptive statistics offer insight into the sample and changes in perceptions, the sample number differs slightly. To measure if there was significant growth between the two surveys, a paired sample t-test was run comparing the means of those students who answered both the presurvey and the postsurvey to see if there was any statistical significance between the two groups of survey responses. Although inferential statistics were not the basis for answering this research question, it was important to see if students' perceptions of feedback as a tool for revision had changed significantly after the completion of the writing module. A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the responses of the 25 students who took both the presurvey and postsurvey. For the paired items 1-7, Table 9 shows that there was no significant difference in means for the measures ( $p > .05$ ). As expected with nonsignificant results,

the Cohen  $d$  shows little to no effect. Although there was no significant result in the differences between Item 4 (I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers.) presurvey ( $M=4.15$ ,  $SD=.884$ ) and the postsurvey ( $M=4.00$ ,  $SD=.632$ ) conditions ( $t(25)=1.2$ ,  $p=.212$ ), the Cohen's  $d$  ( $d=.251$ ) shows low effect.

**Table 8**

*Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 1-7*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>
1. Feedback motivates me to write my paper.	4.41	.568	2	-.266	4.38	.571	2	-.206
2. I find feedback very critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer.	1.90	.860	3	.571	2.12	.952	4	1.262
3. When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.	3.69	.850	3	-.458	3.5	1.03	3	.000
4. I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers.	4.14	.875	3	-.627	4.00	.632	2	.000
5. I am comfortable giving feedback to my peers.	3.93	1.100	4	-1.067	3.89	.892	3	-.451
6. I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me.	2.79	1.082	4	.260	2.74	1.163	4	.327
7. I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them.	3.15	1.149	4	-.233	2.96	1.055	3	.827

*Note.*  $SD$  = standard deviation. The table shows the results for those who responded for presurvey ( $n = 29$ ) and for the postsurvey ( $n=26$ ). Survey measured on a five-point Likert scale.

**Table 9***Paired T-Test Results for Items 1-7*

Paired Measures	Presurvey		Postsurvey		<i>t</i> (24)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
1. Feedback motivates me to write my paper.	4.40	.578	4.36	.568	.327	.746	.065
2. I find feedback very critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer.	1.88	.881	2.16	.943	-1.50	.148	-.299
3. When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.	3.68	.900	3.44	.989	1.00	.327	.200
4. I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers.	4.16	.898	4.00	.645	1.28	.212	.256
5. I am comfortable giving feedback to my peers.	4.00	1.08	3.88	.927	.618	.543	.124
6. I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me.	2.88	1.09	2.72	1.17	1.00	.327	.200
7. I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them.	2.92	1.19	2.76	.879	1.00	.327	.200

*Note:* *SD* = standard deviation. The table shows the results for those who responded to both the presurvey and the postsurvey (*n*=25). Survey measured on a five-point Likert scale

**Frequency Distributions.** Although measures of central tendency are important in establishing findings from Likert scale responses, answers are not always normally distributed, and frequencies can provide further clarification on responses (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Frequency findings for items 1-7 for the presurvey (*n*=29) and postsurvey (*n*=26) can be found in Table 10. The statistics answer RQ1 about how this sample perceives writing feedback as a tool for revision. The items of measure indicate the samples' feelings about the positive and negative feelings associated with teacher and peer feedback. The majority of students either agree (51.57%; 53.8%) or strongly agree

(44.8%; 42.3%) that receiving feedback is motivating. Findings indicate that most students are not negatively affected by receiving feedback and do not view it as criticism with students strongly disagreeing with this statement (37.9%; 23.1%) and disagreeing (37.9%; 53.8%). However, the postsurvey findings show a change with one student now agreeing (3.8%) and one student strongly agreeing (3.8%) that they perceive feedback as criticism, and it makes them feel like bad writers. Both of these respondents had disagreed with this statement in the presurvey. However, they both strongly agreed that feedback motivated them in the postsurvey.

The next two items discuss students' comfort level giving and receiving peer feedback. Students agree (34.5%, 61.5%) and strongly agree (41.4%, 19.2%) that they are comfortable with getting feedback from peers and do not perceive it in a negative manner. In the presurvey, one student disagreed, which indicated discomfort with the process. This student did not complete the postsurvey. In measuring students' perceptions about their own abilities to provide feedback to their peers, respondents were either neutral (10.3%) or were in agreement; the majority agreed (41.4%, 42.3 %) or strongly agreed (34.5%, 26.9%) that they felt comfortable in giving feedback to others.

Items that measured students' feelings about teacher feedback include item 3 (When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.), item 6 (I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me.) and item 7 (I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them.). Item 3 (When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.) measures students' perceptions when they do not receive feedback or a response to their writing. In

the presurvey, students had mostly agreed (51.7%) that when an instructor does not provide feedback, it means that he does not care, with students strongly agreeing, 13.8% and 19.2%. However, there was a drop in agreement in the postsurvey with only 30.8% agreeing. The majority of students did feel that when an instructor does not respond to their work, it means that it is not valued.

Students either strongly disagreed (12.1%; 15.4%), disagreed (30.3%; 30.8%) or were neutral (36.4%; 30.8%) about understanding the instructor's feedback. The higher response of neutral may indicate that students are unsure whether or not they understand feedback and implement it correctly. For a small sample, it is important to note that there is a noticeable number of students who see feedback as difficult to understand; in both the presurvey and postsurvey a little over 20% of the sample did not understand how to use feedback. When measuring whether or not students perceive feedback as a directive from their teacher that they must follow, about a quarter of students remained neutral (24.2%; 26.9%). Between the two surveys, there was an increase in the number of students who disagreed that they had to make all changes suggested by the teacher from 21.2% to 46.2%.

**Table 10***Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Response Items 1-7*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Feedback motivates me to write my paper.			1(3.4)	15(51.7)	13(44.8)			1(3.8)	14(53.8)	11(42.3)
2. I find feedback very critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer.	11(37.9)	11(37.9)	6(20.7)	1(3.4)		6(22.2)	14(53.8)	4(15.4)	1(3.8)	1(3.8)
3. When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.		3(10.3)	7(24.1)	15(51.7)	4(13.8)		5(19.2)	8(30.8)	8(30.8)	5(19.2)
4. I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers.		1(3.4)	6(20.7)	10(34.5)	12(41.4)			5(19.2)	16(61.5)	5(19.2)
5. I am comfortable giving feedback to my peers.	1(3.4)	3(10.3)	3(10.3)	12(41.4)	10(34.5)		2(7.7)	6(23.1)	11(42.3)	7(26.9)
6. I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me.	3(10.3)	9(31.0)	10(34.5)	5(17.2)	2(6.9)	4(15.4)	8(30.8)	8(30.8)	4(15.4)	2(7.7)
7. I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them.	3(10.3)	7(24.1)	7(24.1)	10(34.5)	2(6.9)		12(46.2)	7(26.9)	4(15.4)	3(11.5)

*Note:* Percentages of frequencies are shown in parentheses. Presurvey ( $n=29$ ) and postsurvey ( $n=26$ )



### ***Qualitative Analysis: Affect***

**Open-ended Survey Item.** The first open-ended item (*Briefly describe how getting feedback from teacher and peers makes you feel.*) extends the quantitative findings on how students are affected by the feedback process. To answer this question, I used a combination of Emotion Coding and In Vivo Coding methods. Table 11 reveals the four most consistent themes in student responses.

**Table 11**

*How Students Feel When Receiving Peer and Teacher Feedback*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Evidence</b>
Supported	<i>"It makes me feel <b>safe</b>"</i> <i>"It makes me feel like they went through my paper"</i> <i>"Feel <b>safe</b>"</i> <i>"Someone is <b>looking out for me</b>"</i> <i>"They <b>care</b> about my paper and want me to <b>succeed</b>"</i> <i>"The teacher <b>cares</b>"</i> <i>"<b>Assisted</b>"</i>
Collaborative	<i>"Feels good to know I can hear <b>other opinions or thoughts</b> about my writing"</i> <i>"It helps me <b>see a new perspective</b>"</i> <i>"Satisfying to <b>realize different perspectives</b>"</i> <i>"Extremely important to <b>get a different perspective</b>"</i> <i>"Happy that people are able to review my papers and give me ideas on improvements"</i>
Motivated/Confident	<i>"Like <b>I'm on the right track</b> in my writing"</i> <i>"It's like they know the <b>potential</b> of my writing"</i> <i>"I can <b>improve</b>"</i> <i>"Makes me feel <b>motivated</b> to make the best of my paper"</i> <i>"Positive feedback keeps me <b>motivated</b> to take on negative comments"</i> <i>"<b>Motivated</b> to either write more if it's good"</i> <i>"More <b>prepared</b> for future assignments"</i>
Nervous/Uncomfortable	<i>"Makes me feel pretty <b>nervous</b> at first because I feel like they won't like my writing"</i> <i>"Usually <b>nervous</b>"</i> <i>"Makes me <b>uncertain</b>"</i> <i>"A bit <b>uncomfortable</b>"</i>

For the most part, students responded in the same manner in the first and second set of responses, generating the same codes and categories. However, in the postsurvey, it was evident from the language of two student responses, “giving me ideas for improvement” and “becoming comfortable with disagreements,” that a more mature or developed concept of autonomy over one’s writing was developing. These two students did not feel they had to make the changes that were suggested.

The most frequent words appearing in the one-to- two sentence responses were “help” (15/10), “better” (9/6) and “improve” (7/3). These numbers include the responses from both the presurvey and postsurvey respectively. This minor decline in the postsurvey may be the movement in language toward using “revising” and “fixing” rather than “better” or “improve.”

***Supported.*** Overwhelmingly students perceive receiving peer and teacher feedback as a positive experience. Most students state that receiving feedback helps them, and it makes them feel as if they are being directed toward a specific outcome. Receiving feedback indicates a relationship between the reviewer and reviewee, whether teacher or peer. Words such as “caring,” “safe,” and “satisfying” indicate a strong comfort level with this relationship. Students address that these positive feelings of support are done in order to help them improve or better their writing.

***Collaborative.*** Student responses about the value of others’ perspectives indicate an acceptance or understanding that writing is not a solitary activity, but a social event. Student responses focus on the importance of hearing others’ perspectives and viewpoints and a few students noted that this helped them

understand how an audience would respond to their writing. The collaborative nature of the answers supports the idea that feedback is viewed as a conversation or an exchange of ideas and perspectives opposed to just finding errors. As one student stated, “It feels good to know I can hear other opinions or thoughts about my writing.” Students value the different opinions of their work as tools for revision as one student describes the experience: “I am happy that people are able to review my papers and give me ideas on improvements.”

***Motivated/Confident.*** Another dominant theme was that feedback motivates students to improve or revise their papers. Becoming a college writer means learning that you are the one that makes the final decisions about your paper. Academically underprepared students may feel that they are not in control of the outcome of their papers as a result of a lack of confidence in their ability. These responses reveal that most students view the process of feedback as a tool for improving their papers and bettering their writing. Students feel like they are on the “right track” and that their peers and instructors see “the potential” of their writing. Feedback makes students more confident in the outcome of their papers and “motivated to make the best” of their work, which will result “in getting a better grade.”

***Uncomfortable.*** The theme of discomfort with the feedback process was evident in the analysis of responses. While students’ perceptions are mostly positive, there are some students who feel less confident. These perceptions reflect a fear of one’s performance and focus on peer review. One student responded that the process “makes

me feel pretty nervous at first because I feel like they won't like my writing." While other students included descriptors such as "uncertain" and "uncomfortable."

**Focal Student Interviews.** Student interviews (see Appendix C) were coded first by using In Vivo Coding looking for themes that applied to affect and supported the same concepts measured in the survey questions in this section. Table 12 includes the dominant themes. Students' responses indicated that there was a much stronger negative perception of feedback than revealed in survey responses or in open-ended responses. The other themes were students' perceptions concerning the teacher as the authority, and the perception of the value of their work. In these interviews, student answers focused more on feedback as a tool for revision, improvement, and growth. They were asked about good and bad feedback, and when discussing good feedback, they discussed improvement, which is covered in the next section, rather than how it made them feel, and when asked about bad feedback or something that made them feel bad, they all agreed that they had not experienced bad feedback, just no feedback.

Table 12

*Focal Students: Affect*

Negative Emotional Response	<p>"I don't <b>mean to offend</b> any of my group mates"</p> <p>"It is <b>scary</b> having someone else read your paper"</p> <p>"Some kids <b>lose confidence</b> and don't feel like doing their work anymore."</p> <p>"Sometimes, um, a student might <b>take that to the heart</b> and . . . think of it in a <b>negative way</b>."</p> <p>"<b>stress myself out</b> and help myself try to figure out why this is wrong"</p> <p>"I often <b>get nervous grading</b> someone's paper."</p> <p>"<b>I am not really good</b> at grading people's papers"</p> <p>"I was like, umm, I was <b>like damn my paper sucks</b>."</p> <p>"You put <b>your whole heart into that essay</b>, and you get it back with a bunch of red. . . I just, I just, I just you know wrote that!"</p> <p>"People are <b>too scared to offend</b> people's writing because obviously, <b>that's their work</b>."</p>
Authoritative	<p>"Sometimes the student <b>wouldn't want to fix that</b>."</p> <p>"Try to see <b>what my teacher is asking me for</b>, and <b>I always try to fix it</b>. That's why I rewrote the whole paper."</p> <p>"<b>Try to implement everything you tell me</b> . . ."</p> <p>"Because you know best exactly, and I rather change it to the correct thing."</p> <p>"The teacher is grading my essay, so <b>I am going to listen to what the teacher wants</b>."</p> <p>"If you put a suggestion, there is <b>something there that isn't right</b>."</p>
Value	<p>"Kids are really eager, and they become impatient when it comes to their writing work."</p> <p>"My essay is bad, or <b>my professor doesn't really care</b>."</p> <p>"<b>Meant a lot to me</b> and you gave me feedback to make it better."</p> <p>"<b>Actually read the whole paper</b>"</p> <p>"A lot of times, <b>teachers really read</b>"</p> <p>"You guys actually <b>take the time</b>"</p> <p>"They kind a just give you fix this some grammatical errors, but <b>not really focused on where I could grow</b>"</p> <p>"People would actually read my essay and give me feedback and . . . try to help me out."</p>

*Negative Emotional Response.* The theme of negative emotional response as a result of feedback was prominent in student interviews. Responses indicated that there is a highly personal component of feedback related to the ownership of a student's work. Students did acknowledge that being able to utilize feedback effectively means that they must not take it personally, as S6 (student 6) states:

"I mean you have to write a paper, and I mean you put your whole heart into that essay, and you get it back with a bunch of red like they are crossing out this. They [students] are looking at this. I just, I just, I just you know wrote that! And I thought it was pretty good. I guess criticism is criticism. I've never felt hurt over it or anything."

Although S6 claims he was not "hurt" by the "criticism," both words carry strong negative connotations when applied to feedback. In addition, S6 also refers to feedback he has received in high school "as pain in red ink." He notes that when he received his paper back from his teacher and reviewed the feedback, he finds that his ideas, which he has put his "whole heart" into writing, have been crossed out in red ink. When he says, "I just, I just, I just, you know wrote that!" the sentence seems to indicate disbelief that the teacher does not see the value of his ideas.

The students interviewed often explained how "other" students might take feedback on a more personal level. They referred to students "who take it to heart" and as "putting their whole heart into the essay" and only perceiving feedback on their writing as a personal criticism. S2 described negative feelings when receiving feedback on one's thoughts and ideas because a student may look at the feedback and feel attacked because

that “paragraph meant a lot to me.” S6 recalls receiving feedback in college for the first time that was not praise: “When she told me ‘Like your whole idea isn’t clear, where [do] you want to go, what direction? . . . you jumped ideas,’ I was like oohh.” S5 claims this did not make him feel bad, but he did initially see the feedback and think “damn, my paper sucks.” As he reflected, he also noted that this was an over-reaction because he later realized “it’s only a few key sentences that you need to switch and then you’re back on track.”

S1 is afraid that students might negatively view her peer feedback and feel that “she doesn’t like my writing; she is criticizing my writing” rather than viewing her suggestions as helpful. She describes an incident from a past class where the teacher shared papers anonymously with students, and students gave productive feedback. She notes that this changed after identities were revealed:

“She would take our writing and put it anonymously, and no one knew who it was, and they gave back feedback that was really good. But, then, once they found out who it was . . . they were like ‘Oh sorry, I didn’t mean to say that’ and I know if they knew who it was, they would have never said the feedback to help the paper.”

Students also note that there is a great deal of fear of offending classmates when conducting peer review. Some students are “nervous” about conducting the interviews and do not feel qualified while others are concerned about “offending” peers. Focal students often felt that the feedback they received was not honest as a result of this perception.

***Authoritative.*** Another theme from the interview data is the idea of teacher as authority. When asked if students felt they needed to use all of teacher feedback, they all affirmed in some manner that they do believe this is important. S2 also views teacher feedback as one way and a directive, which can be problematic. She notes that teachers may not understand a student's purpose for writing and that “. . . sometimes the student wouldn't want to fix that. But you would not know that because you didn't ask them what the reason is.” Although S2 feels strongly that feedback is essential to learning to write, she believes there should be acknowledgment that a student's writing is personal and believes that feedback should be a start of a conversation rather than a directive. Her words firmly place this problem in communication on the teacher who she views as responding to student writing as an authority rather than as a mentor. Instead of asking a student “the reason” why he or she made a certain writing decision, the teacher instead just tells the student to “fix” something.

Although the majority of student responses revealed that they view the teacher as expert and view feedback as a tool for revision, the focal students also deferred to the idea that the teacher is always correct, and therefore they must change their writing. S1 says she does view teacher comments as suggestions but remarks that “if you put a suggestion . . . something there is not right.” S4 implements all feedback: “I do everything the teacher asks me 'cause they know what's best.” S6 implements feedback because “the teacher is grading my essay, so I am going to listen to what the teacher wants.” These responses indicate an imbalance in power in the writing process—one in which teacher is



viewed as always right and students feel pressured to use teacher “suggestions” because they “know best” and are evaluating or “grading” them.

When S5 receives feedback, he uses all feedback: “I just like read what they say, and I’ll try to write out whatever they tell me or . . . things to work on.” But he claims to not feel pressured to use all feedback “ if I don't think that’s the way I want my essay to go I won't use it.” S5’s response indicates movement towards autonomy in writing and a sense of ownership over his ideas. S4 also does not always use all the feedback; she states “Sometimes I do decide... I like adding a lot of detail...sometimes ... when I add too much detail. . .I got over nervous.” S4 does not decide based on whether she agrees or not, and she instead decides not to use feedback when “it’s like too much to do.” Although she explains that she “decides” when to use feedback, it seems that this is not a result of her making her own choices about her writing, but instead, it is a result of fear of doing something incorrectly. She gets “over nervous” when she adds “too much detail” or feels that she may be getting off track from the feedback directions given by the instructor.

***Value.*** Students perceive their work is valued when teachers take the time to give detailed feedback. S2 focuses on how a lack of timely feedback can affect student confidence:

“Sometimes kids are really eager, and they become impatient when it comes to their writing work. But, I know some kids lose confidence and don't feel like doing their work anymore because they don’t quickly get the feedback . . . it

gives the kids the intention ‘Oh, my essay is bad, or my professor doesn’t really care.’”

Because writing is highly personal and a reflection of the individual, student writers are “eager” to hear how their teacher feels about their writing because it is important to them. According to S2, not responding to student writing in a timely manner results in students no longer viewing their writing as important or valuable because they view the lack of teacher engagement as not caring. She further notes that this can impede growth in writing because students “lose confidence” and “don’t feel like doing their work anymore.” Taking much too much time to respond to student work appears to create an isolating effect that does not support writing as a social event or as collaborative. It may make students feel that their writing is viewed as a “job” or “chore” rather than a valuable reflection of student voice.

This issue of time and value was also noted by other students, but in a positive manner. S6 reflects on how college instructors “take the time” to “really read” student papers. S5 notes that in college he has much more time to write essays: “We have a first draft, rough draft, and the teacher looks over each of those things, and I don’t think you could do that in high school.” Like S2, these students connect time to the value of their work, but rather than viewing time as not caring, they see it as focus and engagement from the teacher. As S5 notes, college instructors are looking at each draft and this creates an interaction or conversation between student and instructor. Evidence of instructors taking the time to read student papers comes in terms of teacher’s responses to students in feedback or discussion, which happens at each draft and students respond at

each draft. S5 notes that this is different from high school, but also understands that the demands of teaching high school make it much more difficult to teach in the same manner as the university.

S4 also noted the importance of time when describing excellent peer feedback she had received: “they both went on and actually read the whole paper [and] like added comments.” Taking the time to read one’s ideas and respond meant that her work and ideas had value. S1 saw her writing grow and felt valued because she received feedback that helped her revise her paper and was not just grammatical corrections: “I really like was able to see my paper grow from the first draft because my teacher did more specific feedback.” The individualized feedback provided not only value but growth.

The amount of time spent on a paper translated to students feeling that their work was valued when peers and instructors took the time to read the paper. Leaving detailed feedback rather than generic grammar comments or praise meant that someone read and reflected on your thoughts and ideas. Feedback creates value for students, and they view it as a tool for revision and improvement.

### ***Summary: Affect***

In answering RQ1, the findings from the survey, open-ended responses, and focal interviews offer some conflicting views on how students perceive feedback as a tool for revision. While survey and open-ended responses revealed that students found feedback motivating and did not find it critical, the focal students’ responses revealed that many students still responded negatively to writing feedback and viewed feedback from a personal perspective rather than as instructive. Viewing feedback from top down rather

than as collaborative means students have “no say in their writing” and creates situations in which students internalize feedback (Torres, et. al., 2020). However, the survey open-ended responses contradict these negative feelings and show students view feedback as making them feel safe and part of a supportive environment. When students feel safe and supported, they are empowered and reassured by feedback (Torres et al., 2020). Survey responses also indicate that students are comfortable with the peer review process, yet focal students note that there is a great deal of fear in these situations—about having someone review your work and the possibility of offending someone else while reviewing their work.

While survey responses and open-ended responses indicate that students view feedback as collaborative suggestions, focal students’ responses indicate that they perceive these “suggestions” as directives. They appreciate the teacher’s expertise, but also defer to it because they see feedback as pointing out a mistake that needs to be fixed. This perception of teacher feedback as directions is not uncommon in students who are academically underprepared (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013), as they rely on the teacher to scaffold and teach them to write. Finally, the concept of teachers and peers caring about students’ papers appears in the open-ended responses and is further supported by the responses in the interviews. Students see the time teachers take to read their papers and write feedback as a valuing their ideas and voices.

### ***Quantitative Analysis: Improvement Strategies***

Items 8-12 focus on how students see feedback as a tool for revision and the perceived benefits of feedback as improvement strategies. Questions focus on the

different types of feedback a student may have received on their writing and what types of feedback they value as important to their revision process.

**Descriptive Statistics.** Table 13 includes the descriptive statistics for both the presurvey and postsurvey responses for items 8-12. The table includes statistics for the mean, standard deviation, range, and skewness. The negative skew values of all five items in both the presurvey and postsurvey indicate that the bulk of the answers were at the higher end of the scale. This value corresponds with the higher averages or means of the responses. The presurvey skew values for items 11(I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful, -1.089), 12 (Feedback helps me improve my writing, -1.355) and in the postsurvey item 10 (When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper, 1.117) are highly negatively skewed. The higher skew value from presurvey to postsurvey for item 10 indicates a change in students' perceptions of the value marginal notes, indicating a higher level of agreement concerning their value.

The majority of items fall within the range of normal distributions. Item 12 (Feedback helps me improve my writing) shows positive kurtosis (1.044) in the presurvey and a negative kurtosis in the postsurvey (-1.325). In the postsurvey, item 11 (I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful) also a kurtosis value outside of normal distribution (-1.108). Although these items lie outside the normal distribution range, they reflect the diverse answers of this sample. Upon visual inspections of the histograms, the decision to move forward was made. Inferential statistics are not the basis of this study, and the sample size

is small, so all data are relevant. A paired t-test was run to see if there were any significant differences between means for students who took both the presurvey and postsurvey, see Table 14. No significant differences were found.

**Table 13**

*Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 8-12*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>
8. I find teacher end comments that deal with bigger issues, like organization, claim, development, and analysis, very valuable in revising my paper.	4.34	.670	2	-.533	4.42	.703	2	-.829
9. I find praise and positive feedback to be the most useful comments for revising.	3.55	.948	4	-.294	3.58	1.206	4	-.714
10. When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper.	4.28	.649	2	-.332	4.50	.762	2	-1.177
11. I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful.	4.14	.953	3	-1.089	4.27	.778	2	-.527
12. Feedback helps me improve my writing.	4.66	.553	2	-1.355	4.69	.471	1	-.885

*Note.* *SD* = standard deviation. The table shows the results for those who responded for presurvey ( $n = 29$ ) and for the postsurvey ( $n=26$ ) Survey measured on a 5-point Likert scale

**Table 14***Paired T-Test Results for Items 8-12*

Paired Measures	Presurvey		Postsurvey		<i>t</i> (25)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
8. I find teacher end comments that deal with bigger issues, like organization, claim, development, and analysis, very valuable in revising my paper.	4.32	.69041	4.48	.65320	-.941	.356	-.188
9. I find praise and positive feedback to be the most useful comments for revising.	3.56	1.0033	3.68	1.1075	-.413	.683	-.083
10. When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper.	4.36	.6377	4.48	.77028	-.721	.478	-.144
11. I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful.	4.28	.79162	4.24	.77889	.214	.832	.043
12. Feedback helps me improve my writing.	4.64	.56862	4.68	.47610	-.327	.746	-.065

*Note.* *SD* = standard deviation. The table shows the results for those who responded for presurvey (*n* = 29) and for the postsurvey (*n*=26) Survey measured on a 5-point Likert scale.

**Frequency Distribution.** The descriptive statistics provide an indication of how the responses were distributed as well as the average of the responses. However, frequency statistics, as shown in Table 15, provide more specific insights into students' perceptions of each item. Item 8 (I find teacher end comments that deal with bigger issues, like organization, claim, development, and analysis, very valuable in revising my paper.) measures students' perceptions of how helpful they find feedback that appears in a summary statement at the end of their essay and provides direction on improving more

global issues, such as organization, focus, and analysis. Student responses were strongly on the higher end of the scale ( $M=4.34$ ,  $SD=.670$ ;  $M=4.42$ ,  $SD=.703$ ) with agree and strongly agree each at 44.8 % for the presurvey and 34.6% and 53.8%, respectively in the postsurvey. The majority of students responded in agreement suggesting that they value this type of feedback, find it beneficial, and will use it as a tool for revision.

Item 9 (I find praise and positive feedback to be the most useful comments for revising) had a wider range of responses ( $M=3.55$ ,  $SD=.948$ ;  $M=3.58$ ,  $SD=1.206$ ). In the presurvey, one student (3.4%) strongly disagreed with the statement and one student disagreed (3.4%). These percentages show an increase in the postsurvey, with a larger percentage of students not finding value in praise (strongly disagree, 7.7%; agree, 11.5%). In the presurvey, a larger percentage of students, 44.8%, had neutral feelings for praise and positive feedback than in the postsurvey (19.2%). The majority of student responses in both the presurvey and postsurvey agreed (31%; 38.5%) or strongly agreed (17.2%; 23.1%) that praise is a valued tool in the revision process.

Students found marginal notes beneficial as a tool for revision. When responding to Item 10 (When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper.), responses were on the high-end of the scale ( $M=4.28$ ,  $SD=.649$ ;  $M=4.50$ ,  $SD=.762$ ), with agree 51.7% and strongly agree 37.9% in the presurvey. Although the total of percentage of students in agreement in the postsurvey was slightly less (84.6%) than in the presurvey (89.6%), the number of students who strongly agreed (65.4%) considerably increased. Item 11 (I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful.) asks



students if they perceive instructive feedback that gives clear directions on how to revise an issue or problem as the most helpful type of feedback. The majority of students found this type of feedback beneficial to their improvement ( $M=4.14$ ,  $SD=.953$ ;  $M=4.27$ ,  $SD=.778$ ). In the presurvey, three students (10.3%) disagreed with the statement revealing that they did not find this type of feedback the “most helpful” while two (6.9%) students remained neutral. The postsurvey reveals a larger percentage of that group of students feeling neutral (19.2%). It is clear that the majority of students agree (41.4%; 34.6%) or strongly agree (41.4%; 46.2%) that specific, directive feedback that helps students learn how to correct problems is most helpful. Finally, Item 12 (Feedback helps me improve my writing) was overwhelming high on the scale ( $M=4.66$ ;  $SD=.553$ ;  $M=4.69$ ;  $SD=.471$ ). With the exception of one student who reported in the presurvey neutral feelings about feedback, all respondents either agreed (27.6%; 30.8%) or strongly agreed (69%; 69.2%) that feedback helps them improve. The positive perception of feedback as a tool for improvement is supported by 96.6% agreement in the presurvey and 100% agreement in the postsurvey.

**Table 15**

*Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Response Items 8-12*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
8. I find teacher end comments that deal with bigger issues, like organization, claim, development, and analysis, very valuable in revising my paper.			3(10.3)	13(44.8)	13(44.8)			3(11.5)	9(34.6)	14 (53.8)
9. I find praise and positive feedback to be the most useful comments for revising.	1(3.4)	1(3.4)	13(44.8)	9(31)	5(17.2)	2(7.7)	3(11.5)	5(19.2)	10(38.5)	6(23.1)
10. When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper.			3(10.3)	17(51.7)	11(37.9)			4(15.4)	4(19.2)	17(65.4)
11. I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful.		3(10.3)	2(6.9)	12(41.4)	12(41.4)			5(19.2)	9(34.6)	12(46.2)
12. Feedback helps me improve my writing.			1(3.4)	9(27.6)	23(69)				8(30.8)	18(69.2)

*Note:* Percentages of frequencies are shown in parentheses. Presurvey ( $n=29$ ) and postsurvey ( $n=26$ )

### ***Qualitative Analysis: Improvement Strategies***

**Open-ended Responses.** The second open-ended item. (*Briefly explain how writing feedback helps you revise.*) attempts to expand upon the survey results to learn how students use feedback as a tool to improve and revise their papers. Once again, I combined responses from the presurvey and postsurvey. Student answers for the presurvey were less specific than those in the postsurvey. In the postsurvey, students refer to “marginal” and “end notes,” which they did not do in the presurvey. This usage suggests movement towards understanding and sharing the language of the writing classroom. Praise was only mentioned in one of the open-ended responses, as being an assessment of “what does work and should stay the same.” This statement implies that feedback that is not praise requires students to make changes. Students used some negative words that indicated perceptions of feedback as more of a corrective measure rather than a choice, including “mistake” (3,2), “fix” (5,3), and “wrong” (3,4). These words were followed by more positive language that indicated this type of feedback was helpful rather than critical. As shown in Table 16, the majority of the responses proved positive, which resulted in the following themes: identifying and discovering areas for improvement, determining revision choices, and understanding and learning.

**Table 16**

*How Students Use Feedback to Improve their Writing*

Category	Evidence
Identifying/Discovering areas for Improvement	<p><i>“Find things that are wrong or confusing about our paper that <b>we don’t see at first</b>”</i></p> <p><i>“Tell you <b>specifically how to improve</b> it. “</i></p> <p><i>“ Telling me <b>what I could change</b> and make better.”</i></p> <p><i>“Helps me revise by <b>showing me things I missed.</b>”</i></p>

	<p><i>"Others <b>points out</b> mistakes or areas you can improve."</i></p> <p><i><b>Find the faults</b> in my paper that <b>I couldn't see</b> "</i></p> <p><i>"Helps me see <b>which part I have to improve</b>"</i></p>
Determining Revision Choices	<p><i>" If I'm stuck I can hear how people think for that situation."</i></p> <p><i>"So, I take those <b>comments to consideration</b> every time"</i></p> <p><i>"I can <b>fix and better</b> these flawed areas, and what does work and can stay the same."</i></p> <p><i>"First I read both teacher and peer comments; then, <b>whatever I find helpful I will apply</b> it to my paper to revise."</i></p> <p><i>"I look into both marginal notes and comments at the bottom of my writing and <b>decide whether .... and how I will utilize these suggestions.</b>"</i></p>
Understanding/Learning	<p><i>" Revise my paper by <b>understanding</b> what I need to change."</i></p> <p><i>"Helps me <b>grow as a writer</b>"</i></p> <p><i>" Feedback <b>explains to me</b> what I'm doing wrong."</i></p> <p><i>"It <b>helps me to understand</b> more what she wants or is expecting of me"</i></p> <p><i>"Helps me <b>revise my errors</b> and what I did wrong, so I <b>won't make the same mistake</b> in the next paper."</i></p> <p><i>"Learn what or how another reader may feel about my writing."</i></p>

**Identifying/Discovering Areas for Improvement.** The quantitative data findings showed that students strongly perceive feedback as a way to improve their papers. The strongest responses to the open-ended item focused on using feedback to identify areas that need to be worked on in revision. The responses suggest that students valued specific feedback aimed at specific areas for improvement. Many of the students refer to these areas as "wrong" or "mistakes" and believe teacher and peer feedback will help them "find things that are wrong or confusing about our paper that we don't see at first." The theme of discovery and the references to sight—"don't see at first," "showing me," "I couldn't see," and "see which part"—indicate that students do not view writing as a

solitary activity, but instead see the value of feedback as being a collaborative event in which the interaction provides them with the “sight” or a lens for revising. Repeatedly, students referred to feedback as providing moments where a peer or teacher work together to identify weaknesses or areas for improvement. In this way, feedback is valued and perceived as a collaborative tool for revision.

***Determining Revision Choices.*** Student responses indicated that students value feedback that helps them fix and correct their papers. It also indicated that students view corrections and fixing as a series of choices. As one student wrote, after reviewing marginal and end comments, she then “decide[s] whether . . . and how I will utilize these suggestions.” Another student remarked that after reviewing peer and teacher feedback, he decides on “whatever” he “finds helpful” to “apply it to my paper” during the revision process. Taking “comments into consideration” shows that students not only view feedback as a tool for improvement, but also view feedback as suggestions rather than directives and as a way to make choices about what works best for a particular writer. Perceiving feedback as a choice means students perceive it as a tool that can be used to shape their ideas and develop their writing identity.

***Understanding/Learning.*** The theme of understanding and learning was also prevalent in the data. Students view the path to improvement as having a lasting effect when feedback can be used as a tool for learning and better understanding how to improve writing. It provides long-lasting benefits beyond the present essay. One student describes this benefit as allowing her to transfer the knowledge to future work: “I won’t make the mistake in the next paper.” Another student noted that he sees “growth” as a writer. The feedback process, therefore, is viewed as a tool for learning and scaffolding

rather than just a quick fix. As one student noted, “feedback explains to me what I’m doing wrong.” Feedback that provides scaffolded instruction is valued as a tool for revision. Students viewed feedback as helping them by providing “understanding [of] what I need to change” and ““it helps me to understand more what she [teacher] wants or is expecting of me.” This final comment indicates that feedback reassures students they are on the right track. Viewing feedback as scaffolded instruction facilitates the mentor/apprentice relationship.

**Focal Student Interviews.** Student interview responses resulted in different themes than the responses to the open-ended item. The major themes that extended the findings of the survey items in this section as well as provided new insights into students’ perceptions of feedback were targeted, useful feedback, praise as unhelpful feedback, and other feedback that is not useful. Student responses in Table 17 show the types of feedback features that students find beneficial as tools for revision.

**Table 17**

*Focal Student Responses: Improvement Strategies*

Categories	Evidence
Targeted, Specific Feedback	<p>“ <b>Comments on the side</b> where you highlight it . . . those <b>target specifically</b> where I know I can better the paper.”</p> <p>“Good feedback for me is like having <b>comments in the margin</b> and telling me what I did wrong.”</p> <p>“I like the <b>margins</b> better because I know <b>specifically</b> where . . . or what to fix.”</p> <p>“She actually told us stuff that made my paper longer, fuller, better.”</p> <p>“Good feedback goes by you know being <b>specific</b>.”</p> <p>“<b>Point out where</b> they are confused and . . . give suggestions on <b>how I can fix it</b>.”</p>

Praise as Unhelpful	<p><i>"I want them to give me from their point of view . . . but sometimes they are like 'oh <b>you did this good and then this is good, this good.</b>'"</i></p> <p><i>"I don't want a teacher to write '<b>oh this is good</b>' them <b>knowing it's not good.</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"I know like I know my writing is ok, but I <b>know it's not typically without mistake.</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"I would feel <b>like I wouldn't have to fix</b> that paragraph at all."</i></p> <p><i>"<b>I don't look for positive feedback</b> . . . I look for my professor to tell me what I can do better."</i></p> <p><i>"<b>I don't like fake positive</b> just to have it in there."</i></p>
Vague or "Bad" Feedback	<p><i>"The end comments say 'hey make sure you add this' ok, <b>where do I specifically put this; where do I take away?</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"Whenever like I see a long ending comment, I'm like '<b>oohh, I got to fix the whole thing.</b>'"</i></p> <p><i>"Like for example if something is wrong with my paper . . . <b>tell me how to fix it.</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"Bad feedback for me is just saying "oh fix this" without any examples . . . <b>then I won't know what to fix.</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"Oh, just fix this and <b>then don't say how to fix it.</b>"</i></p>

**Targeted, Specific Feedback.** The most prevalent theme in the interviews was the appreciation of feedback that was specific, provided instruction, and was located in the margins of the paper. These responses support student survey responses in which most students agreed that marginal comments are a beneficial tool for revision. Students appreciated this feedback because it was placed in the text and aligned with the area that required revision. S3 stated, "I love Google Docs because like [teachers] give you comments and like they give you a certain section to fix. And you guys put the comments on it. I think that's really helpful for me because it's like, 'Ok, I need to erase this and put it here'." S3 perceived these marginal comments as providing a map or directions that are easy to follow because they are in context. Survey responses indicated that the majority of students found specific feedback that provided solutions to problems most helpful.

Focal student interviews supported this idea but also defined “specific feedback” as feedback located in the content of their essay at the point of “error.” S2 remarked that marginal notes allowed for specificity and precise targeted feedback; she recalls an example of this type of feedback: “second paragraph that’s messed up a little bit; she would write like right next to my second paragraph.” A marginal note not only provided feedback, but also an identifying tool that helped the student locate and then deal with the area that required revision. If students are struggling with some component of writing, their lack of understanding makes it unlikely that they will be able to identify that error without teacher guidance. Therefore, comments that appear at the end of the paper will not provide useful feedback. In addition, for academically underprepared students who are new to the feedback process, scaffolded marginal notes allows students to engage with feedback immediately. Comments in a live document, where students can respond directly to a comment, can facilitate a conversation about writing between teacher and student that in turn can help establish a mentor/apprentice relationship.

S3 perceived marginal comments in this manner, as conversation: “you talk in the margins.” S3 desired instructive specific feedback that told her exactly how she can “fix” or revise her papers, but she did not perceive these notes as directives but rather as part of a conversation she was having with her teacher. S6 further supported the view of the importance of specific feedback: “good feedback goes by you know being specific.” He also sees this feedback as a solution to the problems he might have. One issue that FYW students face is meeting certain word counts for assignments, and he views his first college writing teacher as providing those solutions “she actually told us stuff that made my paper, longer, fuller, better.” The desire for specific feedback and solutions to



problems indicates that students view this feedback as instruction. Students relied on feedback as a scaffolding that helped them revise. S4 viewed the combination of marginal and end comments as working together; she said of feedback she had received in our class: “You talk in the margins, and then give me a great example at the bottom [that] helps me summarize what I need to do.” I do not consciously approach feedback in this manner, so S4’s feedback may have been an anomaly. Her comment provides insight on how comments are perceived differently than may have been intended. The findings suggest that students perceive these specific marginal notes as part of a dialogue they are having with the teacher about their paper. In this way, feedback serves as a dynamic conversation and literacy event that helps lead students to self-awareness of their process. This perception of the relationship between mentor and apprentice allows for feedback to be viewed as scaffolding, which allows students to learn and develop as writers.

***Praise as Unhelpful.*** Students were asked specifically how they felt about praise as a tool for revision. The common theme concerning praise was that while it is nice, it is not helpful. Students were mistrustful of praise. These responses contradict the survey responses in which only a small percentage of students felt praise was not useful. Most of the focal students’ comments were based on praise from peers. S1 described this mistrust of peer praise as it occurred during peer review: “I want them to give me from their point of view what didn’t they understand, but sometimes they are like ‘Oh you did this good, and then this is good, this is good.’” She does not see any value in the exchange, and she considers the repeated feedback of “good” as dismissive or that her peer did not care. This mistrust of praise might indicate a lack of self-confidence, as she feels that something must be “wrong” with her paper. She values having another perspective but

does not believe that peer and teacher praise are helpful tools for revision. She further explained: “I don't mind compliments on certain parts, but . . . I want more on, like, the analysis of how to make the paper stronger.” S1 also equated minor grammatical feedback with compliments, both not being useful to her revision process. S2 views praise from peers as not caring (“they didn't really care; they would be like oh it sounds good”) because they are not trying to help her. S2 sees praise as meaning she no longer needs to revise, “I would feel like I wouldn't have to fix that paragraph at all.” She believes that if you offer praise about a certain area that means there is nothing wrong. She believes something must be wrong. S6 supported this view and noted that his writing “is not typically without error” and receiving too much praise would lead him to believe his peer had not really reviewed his work. S4 was suspicious of praise from a teacher and viewed it as possibly false: “I don't want fake positive just to have it in there.”

When asked if they would use praise to revise future papers, students responded affirmatively. However, when students attempted to explain how they would use praise as a revision tool, most could not articulate what they would do with it and required further clarification. Because this clarification resulted in me giving specific examples of how to use praise with students just nodding their heads in agreement, those responses were not included. These findings imply that students do not know how to use praise as a revision tool because it does pinpoint a problem and then offer a solution. As a result of students not understanding how to use praise, they do not see its value. These negative perceptions of praise align with students' views of feedback as finding mistakes and correcting them rather than working together with the teacher to create a finished product.

*Vague or “Bad” Feedback.* Another theme concerning using feedback to improve writing is poor feedback or feedback that is not useful. While attempting to learn how students perceive feedback as a tool for revision, students also offered what they believed is not helpful. Students were asked what they considered “bad” feedback and most responded that they had never received bad feedback, and as S2 remarked there is “no such thing as bad feedback because everyone has their own opinion.” S3 remarked, “I’ve never received like any bad feedback, but maybe like, umm, just like, like not enough feedback.” Students perceive feedback as a tool to help them to improve their papers. They understand that everyone may not agree with their writing decisions and feedback may reflect another opinion, but they expect enough feedback to help them revise and improve their essays. Students are dependent on feedback to scaffold their learning process. Academically underprepared students rely on this feedback as the bridge between drafts. Often, they do not have the confidence or the prior knowledge to move ahead without the help of a mentor.

While not receiving enough feedback is problematic, students are often frustrated by feedback that does not provide them with a solution for their writing problems. Although students are told something is wrong with their papers, they do not receive specific instructions on how to fix them. S4 describes this feedback, “Bad feedback for me is just saying “‘oh fix this’ without any examples . . . then I won’t know what to fix.” S4 is looking for her teacher to scaffold learning by providing her with models or “examples” of how to improve. If students make an error or need to revise, it can indicate a lack of understanding and a need for scaffolded instruction. All six focal students explained their frustration with feedback that is not specific and does not provide

instruction. S6 describes this type of feedback as “pain in red ink.” S3 describes her experience with this type of feedback during her first semester in college: “It's not like broken down in details . . . it's like just this is not college level writing. And then sometimes it has me thinking, ok, I don't know how [or] what words to put in to make it college level.” She then explained her process of continually googling “college writing” to help her determine how to revise her work. S2 also describes receiving this type of feedback as unhelpful and stress inducing: “They wouldn't tell me how to fix it. So, I would have to stress myself out and help myself try to figure out why this is wrong.” The expectation that students will just know how to revise their work is contrary to viewing the relationship between teacher and student as mentor and peer, where expert guides and supports novice. This lack of support and instruction appears to have an emotional component resulting in students feeling “overwhelmed,” “stressed,” and “not belonging in college.”

Students also remarked that they had similar feelings toward end comments. Although these comments may include specific scaffolding on revision, students often found them confusing and overwhelming. This finding differs from the survey findings which indicated that the majority of students found these notes valuable. S1 wants end notes, but she finds they make her unsure and cause her to overthink what needs to be done: “Ok, maybe there's a part where I don't have to focus a lot, but since the end comments say ‘Hey make sure you add this’ . . . Where do I specifically put this? Where do I take away?” S5 also is overwhelmed by end comments as he views them as meaning he must figure out how to revise his paper. He remarks that, “Whenever like I see a long ending comment, I'm like, ‘oohh, I got to fix the whole thing’.” Students may

not understand how to apply end comments globally--to be used to revise their entire paper. Academically underprepared students may be overwhelmed by end comments because they do not have the background knowledge or the confidence to implement them. Students also may have difficulty seeing their writing as a whole rather than parts that are shaped to meet FYW criteria, and this perspective may create a barrier for students as they work to become autonomous writers.

***Summary: Improvement Strategies***

The data in this section answers RQ1 and RQ2 about how students perceive feedback as a tool for revision as well as how feedback benefits student writing. While the qualitative data extends the quantitative data, it also contradicted it. First, survey responses overwhelmingly indicated that students perceive writing feedback as a tool to help them revise or improve their writing. This finding is supported in the response to the open-ended survey item in which students discuss how they use feedback to identify areas for improvement, to help them determine their revision choices, and how it is viewed as scaffolded instruction that helps students learn and understand how to make improvements to their writing. Survey responses showed that the majority of students view feedback that tells them exactly how to revise their paper as the most helpful. This finding is supported by the focal students' views of "good feedback" as specific, targeted feedback and "bad feedback" as vague feedback that does not tell them how to fix their papers. There was an emotional component reported that accompanied feedback that was not specific as it caused stress for students. Contrary to the findings of the survey, praise was viewed as feedback that was not beneficial to students' revision process. Hattie and

Timperly's (2007) meta-analysis of feedback research also found that specific feedback had the largest effect size while praise had the lowest.

Focal students showed a strong preference for marginal notes over end comments. This finding contradicts the survey responses that found students valuing them about the same, with a slightly higher percentage valuing end notes more in the postsurvey. The focal students found marginal notes more helpful because they target specific areas in their papers and help them identify those areas. Responses in the quantitative and qualitative data show that students value feedback and view it as scaffolded instruction that helps them improve their writing, and when it is not provided, they do not see feedback as valuable. This scaffolded instruction creates the opportunity for individuals to learn from another more knowledgeable person (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991). In turn, students perceived these positive feedback experiences as those that helped them improve their writing.

### ***Quantitative Analysis: Benefit***

RQ1: What are academically underprepared students' perceptions of peer and teacher feedback as tools for revision?

RQ2: What feedback features do students feel are most beneficial to their revision processes?

Items 13-17 of the survey measured student perceptions of the type of feedback they found most beneficial to their revision processes.

**Descriptive Statistics.** Using SPSS, descriptive statistics analysis was conducted on the responses for items 13-17 as shown in Table 18. All but one item in this section of the presurvey and postsurvey were negatively skewed. Item 14 (I read and use teacher

feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.) was positively skewed, and all but one item had normal distributions. In the postsurvey responses, Item 16 (I value feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.) was more heavily right tailed in its distribution. Again, with the exception of the presurvey item 14 (kurtosis - 2.102), kurtosis for all of these items is within the normal range. Upon examining the histogram for item 14, the distribution appeared normal, but at the high end of the scale. Because inferential statistics are not the basis for the research, and frequency distributions provide further explanation to the descriptive statistics, I moved on to analysis. A paired sample t-test was conducted to compare findings between the presurvey and postsurvey. It indicated that for Item 13 (Feedback that is personal and individualized is helpful for revision.) there was statistically significant difference between the presurvey ( $M=3.97$ ,  $SD=.750$ ) and postsurvey ( $M=4.31$ ,  $SD=.909$ ),  $t(24)=-2.309$ ,  $t(24)=-2.309$ , surveys with  $p<.05$  ( $p=.030$ ),  $d=.462$ . To ensure that this result was valid, and distribution was normal, descriptive statistics were re-run on the sample's responses ( $n=25$ ) from the presurvey and postsurvey. The paired t-test was conducted again, yielding the same results. The goal of this test was not to prove a hypothesis, but to instead see if any changes occurred in students' perceptions between the presurvey and postsurvey completions. There was a statistically significant change in students' perception of the benefits of personal and individualized instruction.

**Table 18***Descriptive Statistics for Presurvey Responses Items 13-17*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Skewness</i>
13. Feedback that is personal and individualized is helpful for revision.	3.97	.778	3	-.426	4.31	.909	2	-.571
14. I read and use teacher feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.	4.45	.506	1	.220	4.62	.496	1	-.504
15. I view feedback as a conversation about my writing, where I have choices and can further discuss it with my teacher.	4.03	.865	3	-.780	4.31	.679	2	-.471
16. I value feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.	4.10	.772	2	-.184	4.12	.909	4	-1.627
17. In peer review, I find reviewing others' papers helps me revise my papers.	3.86	.875	3	-.403	4.04	.871	3	-.865

*Note.* *SD* = standard deviation. The table shows the results for those who responded for presurvey ( $n = 29$ ) and for the postsurvey ( $n=26$ ) Survey measured on a five-point Likert scale



**Table 19***Paired T-Test Results for Items 13-17*

Paired Measures	Presurvey		Postsurvey		<i>t</i> (24)	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
13. Feedback that is helpful and individualized is helpful for revision.	3.88	.78102	4.28	.7371	-2.309	.030	-.462
14. I read and use teacher feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.	4.44	.50662	4.60	.5000	-1.163	.256	-.233
15. I view feedback as a conversation about my writing, where I have choices and can further discuss it with my teacher.	4.12	.83267	4.32	.69041	-1.000	.327	-.200
16. I value feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.	4.16	.74610	4.12	.92736	.238	.814	.048
17. In peer review, I find reviewing others' papers helps me revise my papers.	3.88	.83267	4.12	.78102	-1.541	.136	-.308

*Note:* *n*=25 Paired *t*-test only includes respondents who took both the presurvey and postsurvey.

**Frequency Distributions.** To fully understand the descriptive statistics for each item, frequency statistics must be analyzed. The frequency distributions for items 13-17 are shown in Table 20. For Item 13 (Feedback that is personal and individualized is helpful for revision.), there was a significant difference in the presurvey and postsurvey responses. The scores for both surveys were on the high end of the scale ( $M=3.97$ ,  $SD=.750$ ;  $M=4.31$ ,  $SD=.909$ ) with the postsurvey showing a greater percentage of responses (38.5%) agreeing and (46.2%) strongly agreeing that personalized feedback is

beneficial to their revision process compared to the presurvey in which 51.7% agreed and 24.1% strongly agreed. Upon analysis and review of survey responses, I learned that the student who had disagreed in the presurvey changed her answer in the postsurvey to neutral. Also, of the six students who had been neutral in the presurvey, five had changed their responses: three changed to strongly agree and two had changed to agree. The frequency data indicates that the majority of this sample perceived individualized feedback as beneficial to their revision process.

Item 14 (I read and use teacher feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.) was overwhelmingly on the higher end of the scale ( $M=4.45$ ;  $SD=.506$ ;  $M=4.62$ ,  $SD=.496$ ). Students reported that they value teacher feedback and use it in their revision process, with all respondents either agreeing (55.2%; 45.5%) or strongly agreeing (44.8%; 61.5%). The presurvey responses for Item 15 (I view feedback as a conversation about my writing, where I have choices and can further discuss it with my teacher.) are more spread out ( $M=4.03$ ,  $SD=.914$ ) than they are in the postsurvey ( $M=4.31$ ;  $SD=.679$ ). In the presurvey there are three students (9.1%) who disagree that feedback is a dialogue and six students (18.2%) who were neutral. There is a shift between the two surveys that indicates a higher percentage of students are in agreement with this statement and feel that feedback is beneficial as a discussion. The percentage of students in the presurvey who agreed (48.3%) and strongly agreed (31%) grew in the postsurvey with 46.2% of respondents agreeing and 42.3% strongly agreeing. Although the postsurvey sample is slightly smaller, the change indicates that a higher percentage of students understand the dialogic nature of feedback. Office hours, devoted class time for meeting individually with the teacher, conferences, rapid email response, and using

Google Docs provided students with a direct and “instant” way to communicate with the teacher. However, even though students viewed feedback as a conversation, few students took advantage of these opportunities to further discuss feedback they had received.

The last two items measuring benefit are specific to peer feedback. Item 16 (I value feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.) asks students to rate the benefit of the feedback they receive during peer review. The majority of the answers in presurvey and postsurvey are at the higher end of the scale ( $M=4.10$ ;  $SD=.772$ ;  $M=4.12$ ,  $SD=.909$ ) with students agreeing (42.4%, 50%) and strongly agreeing (36.4%, 34.6%) that they value their peers’ feedback and use it as a tool for revision. There was a drop in neutral feelings from the presurvey (24.1%) to the postsurvey (11.5%). The outlier in the postsurvey, one student (3.8%), strongly disagreed that peer feedback was not helpful. This student, who had given her peers excellent feedback, had expressed during the semester that she often found peer review frustrating because she did not receive the same quality of feedback in return. Item 17 (In peer review, I find reviewing others’ papers helps me revise my papers) had more of a range of responses ( $M=3.86$ ,  $SD=.875$ ;  $M=4.04$ ,  $SD=.871$ ), but still, the majority of responses fell at the high end of the range, with respondents agreeing (44.8%, 50%) and strongly agreeing (24.1%, 30.8%) that they value reviewing peers’ papers as a revision tool. A lower percentage of students were in disagreement at the end of the semester, which may suggest that students are more comfortable with the process than they had been earlier in the semester. This comfort could be a result of working with the same group of students as well as feeling more confident in their writing ability.

**Table 20**

*Frequency Distributions for Presurvey and Postsurvey Responses for Items 13-17*

Measure	Presurvey				Postsurvey					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. Feedback that is personal and individualized is helpful for revision.		1(3.4)	6(20.7)	15(51.7)	7(24.1)			4(15.4)	10(38.5)	12(46.2)
14. I read and use teacher feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.				16(55.2)	13(44.8)				10(38.5)	16(61.5)
15. I view feedback as a conversation about my writing, where I have choices and can further discuss it with my teacher.		2(6.9)	4(13.8)	14(48.3)	9(31)			3(11.5)	12(46.2)	11(42.3)
16. I value feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.			7(24.1)	12(41.4)	10(34.5)	1(3.8)		3(11.5)	13(50.0)	9(34.6)
17. In peer review, I find reviewing others' papers helps me revise my papers.		2(6.9)	7(24.2)	13(44.8)	7(24.1)		2(7.7)	3(11.5)	13(50.0)	8(30.8)

*Note:* Percentages of frequencies are shown in parentheses. Presurvey ( $n=29$ ) and postsurvey ( $n=26$ )

### ***Qualitative Analysis: Benefit***

**Open-ended Responses.** In the final open-ended survey question, students are asked: *Do you feel teacher or peer feedback is more helpful to your revision process? Or are they the same? Please explain.* The question aims to find out how students perceive and value feedback from these two different sources.

Because the question asks students to evaluate the benefit of feedback, I first reviewed responses from both the presurvey and the postsurvey to see which type of feedback students claimed to prefer the most and then used SPSS to get statistics on the data I coded. Table 21 summarizes the frequencies from both presurvey and postsurvey responses. Not all students responded to the open-ended items, but even with the smaller sample size for the postsurvey, the data shows a shift in thinking. Students' perceptions shifted from the majority of students valuing both types of feedback as indicated in the presurvey (54%) to valuing teacher feedback more (67%). This shift does not mean that students do not value peer feedback, as was reported in the survey, but it instead reveals an increased dependence or appreciation of teacher feedback as a tool for revision. In the responses to the survey, students offered reasons why they valued both types of feedback. In coding these responses, I used a combination of Versus and In Vivo Coding. In this case, versus is not being used to measure a contrasting binary, but instead to show the different feelings toward the benefit of each method.

After completing the first cycle of coding, I identified the repeated categories that the students' words had generated and discovered that student responses revealed concerns about the following: expertise, trust, and conversation as generated by listening to multiple viewpoints. Table 22 summarizes those responses.

**Table 21***Frequencies of Preferences of Peer or Teacher Feedback*

<b>Feedback Type</b>	<b>Presurvey <i>n</i>=28</b>	<b>Postsurvey <i>n</i>=21</b>
Teacher Feedback	12 (.43%)	14 (.67%)
Peer Feedback	1 (.03)	
Both	15 (54%)	7 (33%)

*Note.* Sample size measured by students who responded to this survey question.

**Table 22***Student Perceptions of Peer and Teacher Feedback*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Evidence</b>
Level of Expertise	Teacher Feedback
	<p>“Has a <b>bit more power</b> because I know what the teacher expects.          “You get a more <b>professional insight</b> on improvement”          “more in-depth.”          “More helpful because of the <b>years of experience.</b>”          “Can give you a <b>direct solution for any problems.</b>”          “A <b>greater understanding</b> of how the paper should flow ”          “They have a <b>sharper eye and mind.</b>”</p>
	Peer Feedback
	<p>“Peers typically <b>focus on grammar.</b>”          “My peers usually state <b>positive feedback</b> and <b>grammar mistakes.</b>”          “Peer feedback is <b>more comprehensible.</b>”          “Sometimes peers give <b>simple unhelpful answers.</b>”          “Peers and I are in the same situation . . . we <b>may not quite understand</b> something.”          “Peers who <b>analyze it in different ways.</b>”          “ At times a <b>peer may clarify a teacher's feedback.</b>”</p>
Trust	<p>“Peer's perspective is <b>more raw</b>, as it usually is in real-time.”          “Teacher feedback is <b>more reliable.</b>”          “Peers <b>might hold back</b> on telling you what you did wrong to <b>spare your feelings</b>”          “Peer feedback is a little <b>more brutally honest.</b>”          “<b>Teacher will not hold back</b> on a comment while <b>students will.</b>”          “Peers sometimes <b>write whatever</b> to get a grade.”</p>

	<i>"I don't always feel like everyone is level-headed with me, so they would maybe miss the point or give unnecessary suggestions."</i>
--	---

**Level of Expertise.** A preference for teacher feedback as a result of perceiving teacher as expert was a dominant theme in the response to the open-ended question. Students describe expertise as "having years of experience," "professional," "sharper," and "providing solutions." One student perceives the difference between teacher and peer feedback as "more business than personal." These answers establish that students view the teacher as mentor and themselves as apprentice. This view means that a teacher is a person who "can give you a direct solution for any problems." In two responses, students use qualifiers, such as teachers are "likely to be more knowledgeable" and "most of the time they know better." These qualifiers indicate that students do not always assume the expert knows best about their identities as writers and may indicate a movement towards autonomy in the writing process.

The responses about peer feedback reveal that students do not value the comments made by peers as much as they do teacher feedback. Students recognize that feedback is a learning tool, and they value more substantive feedback and believe it needs to be delivered by the teacher or expert: "When it comes to peers, oftentimes we are in the same boat and may not have a full understanding of the assignment or even each other's writing." This student views feedback as instruction, and he does not view his peer as able to provide that type of direction. However, students do see value in a different type of expertise, which is one of being in the same generational and cultural space. One student views peer feedback "as more comprehensible while teacher feedback is more reliable." This student sees that both types of feedback have value and expertise. Students

explained that a peer may have “a different way of looking at things” and may sometimes even “clarify a teacher’s feedback.” In this way, a peer’s feedback can mediate, or connect, the context of history, culture, and experience from which the teacher may be disconnected. Peers can also use their expertise to help each other comprehend direction. Students do note they are often disappointed by peer feedback because it provides feedback based on surface level errors, such as grammar or proofreading, and not on deeper revision.

***Trust.*** The responses suggest that the perceptions of the value of peer and teacher feedback can be tied to issues of trust. One student refers to trust concerning feedback as the difference between being “straightforward” and “holding out” or not providing feedback: “teachers are more straightforward, and peers might hold out on telling you what you did wrong to spare your feelings.” Another student remarks that teachers “will not hold back.” While students “hold back” so not to upset or offend a peer, teachers “do not hold back” suggesting their feedback might be both honest and hurtful. Although students may worry that peers are afraid of providing peer feedback, one student saw peer feedback as “more raw, as it is usually in real time.” He noted that this occurs when students are in breakout rooms in class. He implies that it is more honest because there is not enough time to craft a “softer” response. Students do worry that peer review may not be honest because students may be influenced by an emotional component. One student felt that peers were not always “level-headed” with her and may give bad suggestions as a result. Another student notes that their peer might “write whatever to get a grade” and not be motivated to actually help the peer. With writing being a very personal process, it is important that the reviewer be viewed as credible and trustworthy. In creating a



community of writers, it is important that peer review be viewed as a safe space. If students do not trust the process, they will not benefit from it.

**Focal Student Interviews.** Table 23 reveals the major themes that evolved from student interviews concerning the value and benefit of teacher and peer feedback. These responses extended the findings of the survey in these two areas and focused on peer review and feedback as conversation. In agreement with survey responses, students all reported that they read and use teacher feedback. Their desire for targeted and specific feedback for improvement supports the survey item concerning the desire for personal and individualized feedback. Students did see the value of peer review, but they acknowledged that fear of offending others and the different levels of peers' academic ability can influence how they perceive such feedback. Students relied heavily on teacher feedback, and although their interviews revealed that students processed feedback as something they must do, they also stated that they viewed feedback as a discussion or suggestion.

**Table 23**

*Focal Students' Perceptions of the Benefits of Peer Feedback*

Categories	Evidence
Value of Peer Review	<p><i>"A <b>student</b> can read a paper one way, but the professor can look at it as a different"</i></p> <p><i>"Always <b>use peer revisions</b> . . . I will go and fix everything they tell me to."</i></p> <p><i>"Understand what I am trying to say."</i></p> <p><i>"Like <b>90% of the time</b>, if they say something like "Oh you should fix this" I'll fix it."</i></p> <p><i>"I don't try to be mean, but I <b>give the same feedback I receive.</b>"</i></p> <p><i>"It's really <b>undervalued</b> honestly."</i></p> <p><i>"Because sometimes your <b>teacher might not understand</b> in the moment, what you are trying to convey."</i></p> <p><i>"Not everyone can give you that type of quality feedback."</i></p>

	<i><b>"I personally really like peer review only if it is the right amount of people."</b></i>
Feedback as Conversation	<i>"When someone like differs from what I'm talking about and doesn't agree with something that I say <b>I would say why do you think.</b>"</i> <i><b>"Communicating . . . I feel like that's key."</b></i> <i><b>"Ask the people . . . 'Oh, what do you mean by this, what do you mean' or just email . . the teachers 'What do you mean by this?'"</b></i> <i><b>"The questions you are talking to me on the . . . paper."</b></i> <i><b>"You talk in the margins . . ."</b></i> <i><b>"Even if it's not one on one, you can just comment them in the chat or something and they'll respond."</b></i> <i><b>"In the peer reviews we read, and we do work together; I feel like you know <b>just bouncing ideas off each other.</b>"</b></i>

**Value of Peer Feedback.** A dominant theme in focal student interviews was the value of peer review. Although peer review may not always go perfectly due to students' fear or lack of engagement, when it does, students do value it and find it beneficial. They acknowledged that feedback may not always be evenly reciprocated in the same manner as given. The issue was less based on trust than the acceptance that not everyone has the same understanding or ability to provide feedback. As S1 notes, "the problem is when we are in groups, I don't always get the same [feedback]. I try to give everyone the same, not the same feedback but the same energy on their paper." She desires the exchange of ideas but is aware that she may not always receive them. She finds this type of response frustrating and would prefer to do peer review anonymously to remove the emotional component. I had allowed students to choose writing groups at the beginning of the semester. She had been in a group with her friends and asked to be removed. She noted that one student's microphone did not work, and another student did not take her work seriously. Although she had interpreted this lack of energy as not participating,

academically underserved students may be reluctant to engage in the feedback discussion for lack of confidence in their own ability. S1 may have a similar background as other students, but her writing was more advanced than her group, and she provided her peers with specific feedback. Students in her group may have viewed S1's writing as superior to their own and might have been reluctant to provide her with feedback. This self-doubt can affect reciprocity during peer review.

S4 also had doubts about her peer's ability, but only because of their lack of expertise. She explained that in high school she sought out her peers' feedback as a result of not receiving any from her teachers. She noted that however helpful it was, she was unsure of their ability: "I don't think I got good feedback. 'Cause I would ask my friends, we are around the same level of you know, we're not that smart, I am not gonna say we're not that smart but like you know what I mean?" Although S4 understands that her peers may not have writing expertise, she does understand and value writing as a social event. She actively sought out other perspectives before revising her paper. S4 reported that she strongly relied on feedback as the way she learns to write. This perception of peer feedback as collaborative allows for it to be used as scaffolding and a tool for revision.

S6 also relies on peer review and varying perspectives to help him develop his paper: "some kids in the class . . . can always see a double meaning of it and always see something totally different, and you are like 'oh my gosh.'" S6 discussed how a teacher may not be "woke" and that there can be a generational and cultural gap that may not allow them to understand their students' views and, therefore, not provide appropriate feedback. He explains, "there are other teachers that might not have the same mindset as you . . . who like say if you write about a certain subject they probably won't be as open."

In this way, he believed that peer feedback helped him bridge the gap between instructor and student. He sees that peer review can be just as valuable as feedback from your teacher: “So sometimes a peer review, a little encouragement from your peers or . . . criticism from your peers might help sometimes more than . . . what your teacher is giving you.” He then references a specific instance that occurred where his teacher gave him feedback on an assignment because she did not understand his African American experience. S6’s experience extends the findings from the open-ended responses concerning how peers can help students in ways teachers cannot. These findings support the idea that context is important to one’s literacy development and that students come to class with different experiences from their instructor, which can sometimes be better understood and validated by peers. Peer review can help students create a dialogue about writing that offers them opportunities to share their expertise and get different perspectives than those of the teacher.

***Feedback as Conversation.*** Responses from focal students supported the qualitative findings that students perceive feedback as conversation. Students reported that they valued different perspectives of their papers and communication as beneficial to their revision process. As S2, states “when someone like differs from what I’m talking about and doesn’t agree with something that I say, I would say ‘What do you think?’” S2 actively asks her peer to share his or her perspective. She starts the feedback conversation. S2 views this conversation as essential to the revision process: “...communicating when it comes to, like, essays. I feel like that’s key.” S2 sees the open exchange and dialogue as just as valuable as the instruction. The exchange provides ownership over her work and allows her to defend or explain her revision decisions rather

than just revise according to teacher instruction. S6 also sees this process as valuable; he describes peer review as an opportunity where students can “work together . . . just bouncing ideas off each other.” The responses of S3 and S4 support this view of the dialogic nature of feedback when they refer to teacher feedback as “talk.” S4 views the marginal feedback comments in her paper as “.you talk in the margins.” When asked if feedback in the form of questions helps her revise her paper, she responded affirmatively as she viewed these questions as conversational: “you are talking to me on the . . . paper.” S4 is not afraid to start the conversation when she does not understand feedback. She describes how she extends the conversation: “Oh what do you mean by this; what do you mean?” or just email . . . the teachers ‘What do you mean by this?’” S4 actively engages with feedback and takes advantage of access to her instructor to help her understand and implement feedback. Her comfort with approaching her teacher implies that she feels supported, perceives her teacher as a mentor, and perceives the classroom as a safe space.

S6 also noted that college afforded him access to instructors, so it was easy to engage with them and have a conversation about his writing: “it can be one-on-one [or] you can just comment . . . in the chat or something, and they’ll [teachers] respond.” S6 was empowered by the idea that dialogue with an instructor was so easily accessible. His desire to engage with his teacher indicates that like S4, he also perceived his writing class as a safe space to explore his ideas and receive advice from a mentor. S6 also had commented on how he enjoyed the conversation of peer review. Although his comments show growth towards a relationship of mentorship that can lead to autonomy, S6 also was one of the few students who had commented that he values teacher feedback as a tool to receive a higher grade and something he must do in order to achieve that goal. His

contradictory responses indicate that he is still transitioning from viewing the teacher as an authority to a mentor. Although this student was able to reflect upon his writing, understand that teacher may not understand his perspective, and in turn valued peer review to help him work out these issues, he still shaping his writing according to teacher feedback because he may view the end goal as a grade rather than his growth as a writer.

***Summary: Benefits***

To answer RQ1 and RQ2, the quantitative and qualitative data from student responses concerning the benefit of peer and teacher feedback were analyzed. Students reported that they perceive teacher feedback as beneficial and use it as a tool for revision. Survey responses also revealed that students perceive individualized feedback as beneficial. There was a significant statistical difference between the presurvey responses and the postsurvey responses concerning valuing individualized feedback. This scaffolded individualized approach helps students achieve new learning (Lidz, 1991; Stone, 1993; Wood et al., 1976). Survey responses indicate that over the course of the module, more students viewed feedback as a conversation about writing. Qualitative data from focal student interviews further supports that students do view feedback as a conversation and a beneficial revision tool in which they receive other perspectives and can ask questions. Students do not view writing as a solitary activity, but one where multiple perspectives are valued, and they can construct relationships with others (Beach et al., 2017).

The survey responses indicate that students find value in both reviewing their peers' papers and being reviewed. In the open-ended responses, students reported that they preferred teacher feedback. This response changed over the course of the module

from valuing teacher and peer feedback equally to preferring teacher feedback. Students explained that this preference was due to teacher's expertise. They reported that they did not find value in their peer's responses as a result of their lack of expertise. In addition, students brought up issues of trust concerning peer feedback, which may be a result of the lack of expertise, but some students cited the emotional component of reviewing peers. However, the focal students discussed the value of peer review as one where someone who is culturally in the same space can aid them in revising their paper. They understand that culture, history, and social experiences mediate a person's writing development (Halliday, 1978; Heath, 1983; Gee, 1999; Scribner & Cole, 1981; Street, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). Focal students valued peer review but noted that there is a problem concerning the reciprocal nature of peer review based on engagement and ability.

### ***Revision Changes***

To keep track of revision changes and learn about how students in my classes decided to implement feedback, I focused on one teaching module of my writing class. In the module, students received teacher feedback on their first draft and three instances of peer feedback for the second draft. Data from this module was collected to answer the following question:

RQ3: What revision changes appear between student drafts that are linked to types of feedback given—peer and teacher feedback?

**Teacher Feedback.** As I reviewed students' first drafts, I provided students with feedback using both marginal and end comments that adhered to first-year writing criteria. Using Google Docs commenting feature, marginal comments targeted specific areas in student papers where they could revise, while end comments provided more

global suggestions, or suggestions that can be applied to the entire essay, such as re-organizing paragraphs or adding transitions throughout the paper. End comments appeared at the end of each student essay and were written in a different color and placed directly in the student document. Each end comment began with a positive assessment of the student's paper followed by a bulleted list of suggestions for revision. End comments are presented as suggestions while marginal comments are brief and more direct. Students are then urged to contact me or reply directly in the document if they have any questions or need further help. Table 24 provides shows examples of teacher feedback comments.

**Table 24**

*Examples of Teacher Feedback*

	<b>Marginal Comment</b>	<b>End Comment</b>
<b>FYW Criteria</b>		
<b>Claim</b>	<i>You definitely have the right idea for your claim, but you could add more to the "so what," about the problem of young girls who read this and watch the movie believing that this is what women are supposed to do.</i>	<i>You need to come up with a claim about the movie that is specific to survival and why this is important. Use the formula: Topic + Position + How/Why (it is important). Since you are using the psychological lens, think about how working together to survive is more successful than going on your own--what does that tell you about human beings in general? Follow this thread throughout your paper.</i>
<b>Development</b>	<i>This targeting of one child is called the Cinderella Phenomenon or targeted abuse. Find out more about that concept and use it to help you discuss why she was targeted-- it is more than just preferring her own daughters. Is she jealous and threatened by her?</i>	<i>Use the movie as evidence to support your subtopics and claim--be specific as to why you are discussing certain parts of the plot, so you are not just retelling the story.</i>  <i>For example, focus on ways the movie shows that working with</i>



		<i>others creates success--1) helping her sister by taking her place as tribute, 2) flight or fight instinct--how does Katniss respond to the beginning of the games--what does that mean? 3) strategizing with others in the game 4) the benefit of kindness to Rue--how is she rewarded?</i>
<b>Development/ Analysis</b>	<i>Can he be genuine? Is this perhaps Quinn's problem--she can't tell the difference? Explain and discuss further.</i>	<i>After reading some feminist sources, you will find more ideas to help you develop this paper. In the end, does Jasmine gain any power? Does she make the decision to marry Aladdin? Of course, she still does not get to rule--which is her birthright. Your sources will help you develop and analyze these ideas further.</i>
<b>Analysis</b>	<i>Were these activities "masculine" activities? Discuss the gender aspect of the activities.</i>	<i>Analyze the episode of cutting her hair further. Could the hair be considered a symbol of sexuality and youth--and the jealousy of the mother. This idea does overlap with the abuse as it gives her mother cause. How does having a jealous mother figure affect a child?</i>
<b>Organization</b>	<i>How is Flynn important to your focus? Make it clear as to how your analysis of him supports your claim.</i>	<i>Each topic sentence should state one of the reasons you believe the movie conveys these ideas and how they prove your thesis/claim. Remember your paper is answering the question in your claim--How does this movie depict African Americans and why is this problematic?</i>
<b>Clarity</b>	<i>Double-space and include title.  Do you think they "throw them in" or do the movie producers include them intentionally? Is it done to highlight the bias, or does it perpetuate stereotypes? Be very specific in your language.</i>	<i>Avoid including "I think" or "I chose" statements. You do not need them. It is your paper, and it is understood that these are your ideas. Review your paper for instances of this usage and remove.</i>

The comments in each category were counted and then students' second drafts and final drafts were reviewed for implementation. This review was done using Google Docs history, highlighted changes made by students, as well as two reviews of the essay. For marginal notes, feedback comments were coded as implemented, not implemented, attempted but unsuccessful, and implemented once but not followed through the paper. The final category refers to changes in which feedback, such as "italicize the name of the movie," are done at the point of the feedback note, but are not done in other instances in the essay. For end notes, feedback comments were coded as implemented, not implemented, and attempted but unsuccessful. Each comment was also coded using FYW criteria area. The participants ( $n=33$ ) included both students who completed the survey and those who did not. The total number of comments was 132, with 43 (32.5%) of those comments not being implemented, 74 (56%) of those comments being implemented, 8 (6.1%) of those comments attempted but unsuccessful and 7 (5.3%) of those comments being implemented once, but not carried through. Table 25 shows the frequency distribution of marginal comments by category and implementation. This data reveals that students engaged with 89 of the 132 comments or 67.4% of feedback.

**Table 25***Frequencies of Implementation of Marginal Comments by Criteria*

Marginal Comments	First Year Writing Criteria						
	Claim	Clarity	Analysis	Development	Development/ Analysis	Organization	Total
Implemented	12(46.2)	29(63)	6(50.0)	15(65.2)	6(60.0)	6(40.0)	74 (56%)
Not Implemented	11(42.3)	11(23.9)	5(41.7)	6(26.1)	3(30.0)	7(46.7)	43 (32.6%)
Attempted but unsuccessful	3(11.5)		1(8.3)	2(8.7)		2(13.3)	8 (6.1%)
Completed once and not followed through		6(13)			1(10.0)		7(5.3)%
Total comments	26(19.7)	46(34.8)	12(9.1)	23(17.4)	10(7.6)	15(11.4)	132

*Note.*  $n=33$  Percentages shown in parentheses.

**Revision Changes.** The highest number of marginal comments was in the category of clarity. These comments dealt with formatting and grammatical errors that are easy to fix at the point of error. Pointing out grammatical and proofreading issues may be done in the margins because of the ease of doing so. Of these comments, 63% were implemented and 13% were implemented at the point of error, but students did not carry through and change the error throughout the paper and correct other instances of the same error. While these changes are considered surface changes and not as critical to students learning to write, high percentages of implementation of deep revision skills were also reported. High percentages of implementation were in the areas of analysis (50%), development (65.2%), and development/analysis (60%). These feedback comments offered ideas for students to develop their papers further using questioning

techniques and adding sources. Organization was implemented at 40% while 46.7% of those comments were not implemented, and 13.3% were attempted but not successful, indicating that there may be a lack of understanding concerning how to implement comments.

When providing feedback, I used end notes to sum up global problems in an essay and offer suggestions on how to approach these problem areas. Table 26 displays the frequencies of the types of end comments given and those suggestions that were implemented. Out of 78 end comments, only 28 (35%) of these comments were implemented. End comments had a higher rate of not being implemented than marginal notes, with 41 of the 78 (50.6%) not being used. If implementation indicates understanding, this low rate may indicate that students do not know how to implement these changes. Because end comments require students to make larger changes, students may feel overwhelmed and decide not to use them.

Smaller percentages of comments were attempted unsuccessfully. The highest percentage of end notes that were implemented were dealing with the claim (62.5%). While development and development/analysis were among the highest implemented changes in marginal notes, they were not implemented at a high rate when suggested in end notes, with development only implemented 29.6% and development analysis 33.3% of the time. These notes require students to do heavier revisions than marginal notes, and comments did not provide the specific point or place for revision. While clarity usually provides a specific and easy instruction to follow, it was only implemented 50% of the time when using end notes while it was implemented 63% of the time in the marginal notes. It is important to note that students had an opportunity to meet with me privately

during every class to receive explanations or help with their feedback. Office hours were available, and students were encouraged to email me or respond in the Google Doc if they had questions outside of scheduled class time. Very few students took advantage of these opportunities. The findings from this analysis reveal that students were more likely to use marginal notes (67.4%) than end notes (35%) to guide their revision process. This finding supports students' preference for targeted and specific feedback. It also suggests that students may need help with applying deep revisions.

**Table 26**

*Frequencies of Implementation of End Comments by Criteria*

First Year Writing Criteria							
End Comments	Claim	Clarity	Analysis	Development	Development/ Analysis	Organization	Total
Implemented	10(62.5)	3(50.0)	4(50.0)	8(29.6)	2(33.3)	1(5.6)	28(34.9)
Not Implemented	4(25)	3(50.0)	3(37.5)	15(55.6)	4(66.7)	12(66.7)	41(52.6)
Attempted but unsuccessful	2(12.5)		1(12.5)	4(10.8)		2(13.3)	9(11.5)
Total comments	16(20.5)	6(7.7)	8(10.3)	27(34.6)	6(7.7)	15(19.2)	78

*Note.*  $n=33$ . Percentages are shown in parentheses.

**Peer Feedback.** For the second essay, students participated in three peer reviews. They took part in a peer review on introductions and conclusions (See Appendix D), integrating evidence (See Appendix E), and a more extensive peer review (See Appendix F) that contained a more thorough analysis of the second draft of their paper. For each

peer review, students completed an exit ticket. This ticket was a brief survey of three questions assessing their peer review experience.

The first peer review conducted was “A Conversation Between Sources.” This activity took place after students had received instructor feedback on their first drafts. The activity required students to take a paragraph from their paper and add evidence from their primary source (the literature they were analyzing) and to add another outside source of literary criticism to expand upon that source. When students were done, they completed a brief exit ticket, a seven-point Likert scale assessment of the peer review for integrating sources as shown in Table 27.

**Table 27**

*Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Conversation with Sources*

Measure	Exit Ticket Response						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My peer's comments were helpful.				1(5.0)	4(20)	8(40)	7(35)
I understood my peer's comments.				3(15)		8(40)	9(45)
I will use my peer's comment to revise.				2(10)	3(15)	7(35)	8(40)

*Note:* n=20

Students found the peer review based on a conversation between sources as very helpful ( $M=6.05$ ,  $SD=.887$ ). The majority of students understood their peers' comments ( $M=6.15$ ,  $SD=1.040$ ) and 90% of students had some level of agreement concerning the use of comments in revision, with 40% strongly agreeing that they will implement those changes in their work ( $M=6.05=SD=.999$ ).

The second brief peer review was also conducted on Canvas (an online learning management system) and focused on students' introductory and concluding paragraphs. Students reviewed their peers' introductory and concluding paragraphs to make sure that they had applied techniques taught in class. They then completed the same exit ticket as done in the previous peer review. Student responses are shown in Table 28.

**Table 28**

*Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Introduction and Conclusion*

Measure	Exit Ticket Responses						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My peer's comments were helpful.			1(5)	1(5)	2(10)	11(55)	5 (25)
I understood my peer's comments.				1(5)		13(65)	6(30)
I will use my peer's comment to revise.				3(15)	2(10)	6(30)	9(45)

Note:  $n=20$

Students mostly found their peers' feedback helpful ( $M=5.90$ ,  $SD=.1.021$ ) with a small percentage (5%) either neutral or disagreeing. The majority of students understood their peers' feedback ( $M=6.20$ ,  $SD=.696$ ), and 85% of students agreed or strongly agreed that they planned to use the comments to revise their introduction and conclusion ( $M=6.05$ ,  $SD= 1.09$ ).

The third essay peer review followed a more traditional format in which students with similar writing topics worked together in Zoom breakout rooms. Students met to discuss the goals and objectives of their papers and then used a task sheet to review each other's works. They then returned the peer review to each other and discussed any

questions they had of their peers. Student conversation was encouraged and expected. Many students did not turn on their cameras and a few had broken microphones on their laptops, so it is difficult to ascertain how much discussion occurred. The task sheet provided a tool for analysis of peers' papers and required students to provide two recommendations and commendations for peers to use for revision.

After the students had completed the peer review, they responded to a brief survey. The Likert Scale survey questions asked the same questions as the previous two peer reviews, see Table 29.

**Table 29**

*Frequencies for Exit Ticket for Peer Review: Essay 2*

Exit Ticket Responses							
Measure	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My peer's comments were helpful.			1(3.6)		4(14.3)	14(50)	9(32.1)
I understood my peer's comments.				1(3.6)	1 (3.6)	20(71.4)	6(21.4)
I will use my peer's comment to revise.				1(3.6)	1(3.6)	15(53.6)	11(39.3)

*Note:*  $n=28$ , Seven-point Likert scale

For this more extensive peer review and discussion, only one student found that it was not helpful ( $M=6.07$ ,  $SD=.900$ ), somewhat disagreeing. All but one student responded that at some level they understood their peers' comments ( $M=6.11$ ,  $SD=.629$ ), with the highest percentage, 71.4%, agreeing. All but one student agreed at some level they planned on using the comments to make revisions ( $M=6.29$ ,  $SD=.713$ ), with students either agreeing 53.6% or strongly agreeing 39.3%. The findings from these three peer



reviews indicate that students found the peer review process valuable and planned to use the feedback from the peer reviews as a tool for revision. The results indicate that students perceive and value writing feedback as a collaborative social event rather than a solitary event where students compete for a grade.

***Peer Feedback Implementation.*** In collecting the data for peer review feedback, I reviewed the feedback to identify those comments that could be implemented, and then I reviewed students' final drafts to see if these comments had been implemented as shown in Table 30. Students often did not write implementable comments and offered praise instead. In addition, students came to class with varying levels of preparation for the peer review, and this lack of preparation affected the rate of comments. For peer review 1 (conversation with sources), less than a quarter of the student class population ( $N=48$ ) were prepared to participate ( $n=21$ ). From their work, I was able to find 38 implementable comments. The majority of feedback (68.4%) comments were implemented for this assignment. Not all students completed this assignment correctly, and much of the feedback provided instructions concerning completing it correctly rather than just revision suggestions.

**Table 30**

*Frequency of Feedback Implemented from Peer Reviews*

	Peer Review 1	Peer Review 2	Peer Review 3
Variable			
Implemented	26(68.4)	14(30.4)	25 (48.1)
Did not implement	12(31.6)	32(69.6)	27 (51.9)
	38	46	52

*Note.* Peer Review 1,  $n=21$ ; Peer Review 2,  $n=29$ , Peer Review 3,  $n=24$  Percentages shown in parentheses.

While more students (n=29) participated in the second peer review (introductions and conclusions), a smaller percentage, 30.4%, implemented the feedback suggestions. While there were 56 implementable feedback suggestions for this assignment, 69.6% of the suggestions were not implemented in their final drafts. Peer review 3 (entire essay), a longer peer review, required students to provide their peers with a minimum of two recommendations for revision resulting in 52 implementable comments from the 24 students who participated. Feedback was implemented about half of the time (48.1%) with slightly more students (51.9%) not implementing feedback. These responses show a difference from student survey responses in which the majority of students responded that they planned on using suggestions for revision.

***Summary: Revision***

In answering RQ3 about the types of revision changes made between drafts and implementing teacher feedback, students made changes more frequently from teacher marginal comments than end notes. The largest percentage of marginal note changes made were in clarity, but this category was also the largest category of feedback. This result is to be expected because marginal notes are the most effective way to target those surface level changes. These changes are usually quite easy for students to make. Deeper revisions in the categories of claim, analysis, development, development analysis, and organization were implemented about half the time, with development-related changes a bit more likely to be acted upon. Over half of the marginal feedback comments given were either implemented or students attempted to implement them. End notes that followed a student's completed essay were much less likely to be implemented, with only a third of those comments being used to revise student papers. End comments that dealt

with claims were the most likely to be implemented while comments on clarity were only implemented half the time. Students reported for each of the three peer reviews that they were very likely to use their peers' feedback to revise their paper, with over three-quarters of the students agreeing to that measure. However, when reviewing peer feedback for each peer review students implemented feedback for the brief peer reviews about a quarter of the time and about half the time for the longer peer review.

It is clear that student perceptions of feedback as measured by the survey do not align with the revision changes made to student papers. Although with the goal of creating autonomous writers, it is acceptable for students to decide which revisions to make, students in this study claimed to use almost all peer and teacher feedback. Open-ended responses and focal student interviews do support the idea that feedback is valuable, and students do use it make changes. However, the reality of implementation reveals that students only use feedback as a tool for revision about half of the time.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this mixed methods action research study was to learn how writing feedback is perceived and used by academically underprepared students as a tool for revision. The findings of the study are used to create an action plan for providing effective feedback that accelerates learning and helps students develop and grow as writers. The results of the present study attempt to fill the gap in the research concerning academically underserved students and writing feedback.

This chapter includes a discussion of the major findings concerning students' positive and negative perceptions of feedback, students' perceptions of feedback features for improving writing, the perceived benefits of feedback, revision changes made to papers and how these perceptions and revision changes align, and the implications of those findings. Also included are an examination of limitations, paths for future research, suggestions for future practice, and an action plan. The chapter discusses the answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: What are academically underprepared students' perceptions of peer and teacher feedback as tools for revision?

RQ2: What feedback features do students feel are most beneficial to their revision processes?

RQ3: What revisions or changes appear between student drafts that are linked to types of feedback given--peer and teacher feedback?

### **Perceptions of Feedback: Affect**

In partially answering RQ1, data measuring affect was analyzed. The present study found academically underprepared students perceive feedback as a valuable tool for revision. Evidence from data analysis found students had strong positive perceptions of feedback, which included viewing feedback as motivating, collaborative, supportive, and as valuing student work. However, qualitative evidence and a few outliers in the quantitative data revealed that there was also a strong negative perception of writing feedback.

#### ***Positive Perceptions***

The findings of this study suggest that students strongly perceive feedback as positive and as a helpful tool for revision, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies that found that students value teacher writing feedback (e.g., Holmes & Papageorgiou, 2009; Lizzio & Wilson, 2008; Sommers, 2006; Wilson & Post, 2019). In the present study, students reported that they perceived feedback as a motivating factor in their revision process. Evidence from qualitative data suggests feedback is a way for peers and instructors to comment on the “potential” of student work, and they are then “motivated to do their best work.” This perception of feedback implies that students understand that others can contribute to their writing development in a manner that is not just evaluation, but instead helps them “re-envision” their work. Students repeatedly refer to feedback as providing them with “new perspectives” and ideas that help them to revise. Viewing feedback as a collaborative tool allows students to view their writing as a relationship with others and helps them realize new meaning and ideas in their work (Carbone & Orellana, 2010), which will help them transform their writing to exceed

whatever they may have accomplished alone (Englert et al., 2006; Vygotsky, 1978).

When feedback is viewed as a valuable, collaborative, motivating tool for writing success, it can help create self-confidence, self-efficacy, and agency.

Perceiving feedback as motivating can help to build confidence and may result in students paying more attention to their writing and putting forth more effort because they have stronger feelings of self-worth (Pajares, 2003). Regular feedback can provide the tools for action and improvement, which in turn, creates ideas about one's academic ability as a result of being able to implement those strategies effectively (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). As in previous studies on positive perceptions of feedback and motivation (e.g., Caffarella & Barnett, 2000; Ekholm et al., 2015), the present study suggests that positive feedback perceptions may mediate the relationship between student's self-efficacy and their movement toward self-regulation and autonomy.

The findings from the present study also suggest that the concept of time is related to how students view the value of their work. Qualitative evidence showed that students perceived teacher feedback as finding value in their writing because teachers took the time to read it and respond. This perspective implies that students see that this relationship as one that extends beyond just writing evaluation or grading, and instead, as one where the teacher shares expertise and invests in guiding student learning. Students also viewed feedback as making them feel safe and supported. In this way, feedback empowers students as they adjust to the academic discourse of the university (Torres et al., 2020). These positive perceptions allow students to create the space for new learning and to engage as members of the academic writing community. Viewing feedback as "safe" also suggests a more personal relationship than a relationship where student and

teacher exchange content and grade. Instead, the relationship is viewed as a partnership, in which students place their trust (Charteis, 2016; Whip et al., 1997). However, this perception of feedback may put the student in an emotionally vulnerable position concerning their teacher, and the teacher must be highly cognizant of how his or her role in the relationship can affect students. For example, in this study, timeliness, defined as responding to student work in a reasonable amount of time, was found to impact students negatively. One student noted that too much time in responding to a student's paper indicates that the teacher does not care, and students in turn feel that their papers are not good, and as a result, lose confidence. This result builds on the previous study of Poulos and Mahoney (2008) who found that timeliness was a factor in students' perceptions of effective feedback. While their findings were more concerned with usefulness, students did not or could not use it if it took too long to receive, the present study shows that academically underprepared students may not implement feedback that takes too long to receive because of negative affect.

### ***Negative Perceptions***

Although students claimed to have positive perceptions of feedback, the results of the present study suggest a strong emotional component of receiving feedback that results in negative affect and can be directly associated with students' feelings of self-worth and writing development. When students reported these negative perceptions, they distanced themselves from these negative feelings and explained how feedback can make "other kids" feel. Although these explanations often began as "other kids'" experiences, in several cases as the student became more comfortable, descriptions shifted, and they began to describe these negative feelings as their own. This finding suggests that even

though students understand feedback is not meant to be personal, it is highly personal. This concept can be further supported by the repeated reference by students to feedback as “criticism” rather than instruction. One of the focal students expressed in her interview that some students are “soft” when it comes to writing feedback, and she wanted feedback that helped her revise. The same student reported on her presurvey that she did not find feedback critical and on her final survey changed her response to strongly agreeing that feedback was critical. Students used strong language such as “hurt,” “offend,” “take it to heart,” and “scary” all indicating an emotional component to receiving feedback. One student recalled an incident of teacher feedback that consisted of “crossing out” his words, thoughts, and ideas in what he refers to as “pain in red.” His tone of voice expressed disbelief that the teacher could not see the same value in his words and ideas as he did “I just, I just, I just, you know wrote that!” This type of feedback positions students in a place where the teacher is the authority, and the student must “conform” to the teacher’s feedback rather than develop his writing voice. It can be concluded that negative perceptions of feedback can greatly affect student confidence as it erases or devalues a students’ words and ideas. If the teacher is to position herself as mentor, she must work to make the classroom a place where all voices are respected, and students are confident in their work. Previous studies (e.g., Thompson, 2013; Vetter, 2010) have found that this can be done by creating spaces where all student voices are equal, even when there are implied positions of power and privilege. As reflected in my sociocultural theoretical framework, literacy development is influenced by power structures that decide what is appropriate and what is not (Heath, 1983); as a result, teachers must be aware of position and power and work to create safe spaces where



students' ideas and voices are valued equally, and they are able to see themselves as writers (Englert et al., 2006).

The present study findings suggest that there is also a negative perception of peer feedback. This result can be concluded from qualitative evidence in which students indicate a fear of sharing because peers may not “like their writing” and described the process as “uncomfortable” and “uncertain.” The findings concerning negative perceptions of teacher and peer feedback suggest that students who are academically underprepared may be sensitive to feedback as a result of a lack of confidence concerning their ability. These findings build upon other studies of this population (e.g., Moss et al., 2014; Torres et al., 2020), which found that students from marginalized groups worried about how their ability was perceived by peers and may view feedback as a reflection of their ability to be at the academy. One student had received feedback in another class that simply stated “not college writing.” She did not know how to make it college writing and was unsure of how to decipher this comment, stating she just kept “googling college writing” until she could figure it out. This finding is consistent with Sommers' (2012) research at community colleges in which students reported that the feedback from teachers often made them question their abilities as college students. Instructors must carefully construct writing feedback that considers student position, previous literacy experiences, and offers scaffolded instruction that helps students transition from viewing writing feedback from the perspective of teacher as authority to viewing teacher as mentor. Not doing so may keep students from making gains and becoming autonomous as well as undermine their confidence.

**Teacher as Authority.** The dependency on the teacher's specific instruction for validation during the feedback process is evident in the findings of the present study. The results suggest that although students claim that they perceive feedback as suggestions, they are not processing them in this manner. Students do not yet seem able to see themselves as capable of making writing choices and working *with* their mentor/teacher to create the best finished product, but instead the data indicates that they are still deeply ingrained and conditioned as to the traditional teacher-student power structure, in which, as one student stated, "I do everything the teacher asks me 'cause they know what's best." Other studies of this population (e.g., Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Gulley, 2012; Orsmond & Merry, 2009) had similar findings concerning dependency on teacher's feedback as a result of being underprepared and trying to use all the feedback, even when they did not understand it. The implication of this finding means that students are willing to accept that the teacher can shape their writing and impose his or her beliefs on the finished product rather than work with them as co-creators. With the goal of establishing a mentor-apprentice relationship, students need to view feedback as co-participation, where "expertise is distributed, practiced, and shaped to produce a common product or artifact" (Englert et al., 2006, p. 209).

In order to empower students and help students transition from dependency on teacher, writing feedback should provide explicit suggestions for revision as well as an opportunity for reflection. While the teacher functions as the expert and guides students by providing tools for revision, feedback must also provide opportunities for students to establish their individual writing voices and become active participants in the development of the finished product rather than passively following directions. Helping

students reflect on their writing can help shift the balance of power in the teacher-student relationship.

This reflection provides an opportunity for students to establish their self-perception concerning writing (Torres et al., 2020). In this way, students can be positioned as fluid or vulnerable in which they focus on process rather than the end product (Torres et al., 2020). When students look at feedback through the lens of self-reflection, they can learn that disagreement or conflicting thought is an important part of the process (Otfinowki & Silva-Opps, 2015). While still vulnerable, first year students are in a transitional space between novice and expert, the language of feedback must provide students with guidance for growth rather than making them feel unskilled. Students may view feedback as a tool to get the grade and become a member of the academic community. While this power structure is a realistic lens for students, it is problematic when it supersedes student growth, and students defer to the teacher's authority when interpreting feedback out of concern for their grade. It is important that this power dynamic be addressed through helping students "unlearn" the traditional power dynamic and embrace their role in their education as well as use their teacher as collaborator in meeting the criteria of the course.

It is this transition between teacher-centered to collaborative relationship that must be established. The relationship should consist of student being guiding by the teacher, while slowly becoming more independent. Dialogue between teacher and student and student and student can help students learn to view writing as a participatory activity and social event, rather than just following directions. While the present study findings suggest that this population depends on their teacher to tell them what to do in feedback,

it contradicts results of previous studies of college writing students (e.g., Taggart & Laughlin, 2017; Wilson & Post, 2019) that found students do not always agree with feedback, and that just because feedback is implemented, it does not mean the student understood or learned anything. For more autonomous writers, the weight of grades may pressure them into revising as the teacher wants them to revise rather than as they feel is appropriate for their work.

With the goal of writing feedback as an effective instructional method to help students develop as writers (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Black & William, 1998; Carless, 2006; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Rowe, 2011; Topping, 1998), it can be concluded that positive and negative perceptions can greatly affect a student's progress as a writer. Academically underprepared students are in a transitional phase where they perceive themselves as valuing the participatory aspects of writing development, but they are not yet able to fully disengage themselves from traditional views of classroom power structures.

### **Perceptions of Feedback: Improvement Strategies**

The findings of the present study suggest that students view feedback as a tool that helps them improve their writing. Both quantitative and qualitative data found that students valued targeted, specific feedback that told students exactly how to fix problems as the most valuable type of feedback. Although findings from quantitative data showed that students valued praise as a way to improve their writing, there is no evidence of this perception in the qualitative data. Instead, findings from that data suggest that students do not value praise. Finally, although students perceived the value of marginal and end notes

equally in the quantitative data, qualitative findings contradicted this view in which students expressed a strong preference for marginal notes as a valuable feedback feature.

### ***Feedback that Helps Improve Writing***

The present study findings suggest that students used feedback as a means of discovery. Feedback provided a way to “re-envision” their paper because a peer or teacher had helped them “to see or discover” where they needed to revise. Students frequently referred to the value of collaborating and hearing different perspectives and how peer and teacher feedback have enabled them to “see” their work in a new way. Results also suggest that students value specific, targeted feedback that provides solutions to problems as instructive tools to understand and learn how to develop or grow as a writer. This perception implies that writing feedback provides an exchange of expertise and is a relationship. Used as instruction, the feedback relationship creates a discourse between student and teacher situated in their roles of mentor and apprentice (Gee, 1996, 1999). True learning occurs in this feedback space or the Zone of Proximal Development where the more experienced shares experiences with the novice (Vygotsky, 1978). While providing students with specific feedback is good practice (Ramsden, 1998, 2003), the desire for specific feedback that solves problems also supports the idea that “teacher knows best.” This contradiction implies that academically underserved students understand the process of using feedback as a tool but have not yet transitioned from “recipients to agents of the written word” where they become active members in their writing development (Kwok et al., 2017, p. 260). For academically underserved students to transition into the academy, they must learn to position themselves in the academic community. In the FYW classroom, students must learn to view their teachers as

experts—not as the authority with the final say—who guide them in the acquisition of writing knowledge. The teacher when viewed as mentor and guiding students with feedback and expertise rather than power and authority can open spaces for autonomy. It can be concluded that while feedback that tells students exactly what to do is valued, students must also be taught to work with their instructors to make revision choices and use feedback as scaffolding in which they gain understanding that can be applied to future papers.

The results of the present study found that when students refer to specific feedback, they are not just looking for specific instruction, but they are also expressing that they value feedback that is visually aligned with the writing problem. This response indicated the preference for using marginal notes that all focal students strongly supported, including stating a fondness for Google Docs because it provided a level of interaction with teacher and a checklist for students to use as they completed their work. Using marginal notes in Google Docs does provide a more dialogic view of feedback as students can respond directly to the note in the text. It allows for a collaborative method of teacher and student working together to complete a finished product. However, although frequently encouraged, only two students ever used comments in this manner, and students' preference for marginal notes may be further evidence of dependence on teacher because they "tell" students "what to do" and "where to do it." Unlike other studies (e.g., Calhoon-Dillahunt & Forrest, 2013) that found that students did not understand marginal comments and often did not read them at all, did not read them in the context of the paper, and did not view feedback as conversation, this study used Google Docs, which allows for easier discussion. However, it does raise questions as to

how much information (instruction, modeling) can be successfully placed in a marginal note to create effective feedback, and perhaps it is that lack of information that made it difficult for those students to implement changes.

***Feedback that Does Not Help Improve Writing***

The results of the study suggest that students perceive feedback that does not provide specific solutions to problems as less valuable. Students reported that this type of feedback creates stress for them because they are unsure of how to fix problems. Focal students referred to end notes as problematic in this sense. Because end notes are used to discuss feedback changes that can be applied to the entire paper—deep revision or global changes—students may feel ill-equipped to apply these changes. This response further supports the dependence on the teacher that often occurs with academically underprepared students (Orsmond & Merry, 2009). Students use the term “fix” rather than revise, which might imply that they perceive their writing as incorrect or wrong and must implement the teacher’s feedback instead. While previous studies (Taggart & Laughlin, 2017) found that college students expressed a desire for more independence and requested more specific feedback only in relation to clarity, the present study finds that academically underprepared students’ desire for specific feedback is less an issue of clarity as much as it is wanting a map or toolkit for fixing their papers. The difference in these perceptions suggests that this population needs additional support in understanding that while feedback can provide more objective writing instruction, there is choice when it comes to students’ ideas and writing voice.

**Praise.** Although the quantitative data findings showed that students valued praise as a revision method, qualitative data from open-ended responses and focal students did

not support that perception. Instead, students viewed praise as not caring or not doing the job of providing feedback. Students also perceived praise in peer feedback as a way to avoid discomfort and responding honestly. It is clear that students are looking for scaffolded feedback rather than praise, but their emotional responses, as discussed earlier, seem to indicate that they need a balance of both. Although this study found that students view praise as avoiding providing honest feedback, other studies of peer review (Patchan & Schunn, 2015) found that students often do not have the background or confidence to participate and that reviewers with lower ability levels often resorted to more praise.

The current study's finding on the perception of peer praise as dishonest was extended to teacher praise. One student referred to teacher praise as "fake" praise—just to have something on the paper. While this view of teacher praise is consistent with other studies' findings on excessive praise being perceived as inauthentic (e.g., Hyland & Hyland, 2001), students in the present study did not articulate further reasons. However, other study findings suggest that praise may not be viewed as having value because it is not offering any new information for learning (Hattie & Timperly, 2007). Praise is often the least used type of comment by evaluators (Hallman, 2012), which is especially problematic as self-determination theory shows that praise can be motivating and lead to student autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Academically underprepared students may not see the value in praise as a tool for revision, but there is value in providing praise. As learning is scaffolded in feedback, praise may need to be presented in a way that scaffolds how to apply expertise to other aspects of writing or provide opportunities for students to share their expertise. Besides self-confidence, these opportunities can create



an environment where peers support each other and are better able to learn from other's expertise and literacy development.

**End Notes.** Like the contradictory findings on praise, the present study findings suggest a conflict between the quantitative and qualitative findings concerning end notes. Quantitative data results show that students value end notes, but qualitative responses indicated that students often perceived end notes as not helpful. Students did not understand how to use “global” comments or comments that required looking at deeper revision and applying these as a new approach to the paper. Most focal students did not dismiss end notes entirely; instead, they expressed a desire that they are present in the paper, but they reiterated that they preferred using marginal comments to revise their work. The inability to apply end notes implies that students still need support and scaffolding that will help enable them to view their writing as a whole rather than viewing feedback as a way of teachers helping them find specific spots where things are “wrong” and need to be “fixed.” In contrast to previous studies on student perceptions of feedback (e.g., Calhoon-Dillahunt & Forrest, 2013; Song et al., 2017) that found students wanted more indirect feedback and valued end notes that dealt with global issues, the present study found that students desire direct feedback with specific instruction, and although concerned with larger global issues and deep revisions, they do not see end notes as the way to accomplish those changes. This disconnect implies that students need a way to transition from being told exactly what to do to using feedback as ways to “re-envision their work.”

### **Perceptions of Feedback: Benefit**

In order for students to use feedback as a tool for revision, students must perceive the process as beneficial and view their instructor as credible (Poulos & Mahoney, 2008). In measuring student perception of the benefit of feedback, perceptions related to a preference for feedback were analyzed. The findings from the present study show that students read and used teacher feedback to improve their papers. The results of the quantitative data analysis indicated there was a statistically significant difference in how students felt about individualized personal feedback from the beginning of the semester to the end of the semester. The present study findings also show a clear preference for teacher feedback and how this relates directly to teacher expertise as well as an appreciation for feedback as conversation.

### ***Individualized Instruction***

There was a statistically significant difference in the way students viewed individualized feedback, as more students found this feature of feedback beneficial towards the end of the semester than they did at the beginning of the semester. Because many students reported that they did not have a great deal of feedback experience, this change may have been a result of receiving more feedback than they had in previous classes, which was specific to their papers as is typical in a writing workshop course. Some students had only received generic feedback on a rubric that provided holistic measures of writing and did not provide instruction for revising. It also may indicate that students have changed their perception of feedback and appreciate its dialogic nature and perceive it as aiding in individual growth as a writer rather than just providing a “fix.” Or, it may simply show a better understanding of how to use and apply feedback. While

many studies have found that students perceive individualized feedback as valuable (e.g., Carless, 2016; Mulliner & Tucker, 2017; Sommers, 2006; Wilson & Post, 2019), the present study is one of the few that focuses on how this population perceives this type of feedback. The change in perception suggests that students are developing and growing as individual writers and better understanding the value of feedback. This step implies that students are perceiving feedback as scaffolded instruction and beginning to view this exchange as one in which the student and teacher act as “co-producers” (Englert et al., 2006).

### ***Teacher Feedback***

The present study findings indicate that students read and use teacher feedback. Students reported a preference for teacher feedback, citing that this is a result of trusting their teacher as expert. The perception of teacher as *expert*, one who guides the student with scaffolded instruction in a shared experience, rather than the *authority*, one who makes all the decisions about what is valued in the learning process, can help facilitate the mentor and apprentice relationship (Gee, 1996, 1999) Feedback perceived in this way stresses the social aspects of writing, as an activity that cannot be done alone but requires a mentor (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013). Although students view teacher as expert, there is still a problem for academically underprepared students in only perceiving teacher feedback as valuable. This perception does not allow for including peers as a valuable part of the writing process, yet previous studies (e.g., Eski, 2012; Hovardas et al., 2014; Yang, 2006) have found that peer review offers students a collaborative conversation with others who have different literacy experiences and can provide valuable insights. While establishing and supporting the mentor/apprentice relationship is fundamental to

helping students develop as writers, peer feedback may provide more easily understandable feedback as well as act as “conversation” that might help students better understand and apply teacher feedback.

### ***Peer Feedback***

The findings of the present study reveal conflicting perceptions about the benefit of peer review. Findings show that students value both roles in the process and exchanging ideas with those in a similar generation, yet they have concerns about the ability level of partners and question the honesty of peers. The quantitative results indicate that students perceive benefit from both reviewing others’ papers and being reviewed, which are consistent with previous studies (e.g., Lundstorm & Baker, 2009; Wakabayshi, 2013) that found gains for both roles. These findings imply that students enjoy working collaboratively on their writing and view this activity as a participatory or social event. In this way, peer review can be a powerful writing tool that enables student and teacher to assess student performance in context of that tool and to learn how it influences writing performance (Gee, 1992; Wertsch, 1991).

With writing being situated by social and cultural contexts (Kwok et al., 2017), peer review allows students to share their work in an academic context as they learn to become members of that community, but it also provides an opportunity to share their own literacies and expertise with others. With literacy development mediated by an individual’s culture, history, and social experience (Halliday, 1978; Heath 1983; Gee, 1999; Scribner & Cole, 1981; Street, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978), peer review creates an opportunity to view the process of giving and receiving feedback as participating in a personal exchange that is influenced by context and identity (Bazerman, 2017). The

qualitative findings of the present study suggest that students see the value in context of peer review and as a space that provides better understanding of student perspectives, and peers can often better explain problems in their writing. The shared knowledge that is part of the peer review process creates a social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978) that helps students share their expertise and develop as writers; it is a collaborative conversation with those of equal footing (Atwell, 1987; Calkins, 1986). Working together can be considered collective scaffolding and can be viewed as a tool for revision.

Although the qualitative results build upon previous studies' findings (e.g., Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Liu & Carless, 2006) that students found peer review to be an uncomfortable process, and students are greatly influenced by perceptions of peer's ability (e.g., Dijks, et al., 2018; Ducasse & Hill, 2019; Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Strijbos et al., 2010), the results from the present study showed that students did value peer feedback. However, the negative perceptions create a barrier to its use as a collaborative tool. Students did not always feel confident in their own ability to provide feedback and often did not view their peers as having the ability to provide useful feedback. One student, the outlier in the survey data, reported that she got nothing from peer review because she perceived her peers as not being her academic equals, and therefore, unable to comment on her work.

These present study's findings and previous research imply that students view peer review as an evaluation or assessment of their work. This perception can create negative associations during peer review with the reviewer having some degree of power over the reviewee, and feedback is then viewed as criticism rather than collaboration. When peer review and feedback are viewed in this way, it can create an emotional

component that may result in the process being less effective. One student suggested assigning peer review anonymously to create more honest feedback. Although studies have supported this method as a way to alleviate the issues of peer pressure (e.g., Dijks, 2018; Lu & Bol, 2007; Raes et al., 2015; Vickerman, 2000) and to learn how learner characteristics influence feedback uptake (Wu & Schunn, 2020) these concepts are contrary to viewing peer feedback as collaborative. Although students report discomfort with the process, they also claim that it is valuable. If students could learn to view peer feedback as a conversation rather than an evaluation or assessment, it is possible that some of the barriers to successful peer review could be alleviated. Peer review holds great potential as a writing tool because it occurs in an academic context, is situated in the discourse of the academy (Gee, 1999), and creates a place for students to share their expertise. Instructors must find ways to redefine peer review, so students view the process as one that helps them work together to create a finished product. Peer review provides the opportunity for students to collaborate with and gain knowledge from experts other than their instructor.

### ***Feedback as Conversation***

Quantitative findings suggest that students perceive peer and teacher feedback as conversation and dialogic. These findings are further supported by evidence showing that students see comments as an opportunity to ask questions of their reviewers and marginal notes are viewed as “talk” in the margins. However, even though students perceive feedback as conversational, they do not always actively engage in a dialogue or respond to feedback provided. While students were given ample opportunities to engage in conversation with me through Google Docs, in breakout rooms, and during office hours

to discuss feedback given on drafts, very few chose to do so. While some students engaged in lively dialogues during peer review, others just read their peers' comments and did not respond. This reluctance may be a result of a lack of confidence, or it may suggest that students do not know how to engage in a feedback conversation—receiving feedback and then responding to it. To help students transition from being dependent on the teacher to becoming autonomous, students need to learn that this conversation is not one-sided, that they can engage in feedback conversations with their teachers, and that they can initiate those conversations.

These findings of the importance of viewing feedback as conversation align with many seminal studies on writing, such as Sommers (2006), Connors and Lunsford (1993), and Carless (2006). However, while the populations for these studies may have included academically underprepared students, the participants were not primarily underprepared students. While academically underprepared students may feel less confident, conversation is a method can help empower them (Torres et al., 2020) by providing them with an active role in their learning. The role of the teacher is fundamental to creating agency for writers and helping students create a writing identity (Fairclough, 2001). This relationship can be greatly beneficial as it creates a safe and supportive space (Torres et al., 2020) for students and teachers to form these trusting relationships (Charteris, 2016; Whipp et al., 1997).

### **Revision Changes**

The final research question focused on revision and measured the types of changes made in relation to peer and teacher feedback:

RQ3: What revision changes appear between student drafts that are linked to types of feedback given—peer and teacher feedback?

The qualitative coded material and the quantitative follow-up analysis found that students made revision changes from marginal notes more frequently than end notes. Although the highest percentage of marginal notes implemented dealt with clarity (surface changes), students also used these notes for deep revision. The changes made as a result of end notes mostly dealt with revising claim and focus and less dealt with clarity. While the majority of students reported that they would use peer feedback to revise, students used peer review much less frequently to make revision changes.

With an ending summative note a frequent practice of FYW instructors, the present study findings have important implications. If feedback is one of the most important ways students develop as writers (Agius & Wilkinson, 2013; Black & William, 1998; Carless, 2006; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Rowe, 2011; Topping, 1998), and students are not engaging with that feedback, then students will not grow as writers. Feedback is the tool of communication for students when they are in the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) where learning is optimized, and teacher uses expertise to guide the student. Finding ways to help students use end notes for deeper revision or replacing end notes with tools like Google Docs and video feedback may help students learn to approach their papers as artifacts or products that they are collaborating on together rather than just “fixing” for a grade.

The findings of the present study showed that students’ perceptions of how they will use peer feedback is also different than implementation. This view may be a result of perceptions of peer’s ability, or it can be disagreement. Disagreement could indicate



choice and that students are slowly becoming more autonomous. However, academically underprepared students may lack confidence in making their own decisions about writing and defer to “teacher knows best.” Students who were from marginalized schools have been found to be less likely to implement peer feedback (Wu & Schunn, 2020), and students’ dependence on the teacher for feedback may also result in students not trusting or implementing peer feedback (Eski, 2012; Yang, 2006). Because peer review is an important component of creating a sense of community, the reasons for this lack of implementation need to be further investigated.

### **Limitations of Study**

Because this study is an action research study, I bring my lens to the design, tools, and interpretation of this data. I make assumptions that the feedback I provide is effective and helpful, and when coding feedback, codes are based on my perception of whether each feedback element is correct and clear. My position as teacher may have influenced focal student interviews, as I am providing students with feedback thus when discussing their perceptions of feedback, they are then discussing feedback received from me as well as from other instructors. However, interview responses did appear to be authentic and honest. Attempting to be objective and eliminate any potential biases, I have used several different sources of information as well as both quantitative and qualitative methods to draw conclusions about this population. As a result of this course taking place online and during a pandemic, many students struggled and dropped out or stopped turning in work. The Zoom platform did create a certain disengagement, with many students keeping their cameras off, which may have affected opportunities where engagement with peers and teachers might have been higher if the class had taken place on campus. Although this

problem lowered the sample size, the many sources of data provided a strong representation of the population. Academically underprepared students are not developmental writing students nor are they prepared for the regular general education writing course. Findings based on the small sample may not be generalizable, but they offer insight into teaching this unique population.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

The present study found that academically underprepared students' perceptions of feedback differ from their implementation and use of writing feedback. Major findings of this study relate to this population and problems of negative affect, feedback as dialogue, praise as a tool for revision, feedback features, and peer review. These findings provide topics for further investigation.

The study participants were members of the university's EOF program—a program that accepts students who are high performers from marginalized schools. These students attend a summer bridge program and receive additional support as members of this program. To improve generalizability, I would recommend including students who are not part of the EOF program but have the same demographics. Also, the sample size was small ( $n=29$ ); a study with a larger number of participants would increase the ability to generalize results.

Findings suggested that although students perceive feedback as valuable, it can result in negative affect, which can impact students' writing development. McLeod (1987) urged researchers to create a “theory of affect” to help students understand this process, but one has yet to be created that concerns this population. A recommendation for future research would be to further investigate the affective experience of feedback on

academically underprepared students. The results of the quantitative data analysis and qualitative data analysis concerning affect were not always consistent. As a result, I would recommend using qualitative research methods for future studies.

Another consideration for further investigation is praise as a tool for revision. Findings of the study show that students do not value praise as a tool for revision. With negative emotional affect being prevalent in the study, praise seems a viable tool for countering it. Research based on interventions using praise as a tool for revision could help practitioners find ways to utilize student expertise and build confidence for this population.

The results of this study found that students preferred engaging with marginal notes for feedback. The finding is counter to previous studies and is not necessarily consistent with how teachers view effective feedback features. Further research into feedback features and tools for delivering feedback would provide valuable information on the ways these tools can engage students and increase feedback uptake. These studies could include comparing different electronic platforms, such as Blackboard, Canvas, and Google Docs. Another recommendation concerning feedback features would be to investigate if different populations have different preferences.

Focal student interviews provided valuable information for understanding how students use feedback. Enlarging the number of focal students and broadening the demographics can help researchers learn more about students' perceptions of feedback as conversation and how to best use peer review. Using qualitative data to influence practice provides agency for students and creates realistic ways to implement change in the classroom.

Finally, although not directly related to a finding in the present study, it was observed that male students were less engaged and had more difficulty keeping up with the class. In this study, it was difficult to find students who identify as males who had completed all their assignments and attended a writing conference for the interview portion of the study. Further research is needed to investigate how a lack of academic preparation affects male students in the FYW classroom.

### **Recommendations for Future Practice**

This study aligns with many studies concerning student perceptions of writing feedback, sociocultural writing studies, and feedback uptake. The major findings from this study suggest that for this population there is a large gap between perceptions of feedback and implementation. This gap may be a result of students transitioning from dependence on teacher as authority to becoming an active member of the college writing community where feedback scaffolds learning in a collaborative relationship with peers and teacher. The following recommendations for practice are based upon these findings. Table 31 offers specific suggestions for practice based on the following topics.

#### ***Creating a Positive Academic Discourse***

Although quantitative results of this study showed that students had positive perceptions of the value of feedback, qualitative findings revealed a strong negative affect. Student responses included language that carried strong negative associations, such as “mistakes,” “wrong,” “hurt,” and “criticism.” Students referred to revision as “fixing” their papers. Because of the highly personal nature of writing and one’s ideas, students need to learn that they are not “wrong,” and feedback is not “criticism” of their ideas and thoughts, but instead that feedback is a relationship between mentor and

apprentice working together towards a finished product. While rules for grammar and proofreading errors may be incorrect, instructors must be careful not to devalue student ideas. Creating a discourse to be used for providing feedback that allows for flexibility and a resulting conversation may help offset a negative affective experience. Because language is situated (Gee, 1999), teachers can create a specific “language” within the context of the academic classroom that guides students rather than creates directives. For example, changing “do the following” to “the following are my suggestions” allows for students to maintain ownership over their work and consider how and if they will implement feedback suggestions.

### ***Scaffolding Grading***

The findings of the study show that students value feedback that provides solutions to problems and view it as scaffolded instruction. Planning class instruction and modeling for specific aspects of writing, such as claim or organization, and then focusing on specific criteria for feedback may help students apply this learning to their writing. It may also facilitate better peer review discussions. To counter the pervasive pressure of grading, scaffolded grading criteria can be utilized. Current practice for grading is to use a rubric that includes all FYW criteria, even if certain criterion has not yet been introduced in class. Because students may not have background in that area, the rubric does not provide a valid assessment. Teachers must understand and respect that students have rich literacy practices outside the university, but they may not yet have mastered this new academic discourse. Also, allowing students to revise papers for a higher grade with the requirement that they meet with their instructor for a feedback conversation can help students further master skills.

### ***Creating Feedback Conversations***

The findings of the present study indicate that students perceive feedback as a conversation, but they are actually implementing feedback from the teacher as a directive that they must incorporate. The extant literature finds that feedback should be viewed as conversation (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Englert et al., 1991; Sommers, 2006) with the writer being in control of the product (Sprinkle 2004). Because feedback is still primarily given from the perspective or viewpoint of the instructor (Still & Koerber, 2010), students are not used to viewing feedback as conversation and must learn to do so. Incorporating feedback “talks” (Englert et al., 1991) after students receive feedback from drafts can facilitate understanding and application of feedback. Requiring that students write reflective notes (Ducasse & Hill, 2019) provides a way for student-directed dialogue to occur. Students struggle with viewing peer review as a collaborative effort rather than assessment of their skills. Students need to “unlearn” the perception of peer review as evaluation. Creating work groups that discuss writing before they have a draft can create a safe space to discuss writing and practice feedback conversations before introducing the written product.

### ***Feedback Features that Create Engagement***

Because students engage with marginal notes at a higher rate, it is important to make them the primary written method of feedback. Keeping feedback in the margins and using language that provides students with guidance can create effective scaffolding. While end notes are commonly used in FYW classrooms as a summative feedback note, study findings suggest that students are not using these notes. Instead providing marginal notes on Google Docs and then using a Screencasting tool, such as Google’s

Screencastify to explain those notes can replace end notes. Viewing feedback as conversation, students can respond directly to these notes in the document. Screencastify also allows the teacher to create a video of the students' paper where the teacher scrolls through it and points to parts of the paper, where she can explain marginal feedback and show students other areas in which they can apply that feedback. Using this method can also help students understand how to apply deeper revision to the entire paper. Students have noted that hearing the tone of voice of their teacher is reassuring, and it helps them know that "the teacher is not mad" at them. Finally, this method also promotes the teacher as mentor and student as apprentice relationship while they work together to create the finished product.

**Praise as a Teaching Tool.** Because praise does not provide instruction or learning (Hattie & Timperly, 2007), students often disregard it. Findings of the present study suggest that although students value praise, they do not know how to use it to revise their papers. Praise is a valuable motivator (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and can help students to become more independent from the teacher. Viewing feedback as collaborative scaffolding, student expertise can be leveraged to help students apply, share, and view their expertise as valuable. One way to utilize praise is to assign students who performed well in certain topics to be workshop leaders. In small groups, students can lead the discussion on how they used their writing method to create their claim, organize their paper, choose evidence, etc. Using praise in this manner may help align students' perceptions of praise as a valuable revision tool to its implementation.

**Table 31***Action Research Plan*

<b>Major Finding</b>	<b>Classroom Solution</b>
<p><i>Negative Affect of Writing Feedback</i></p> <p>Findings suggest that students value feedback and find it motivating, but that negative perceptions of feedback can damage student success.</p> <p>Students often view teacher feedback as directives and try to use all feedback because teacher is authority.</p>	<p><i>Create a Positive Feedback Discourse</i></p> <p>Eliminate negative words and directive, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wrong</li> <li>• Mistake</li> <li>• Fix</li> <li>• Do the following</li> <li>• Your sources should</li> </ul> <p>Replace with language that implies collaboration:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consider. .</li> <li>• The following are suggestions . .</li> <li>• Think about ways you might . . .</li> <li>• What ways do you think . . .?</li> <li>• Choose sources that . . .</li> </ul>
<p><i>Scaffolding Valued</i></p> <p>Study findings indicate that students want scaffolded feedback to solve writing problems.</p> <p>Feedback can be overwhelming or vague.</p> <p>Feedback not used as exchange of ideas.</p>	<p><i>Scaffolding Grading</i></p> <p>Focusing instruction on one FYW criterion at a time allows for scaffolded feedback, peer review, and grading.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide scaffolded feedback on one area, i.e., claim, organization, etc.</li> <li>• Design peer review based on that one area</li> <li>• Use grading rubric based on that criterion (or what has been taught in class up to that point)</li> </ul>
<p><i>Feedback as Dialogic</i></p> <p>Study findings indicate that students view feedback as a collaborative conversation, but they do not utilize it as such.</p> <p>Students value peer review but are often reluctant to take part in it. Negative affect is often associated with the process being evaluative.</p>	<p><i>Creating Feedback Conversation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hold feedback conversations with students after they receive feedback on drafts.</li> <li>• Have students create reflective notes based on feedback received.</li> <li>• Create peer discussion groups before beginning peer review process.</li> </ul>



<p><i>Feedback Features Preference</i></p> <p>Study findings indicate that students prefer marginal notes to end notes.</p> <p>Students implement feedback from marginal notes more consistently.</p> <p>Students find end notes difficult as a result of having to make major changes and being overwhelmed.</p>	<p><i>Using Engaging Feedback Features</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use shared Google Doc for marginal notes and urge student to respond to notes.</li> <li>• Replace end notes with a video explaining notes and application (Screencastify).</li> </ul>
<p><i>Praise not Used for Revision</i></p> <p>Study findings suggest that although students view praise as a tool for revision, as presently received (no instruction), they find it has no benefit as a tool for revision.</p>	<p><i>Using Praise as a Tool for Revision</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Create student workshop groups based on what students do well, in which students with expertise teach other students the skill.</li> </ul>

## Conclusion

The findings from this study add to the extant literature on student perceptions of feedback. Often students from under-resourced schools may arrive on campus without the necessary background to be successful in writing. This study filled the gap in the research concerning academically underprepared students and research on feedback perceptions and implementation. The findings indicate that this population is still developing as writers and must transition from viewing teacher as authority to viewing writing as a collaborative, social process in which student and teacher work together. In order to do so, teachers must position and value all student voices as equal and not only guide students through scaffolded feedback to develop their writing, but also help students to learn to develop their writing voice. The significance of empowering this group extends beyond the writing classrooms to topics of social justice and equity. When this group arrives at the university, instructors need to adjust their expectations, so they are aligned with the needs of their students. The findings from this study and the action research plan

can help instructors better understand this vulnerable community, support students as they transition into the academic writing community, and create agency.

## APPENDIX A

### Consent for Study



THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION



**MONTCLAIR STATE**  
UNIVERSITY

Title: Academically Underprepared First Year Writing Students' Perceptions and Implementation of Writing Feedback

Study Number: IRB-FY2020-496

Dear WRIT106 Student,

I am currently conducting a research study to learn about how students perceive teacher and peer feedback, and how they use it to revise their drafts. I am especially interested in learning how students who may not have had extensive writing experience in high school feel about feedback and how it helps them develop as writers.

I am conducting this study as part of my doctoral dissertation, and I am being supervised by Dr. Olivia Stewart at St. John's University.

Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and does not require anything outside of class. I will be giving our classes a survey to complete, and the other data will come from our regular course procedures (teacher and peer feedback, writing reflections, peer review, and drafts of essays). In addition, during our regular course meeting, I may ask you to answer some additional questions about feedback. With your permission, I will record those meetings. Those interviews will be transcribed and only your responses on feedback will be used for the study. The video will not be used in research.

Your decision to participate will in no way affect your grade. You may choose to withdraw at any time. Dr. Jennifer Holly Wells will collect consent forms via a Qualtrics survey. She will remove any identifying information from the survey and will not give me access to the consent forms until after grades have been posted.

To ensure confidentiality, students will be given pseudonyms for **all data collected** during data analysis and data storage. A master list with real names and pseudonyms will be created and stored with this consent form in a password protected folder. Confidentiality will be strictly maintained.

This study will benefit other first year writing instructors in learning how to give effective feedback that helps students revise their papers. I will be happy to share my

findings with any of you when my research is complete, sometime in the Spring of 2021. You can email me any time ([reganj@montclair.edu](mailto:reganj@montclair.edu))

If you have any questions concerning the research study, your consent form, or identification or removal of your consent, please contact me via email ([reganj@montclair.edu](mailto:reganj@montclair.edu)) or Dr. Holly Wells ([hollywellsj@montclair.edu](mailto:hollywellsj@montclair.edu)).

This study has been approved by both St. John's and MSU's Institutional Review Boards. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at St. John's through [irbstjohns.stjohns.edu](mailto:irbstjohns.stjohns.edu) or 718-990-1440 or the Phone or email the IRB Chair, Dr. Dana Levitt, at 973-655-2097 or [reviewboard@montclair.edu](mailto:reviewboard@montclair.edu).

As part of this study, it is okay to record our Zoom interviews:  
Please initial: \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

**One copy of this consent form is for you to keep.**

#### **Statement of Consent**

I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement, and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature also indicates that I am 18 years of age or older and have received a copy of this consent form.

By signing your name below, you are agreeing to be part of the study.

**APPENDIX B**  
**Survey on Writing Perceptions**

Q1 Name

---

Q2 Age

- ☐ 17-19
- ☐ 20-22
- ☐ 23-25
- ☐ 26-28
- ☐ 29+

Q3 Gender Identity

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Preferred Term 

---

Q4 Ethnicity

- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ Hispanic or Latino
- ☐ White
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ American Indian
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Other

Q5 The following questionnaire is about the feedback you receive from your teacher and peers on your essay writing. What I refer to feedback, I am referring to the comments that you receive from your teacher or peer that can help you revise your drafts.

Q6 How many papers did you write for your senior English class year?

- ☐ 1

- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5+

Q7 When assigned those high school papers, were you assigned multiple drafts or just assigned one draft and turned that in for a grade?

- 1 Draft (Final Draft)
- 2 Drafts (Rough Draft & Final Draft)
- 3 Drafts (Exploratory, Middle, & Final Drafts)
- More than 3 drafts

Q8 What types of feedback have you received on your draft during high school? Choose all that apply.

- Marginal teacher comments on draft—questions and comments that are written in the margin of your paper to help you write your next draft
- End comments on a draft—Teacher provides comments at the end of a draft and provides suggestions for improvement on final draft/graded essay
- End comment on final draft--Teacher provides grade, justification for grade and suggestions for improvement and praise
- Rewrites of sentences and grammar
- Peer Feedback
- Rubric—Just points measured on rubric; no written or verbal feedback
- None

If none of the previous answers applied to your experience receiving feedback during high school, please explain here.

---

The following group of statements are about how students perceive teacher and peer feedback. Please rate the following questions with how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement based on your own experiences. Use this scale to rate each statement from 1-5, with 1 being a statement you strongly disagree with and 5 being a statement you strongly agree with.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. Feedback motivates me to revise my paper.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I find feedback very critical, and it makes me feel like a bad writer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. When an instructor does not provide feedback, it feels like the instructor does not care about my paper.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I am comfortable getting feedback from my peers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I am comfortable giving feedback to my peers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I don't always understand or know how to use the feedback the teacher gives me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. I feel like I have to make all the feedback changes that the teacher suggested, even when I do not agree with them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8 I find teacher end comments that deal with bigger issues, like organization, claim, development, and analysis, very valuable in revising my paper.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. I find praise and positive feedback to be the most useful comments for revising.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. When revising my paper, I value marginal notes that help me examine particular parts of my paper.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. I find feedback that tells me exactly how to change my paper and provides solutions to problems most helpful.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Feedback helps me improve my writing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following group of statements are about how students perceive teacher and peer feedback. Please rate the following questions with how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement based on your own experiences. Use this scale to rate each statement from 1-5, with 1 being a statement you strongly disagree with and 5 being a statement you strongly agree with.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
13. Feedback that is personal and individualized is helpful for revision.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. I read and use teacher feedback to revise my papers and make them stronger.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. I view feedback as a conversation about my writing, where I have choices and can further discuss it with my teacher.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. I value the feedback given to me by my peers and use it to revise my papers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. In peer review, I find reviewing others' papers helps me revise my papers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q1 Briefly describe how getting feedback from teacher and peers makes you feel.

---

Q2 Briefly explain how teacher and peer writing feedback helps you revise.

---

Q3 Do you feel teacher or peer feedback is more helpful to your revision process? Or are they the same? Please explain.

---



## APPENDIX C

### Essay Assignment

Essay 2  
Documented Essay  
Applying Critical Literary Theory

#### REQUIREMENTS:

- 2 outside sources + literature=3 sources total; You may use one piece of literary criticism to support your views. All sources must be academic—no Wikipedia or Internet sources.

#### ASSIGNMENT

The genre of fairy tales and children's literature is often used to teach children about the appropriate ways to function in society. These cautionary tales often reflect the moral behavior and social conventions of the time in which they were written.

In addition, comic books/superheroes are also reflections of the values as well as the fears and needs of the society in which they are created. The superheroes are often deeply flawed people with psychological needs that motivate them to maintain a disguised hero status.

For this assignment, choose a fairy tale or comic book hero/movie to analyze (You can compare one aspect of multiple versions or just focus on one. You may also pick a tale/hero that is specific to your own culture). Choose one critical lens from which to examine the work. Think about how lens opens up the work? Lenses will overlap, but the claim should focus on one theory.

Your claim should state an argument based on your interpretation of the piece. It should include:

**Topic:** Piece that you are analyzing: In the Grimm brothers' "Red Cap," Angela Carter's "Company of Wolves," and the movie *Freeway*, the Red Riding Hood character . . .

**Position:** The focus of your paper—the way you are using the lens to examine the piece, but do not call it a lens.

--reflects the role of women in each time period

**Why/How:** Why is this interpretation important? How does it open up the meaning of the work?

Because the role is unfair, and this oppression eventually upsets society through acts of rebellion

Claim: In the Grimm brothers' "Red Cap," Angela Carter's "Company of Wolves," and the movie *Freeway*, the Red Riding Hood character reflects the role of women in each time period. This role is unfairly dictated by the patriarchal society that created each Red, and this oppression results in acts of rebellion that upset the status quo

## APPENDIX D

### Peer Review 1 Assignment

Writer:

Peer Reviewer:

Peer Review on Conversation with Sources

Complete the following tasks. Answer questions **using the comment feature on Canvas**. When appropriate, number your responses:

- 1) Highlight the topic sentence of the body paragraph.
  - a. In a comment box, summarize the main idea of the paragraph.
- 2) Identify the evidence in the paragraph.
  - a. Highlight evidence in one color.
  - b. Highlight the introduction to the evidence in another color.
  - c. Finally, highlight the analysis of the evidence in a third color.
  - d. In a comment box, are all key components included—introduction/analysis/proper citation? If not, explain.
  - e. In a comment box, create a key to your color coding.

Using the comment box, number and then answer the following.

- 3) Is the evidence paraphrased?
- 4) In a text box, in a few sentences, explain how evidence relates to each other.
- 5) Does it support the topic sentence? Explain.
- 6) Do all the sentences support the topic sentence? Identify any that do not.
- 7) Based on your reading of this paragraph, what do you think the claim might be?

Finally, **in the comment box on the right side of the page**, provide one commendation—something the writer did well—and one recommendation for revision. (You must use this for the peer review to marked complete).

## **APPENDIX E**

### **Peer Review 2 Assignment**

#### Questions for Peer Review: Introduction and Conclusion

##### Introduction

- 1) Does your peer use a hook? What type of hook? If none is used, then make a suggestion based on what you have learned about introductions?
- 2) Does the writer satisfactorily provide context by connecting the hook to the claim and establishing common ground? If not, provide a suggestion.
- 3) Does the introduction set up the claim? Is the claim arguable and specific? Can you tell which lens is used?
- 4) Does the introduction include the name of literature/movie and author/director?
- 5) Finally, what is the significance of the claim (according to the claim) or why is this topic important?

##### Conclusion

- 1) Does the writer restate the main idea of the paper?
- 2) Does the writer summarize key ideas?
- 3) Does the conclusion provide an answer to the claim?
- 4) Does the writer provide a new significance (connection to claim, call for research, another reason this is important)?

**APPENDIX F**  
**Peer Review 3 Assignment**

**Peer Review Essay 2**

**Writer:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Reviewer:** \_\_\_\_\_

- Share your google doc with your partner.
- Then, take a few minutes to explain what your goal is for your paper—what is your interpretation of the literature, the lens you used to help shape your discussion, and why this interpretation is important.
- Read the entire essay. Number the paragraphs and then start your peer review.

**Use this worksheet to review your peer's questions. Share it with your peer when you are finished and upload for credit.**

- 1) Identify and evaluate the writer's hook and bridge statements. Does the hook connect strongly to the topic? Do the bridge sentences explain the hook and set up the claim? If not, provide your peer with a suggestion that will help them revise.
- 2) Cut and paste the claim here. Write down the topic/position/ and how it answers why this topic is important. Are all components of a strong claim included? Is it specific enough? Do you know what lens the writer is using? If not, provide your peer with a suggestion that will help them revise.
- 3) Write the claim as a question:
- 4) Find the statement that provides the main idea of each paragraph. Then cut and paste those statements here. Number each statement with the same number as the paragraph.
- 5) Do they answer the question in the claim? Do they provide a reason the claim is true? If not, provide your peer with a suggestion that will help them revise.

- 6) Reviewing the main idea statements in #4, do you think of the paragraphs can be moved for a better organization? If so, explain here.
- 7) Review each paragraph.
  - a. Does each paragraph focus on one significant idea? If not, identify the idea that does not belong and the number of the paragraph.
  - b. Does each paragraph include evidence from literature?
  - c. Do most paragraphs include evidence from outside sources?
  - d. Is evidence introduced and analyzed?
  - e. Is evidence from outside sources paraphrased?
  - f. Are ideas between sources connected?
- 8) Using the number of the paragraph, respond to the above. If there are any issues, provide your peer with a suggestion that will help them revise. You may also respond using side comments in Google doc.
- 9) Are there significant transitions between paragraphs? Which paragraphs are lacking transitions? You may also respond using side comments in Google doc.
- 10) Review your peer's conclusion. Does it restate the main idea, summarizes key points, and answer the question in the claim? What other method is used in the conclusion to make it effective? If necessary, provide your peer with a suggestion that will help them revise.
- 11) If there are any places in the paper that you feel are unclear or where you may have been confused, please identify them for your peer. You can use the Google comment feature to do so.
- 12) Provide two commendations on the paper—what does your peer do really well?
- 13) Provide two suggestions for improvement.

Now, work as a copy editor. Proofread your peer's paper looking for the following:

- Errors in MLA formatting (check Purdue OWL if you are unsure of correct formatting)
- Spelling Problems
- Look for run-ons and fragments:

- All sentences must have a subject and predicate and express a complete thought.
  - After I go to school—fragment
  - After I go to school, I attend my piano lesson.—Complete thought.
- Run-on sentence
  - Comma is used to join two sentences—comma splice or sentences are fused with no punctuation.
  - I go to music history class, I take piano lessons.—Comma splice
  - I go to music history class I take piano lessons.—Fused sentences
- Correct run-ons
  - I go to music history class; I take piano lessons. Use a semicolon
  - I go to music history class, and I take piano lessons. Use a comma and a coordinating conjunction (and, but, for, nor, or, yet).
  - I go to music history class. I take piano lessons. Break into two sentences.
- Note any errors you come across, such as confusion between possessive and plural nouns, misuse of it's/its, and incorrect usage. If you are not sure if something is correct, discuss it with your partner and then see if you can look up the answers online.

RETURN TO YOUR PEER.

READ EACH OTHER'S COMMENTS AND ASK DISCUSS.

COMPLETE THE SURVEY AFTER READING YOUR PEER'S COMMENTS.



## **APPENDIX H**

### **Interview Questions**

#### **Semi-Structured Interview Questions**

10-15 mins. Total

1.
  - a. In your opinion, what makes good feedback?
  - b. Can you give me an example of good feedback?
  - c. What would you consider “bad feedback”?
  - d. Can you give me an example?
  
2.
  - a. After you read the feedback from your teacher, how do you decide which pieces of feedback to use to revise your paper?
  - b. Describe your process for using feedback for revision.
  - c. What parts do you find most challenging?
  
3.
  - a. Have you ever experienced “negative” feedback?
  - b. If so, how did you respond.
  - c. In your opinion is positive feedback or praise important?
  - d. Do you think it is just as helpful in making revisions as instructional feedback? Why?
  
4.
  - a. In your experience, including this class, do you feel like teacher and peer feedback gives you an opportunity to discuss changes or do you feel like you have to make the suggested changes? Why?
  - b. What can help make feedback more of a conversation or make you feel more involved in the process?
  
5.
  - a. Do you find peer review useful?
  - b. Why or why not?
  - c. What parts of the process are most helpful, and what is not helpful?
  - d. Why?
  - e. If you use peer feedback in your revisions, how do you decide which comments to use?



## REFERENCES

- Agius, N. M., & Wilkinson, A. (2013). Students' and teachers' views of written feedback at undergraduate level: A literature review. *Nurse Education Today*, 34(4), 552–559. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2013.07.005>
- Altrichter, H., Posch, P. & Somekh, B. (1993) *Teachers investigate their work: An introduction to the methods of action research*. Routledge.
- Anton, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Sociocognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Journal*, 54, 314–342. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.54.3.314>
- Athanases, S. Z., & de Oliveira, L. C. (2014). Scaffolding versus routine support for Latina/o youth in an urban school: tensions in building toward disciplinary literacy. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 46(2), 263–299.
- Atwell, N. (1987). *In the middle: Writing, reading, and learning with adolescents*. Boynton/Cook.
- Barnard, R. De Luca, R. & Li, J. (2015). First year undergraduate students' perceptions of lecturer and peer feedback: A New Zealand action research project. *Studies in Higher Education* 40(5), 933–944.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.881343>
- Bazerman, C. (2017). What do sociocultural studies of writing tell us about learning to write? In C. MacArthur, S. Graham & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research*. (2nd ed., pp. 11-23). Guildford Press.
- Beach, R., & Friedrich, T. (2006). Response to writing. In C. MacArthur, S. Graham & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (pp. 222–234). Guildford Press.

- Beach, R., Newell, G.E., & VanDerHeide, J. (2017). A sociocultural perspective on writing development: Toward an agenda for classroom research on students' use of social practices. In MacArthur, C. Graham, S. & Fitzgerald, J. (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research*. (2nd ed., pp. 88-101). Guildford Press.
- Beil, C., & Knight, M. A. (2007). Understanding the gap between high school and college writing. *Assessment Update*, 19(6), 6–8.
- Berger, R., & Hänze, M. (2015). Impact of expert teaching quality on novice academic performance in the jigsaw cooperative learning method. *International Journal of Science Education*, 37(2), 294–320. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2014.985757>
- Black, P. & William, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education*, 5(1), 7–74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0969595980050102>
- Bijami, M., Ambigapathy, P., & Singh, M. (2016). The relationship between teachers' written feedback and student writing performance: Sociocultural perspective. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 4(1), 59-66. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.4n.1p.59>
- Bottia, M., Giersch, J., Mickelson, R., Stearns, E., & Moller, S. (2016). Distributive justice antecedents of race and gender disparities in first-year college performance. *Social Justice Research*, 29(1), 35-72. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-015-0242-x>
- Boud, D., & Molloy, E. (2013). Rethinking models of feedback for learning: The challenge of design. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 38(6), 698–712.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory*

- and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241-258). Greenwood Press.
- Bretz, S. L., & McClary, L. (2014). Students' understandings of acid strength: how meaningful is reliability when measuring alternative conceptions? *Journal of Chemical Education*, 92(2), 212–219.
- Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and quality in social research*. Unwin Hyman.
- Caffarella, R. S., & Barnett, B. G. (2000). Teaching doctoral students to become scholarly writers: The importance of giving and receiving critiques. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(1), 39–52.
- Calhoun-Dillahunt, C., & Forrest, D. (2013). Conversing in marginal spaces: developmental writers' responses to teacher comments. *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, 40(3), 230–247.
- Calhoun, E.F. (1994). *How to use action research in the self-renewing school*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Instruction.
- Calkins, L. (1994). *The Art of Teaching Writing*. Heinemann.
- Carbone, P.M., & Orellana, M.F. (2010). Developing academic identities: Persuasive writing as a tool to strengthen emergent academic identities. *Research in The Teaching of English*, 44, 292-316.
- Carless, D. (2006). Differing perceptions in the feedback process. *Studies in Higher Education*, 31(2), 219-233, <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070600572132>.
- Carless, D. (2016). Feedback as dialogue. In Peters M. (ed) *Encyclopedia of educational philosophy and theory*. Springer Publishing. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-532-7\\_389-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-532-7_389-1)
- Carless, D., Salter, D., Min, Y. and Lam, J. (2011). Developing sustainable feedback

practices. *Studies in Higher Education* 36(4): 395–407.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/03075071003642449>

Charmaz, K. (2001) Grounded theory. In R.M. Emerson (ed.), *Contemporary field research: Perspectives and formulations* (2nd ed., pp. 335-52). Waveland Press.

Charmaz K. (2002) . Qualitative interviewing and grounded theory analysis. In J. F. Gubrium & J.A. Holstein (Eds.) *Handbook of interview research: Context & method*. (pp.675-94). Sage Publishing.

Charmaz, K. (2008) Grounded theory. In J.A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. (2nd. ed., pp. 81-110) Sage Publishing.

Charmaz, K. (2014) *Constructing grounded theory*. (2nd. ed). Sage Publishing.

Charteris, J. (2016). Dialogic feedback as divergent assessment for learning: An Ecological approach to teacher professional development. *Critical Studies in Education*, 57(3), 277–295. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2015.1057605>

Chen, X. & Simone, S. (2016). Remedial coursetaking at US public 2- and 4-year institutions: Scope, experiences, and outcomes. *National Center for Education Statistics*. U.S Department of Education.  
<https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2016/2016405.pdf>

Christie, Chris. (2014, Jan. 14) *New Jersey state of the state address*. [Video] C.Span  
<https://www.c-span.org/video/?317179-1/jersey-state-state-address>

Cilesiz, S. & Drotos, S. (2016). High-poverty urban high school students' plans for higher education: Weaving their own safety nets. *Urban Education* 51(1), 3-31.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085914543115>

Coffey, H. (2009). Formative assessment. The University of North Carolina at

- Chapel Hill, School of Education. <http://www.learnnc.org/lp/pages/5212>
- Connors, R. & Lunsford, A. (1993). Teachers' rhetorical comments on student papers. *College Composition and Communication*, 44(2), 200-233.
- Cole, M. (1996). *Cultural psychology: A once and future discipline*. Belknap Press.
- Corey, S. M (1953). *Action research to improve school practices*. Teachers College Columbia University.
- Council of Writing Program Administrators (2014). WPA outcomes statement for first-year composition. *WPA: Writing Program Administration* 38(1) 129-143. [http://wpacouncil.org/aws/CWPA/pt/sd/news\\_article/243055/\\_PARENT/layout\\_details/false](http://wpacouncil.org/aws/CWPA/pt/sd/news_article/243055/_PARENT/layout_details/false)
- Creswell, J.(2015). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Sage Publishing.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16(3), 297–334. <https://doi:10.1007/bf02310555>.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage Publishing.
- DeAngelo, L., & Franke, R. (2016). Social mobility and reproduction for whom? College readiness and first year retention. *American Educational Research Journal*, 53(6), 1588-1625. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831216674805>
- DeGuerrero, M. C. , & Villamil, O. S. (1994). Social-cognitive dimensions of interactions in L2 peer revision. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 484-496. <https://doi.org/10.2307/328586>
- Denzin, N. (1978). *Sociological methods: A sourcebook*. McGraw-Hill.

- DiCamilla, F., & Anton, M. (1997). Repetition in the collaborative discourse of L2 learners: A Vygotskian perspective. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53, 609-633.
- Dijks, M. A., Brummer, L., & Kostons, D. (2018). The anonymous reviewer: The relationship between perceived expertise and the perceptions of peer feedback in higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43(8), 1258–1271. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1447645>
- Donahue, C., & Foster-Johnson, L. (2018). Liminality and transition: Text features in postsecondary student writing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 52(4), 359-381.
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf, & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33-56). Ablex.
- Ducasse, A.M., & Hill, K. (2019). Developing student feedback literacy using educational technology and the reflective feedback conversation. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education Journal*, 12(1), 24-37.
- Ekholm, E., Zumbrunn, S., & Conklin, S. (2015). The relation of college student self-efficacy toward writing and writing self-regulation aptitude: Writing feedback perceptions as a mediating variable. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20(2), 197-207.
- Ekşî, G. Y. (2012). Peer Review versus teacher feedback in process writing: How effective? *International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*, 13(1), 33–48.
- Engeström, Y. (2014). *Learning by expanding: An activity-theoretical approach to*

*developmental research*. Cambridge University Press.

- Englert, C. S. (1992). Writing instruction from a sociocultural perspective: The holistic, dialogic, and social enterprise of writing. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 25(3), 153–172. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949202500303>
- Englert, C.S., Mariage, T. & Dunsmore, K.. (2016). Tenets of sociocultural theory in writing instruction research. In C. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *The Handbook of Writing Research* (pp. 208-221). Guilford Press.
- Englert, C. S., Raphael, T. M., Anderson, L. M., Anthony, H. M., & Stevens, D. D. (1991). Making strategies and self-talk visible: Writing instruction in regular and special education classrooms. *American Educational Research Journal*, 28(2), 337–372. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1162944>
- Falchikov, N., & Goldfinch, J. (2000). Student peer assessment in higher education: A meta-analysis comparing peer and teacher marks. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3), 287-322.
- Fanetti, S. Bushrow, K. & DeWeese, D. (2010). Closing the gap between high school writing instruction and college writing expectations. *The English Journal*, 99(4), 77-83.
- Fairclough, N. (2001). *Language and power* (2nd ed.). Longman.
- Flowers, L. and Hayes, J.R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication*, 32, 365-387. <https://doi.org/10.2307/356600>
- Freire, P. (1972). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Herder and Herder.
- Garrett, N. Bridgewater, M. & Feinstein, B. (2017). How student performance in first-

- year composition predicts retention and overall student access. In T. Ruecker (Ed.), *Retention, persistence, and writing programs*, (pp. 93-113), Utah State University Press. <https://doi.org/10.7330/9781607326021.c006>
- Gee, J.P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in Discourses*. NeFalmer.
- Gee, J. P. (1999). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method*. Routledge.
- Gee., J.P. (2000). Identity as an analytic lens for research in education. *Review of Research in Education*, 25, 99-125.
- Gere, A. (Ed.). (2019). *Developing writers in higher education: A longitudinal study*. University of Michigan Press.
- Gilbert, J., Graham, S. (2010). Teaching writing to elementary students in Grades 4 to 6: A national survey. *Elementary School Journal*, 110, 494–518.
- Glau, G.R. (2007). “Stretch” at 10: A progress report on Arizona State University’s “Stretch Program.” *Journal of Basic Writing*, 26(2), 32-50.
- Glickman, C.D. (1992). The essence of school renewal: the prose has begun. *Educational Leadership*, 50(1), 24-27.
- Graham, S. (2019). Changing how writing is taught. *Review of Research in Education*, 43(1), 277–303.
- Graves, D. H., & Kittle, P. (2005). *Inside writing: How to teach the details of craft*. Pearson Education.
- Guba, E.G. , & Lincoln. Y.S. (1989). What is this constructivist paradigm anyway?. In *Fourth Generation Evaluation*, (79-116).Sage Publishing.
- Gulley, B. (2012). Feedback on developmental writing students’ first drafts. *Journal of*



*Developmental Education*, 36(1), 16-18.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as a social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Edvard Arnold.

Hallman, Rebecca. (2012) Investigating commenting formats and content in first year composition and the virtual writing center. [Doctoral Dissertation: University of Louisville].

Harklau, L. (2011). Commentary: Adolescent L2 writing research as an emerging field. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20, 227-230.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112.

Heath, S.B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Henderson, M., Boud, D., Molloy, E., Dawson, P., Phillips, M., Ryan, T. & Mahoney, P. (2018). *Feedback for learning. Closing the assessment loop. Framework for effective learning*. Australian Government, Department for Education and Training. <http://newmediaresearch.educ.monash.edu.au/feedback/>

Henry, L. & Stahl, N. (2017). Dismantling the developmental education pipeline: Potent pedagogies and promising practices that address the college readiness gap. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 60(6), 611-616.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.640>

Higgins, R. (2000). "Be more critical": rethinking assessment feedback, [Paper Presentation]. British Educational Research Association Conference, Cardiff University. <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00001548.htm>.

- Higgins, R., Hartley, P., & Skelton, A. (2002). The conscientious consumer: Reconsidering the role of assessment feedback in student learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, 27(1), 53-64. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070120099368>
- Hogg, M.A., Abrams, D., & Martin, G.N. (2010). Social cognition and attitudes. In Martin, G.N., Carlson, N.R., Buskist, W., (Ed.), *Psychology* (pp 646-677). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Holmes, K., & Papageorgiou, G. (2009). Good, bad and insufficient: Students' expectations, perceptions and uses of feedback. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 8(1), 85-96.
- Hovarda S. T., Tsivitanidou, O. E., & Zacharia, Z. C. (2014). Peer versus expert feedback: An investigation of the quality of peer feedback among secondary school students. *Computers & Education*, 71, 133–152. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2013.09.019>
- Hsiang, T., Graham, S., Wong, P. (2018). Teaching writing in Grades 7–9 in urban schools in the Greater China Region. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 53, 473–507.
- Hughes, G. D. (2012). Teacher retention: Teacher characteristics, school characteristics, organizational characteristics, and teacher efficacy. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 105(4), 245–255. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2011.584922>
- Huisman, B., Saab, N., van Driel, J., & van den Broek, P. (2018). Peer feedback on academic writing: Undergraduate students' peer feedback role, peer feedback perceptions and essay performance. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43(6), 955–968. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1424318>
- Hull, G.A. (1999). Literacy and labeling. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 42,

540-544.

Hussar, B., Zhang, J., Hein, S., Wang, K., Roberts, A., Cui, J., Smith, M., Bullock Mann, F., Barmer, A., and Dilig, R. (2020). *The Condition of Education 2020* (NCES 2020-144). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved Dec. 2020 from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2020144>.

Hyland, F. (1998). The impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7(3), 255-286. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(98\)90017-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90017-0)

Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2001). Sugaring the pill: Praise and criticism in written feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(3), 185–212.

Irvin, M. J., Meece, J. L., Byun, S., Farmer, T. W., & Hutchins, B. C. (2011). Relationship of school context to rural youth's educational achievement and aspirations. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 40(9), 1225–1242. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-011-9628-8>.

Ivankova, N.V., & Wingo, N. (2018). Applying mixed methods in action research: Methodological potentials and advantages. *American Behaviorist Scientist* 62(7), 978-997. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764218772673>

Joshi, A., Kale, S., Chandel, S., & Pal, D. K. (2015). Likert scale: Explored and explained. *Current Journal of Applied Science and Technology*, 7(4), 396-403. <https://doi.org/10.9734/BJAST/2015/14975>

Kaufman, J., & Schunn, C. (2011). Students perceptions about peer assessment for

- writing: Their origin and impact on revision work. *Instructional Science*, 39 387-406. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-010-9133-6>
- Kivunja, C. & Kuyini, A.B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education* 6(5), 26-41. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26>
- Kroll, B. (2001) .Considerations for teaching an ESL/EFL writing course. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.) (pp.219-232). Heinle and Heinle.
- Kwok, M., Ganding, E., Hull G. & Moje, E.B. (2017). Sociocultural approaches to high school writing instruction: Examining the roles of context, positionality, and power. In MacArthur, C. Graham, S. & J. Fitzgerald, (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research*. (2nd ed., pp. 88-101). Guildford Press.
- Lavrakas, P. J. (2008). *Encyclopedia of survey research methods* (Vols. 1-0). Sage Publishing. <https://doi: 10.4135/9781412963947>
- Lei, S., Rhinehart, P., Howard, H., & Cho, J. (2010). Strategies for improving reading comprehension among college students. *Reading Improvement*, 47(1), 30–42.
- Leki, I. (1990) Coaching from the margins: issues in written response. In Kroll B (ed.) *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*. Cambridge University Press, 57–68.
- Lewis, C., Enciso, P. E., & Moje, E. B. (Eds.). (2007). *Reframing sociocultural research on literacy: Identity, agency, and power*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Li, J., & De Luca, R. (2014). Review of assessment feedback. *Studies in Higher Education* 39(2), 378-393 <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2012.709494>

- Lidz, C. S. (1991). *Practitioners' guide to dynamic assessment*. Guilford Press.
- Lingard, L., Albert, M., & Levinson, W. (2008). Grounded theory, mixed methods, and action research. *The BMJ: British Medical Journal*, 337(7667), 459-461.
- Liu, N., & Carless, D. (2006). Peer feedback: The learning element of peer assessment. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11(3), 279-290.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510600680582>
- Lizzio, A., & Wilson, Keithia (2008). Feedback on assessment: students' perceptions of quality and effectiveness. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(3). 263-275. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930701292548>
- Lu, R., & Bol, L. (2007). A comparison of anonymous versus identifiable e-peer review on college student writing performance and the extent of critical feedback. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 6(2) 100-115.
- Lundstrom, K., & Baker, W. (2009). To give is better than to receive: The benefits of peer review to the reviewer's own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(1), 30-43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2008.06.002>
- MacArthur, C. (2017) Instruction in evaluation and revision, In C. MacArthur, S. Graham & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research*. (2nd ed., pp. 272-287). The Guildford Press.
- MacDougall, L., Mtika, P., Reid, I., & Weir, D. (2013). Enhancing feedback in student-teacher field experience in Scotland: The role of school-university partnership. *Professional Development in Education*, 39(3), 420-437.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2012.762633>
- Marrs, S. A. (2016). Development of the student perceptions of writing feedback scale.

[Doctoral Dissertation: Virginia Commonwealth University]

- Martí, Joel. (2018) Measuring in action research: Four ways of integrating quantitative methods in participatory dynamics. *Action Research* 14(2), 168-183.  
<http://doi.org/10.1177/1476750315590883>
- Martorell, P., & McFarlin, I., Jr. (2011). Help or hindrance? The effects of college remediation on academic and labor market outcomes. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 93(2), 436–454. [https://doi.org/10.1162/REST\\_a\\_00098](https://doi.org/10.1162/REST_a_00098)
- McLeod, S. (1987). Some thoughts about feelings: The affective domain and the writing process. *College Composition and Communication*, 38, 426-435.
- Miles, M.B., & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: an expanded sourcebook*. 2nd ed. Sage Publishing.
- Moss, B. G., Kelcey, B., & Showers, N. (2014). Does classroom composition matter? College classrooms as moderators of developmental education effectiveness. *Community College Review*, 42(3), 201-220.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0091552114529153>
- Mulliner, E., & Tucker, M. (2017) Feedback on feedback practice: perceptions of students and academics, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 42(2), 266-288, <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2015.1103365>
- Mustafa, R. F. (2012). Feedback on the feedback: Sociocultural interpretation of Saudi ESL learners' opinions about writing feedback. *English Language Teaching* 5(3), 3-15. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n3p3>.
- National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). (2011). *National Center for Education Statistics Report Card*. U.S Department of Education.

- National Center for Education Statistics (2012). The Nation's Report Card: Writing 2011 (NCES 2012-470). Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.
- National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES). (2016). *The Condition of Education*. U.S Department of Education.  
<https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2016144>
- National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES). (2017). *The Condition of Education*. U.S Department of Education. [https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator\\_cpa.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cpa.asp)
- National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers. (2010). *Common Core State Standards for English language arts & literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects* (Appendix A).  
<http://www.corestandards.org/ELA>
- Nicol, D. (2010). From monologue to dialogue: Improving written feedback processes in mass higher education. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 501–517. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602931003786559>
- Nicol, D., Thomson, A., & Breslin, C. (2014). Rethinking feedback practices in higher education: A peer review perspective. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 39(1), 102–122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2013.795518>
- Noor, N. M., Aman, I., Mustaffa, R., & Seong, T. K. (2010). Teacher's verbal feedback on students' response: A Malaysian ESL classroom discourse analysis. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 7, 398-405.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.10.054>.
- Orsmond, P., & Merry, S. (2013). The importance of self-assessment in students' use of

- tutors' feedback: A qualitative study of high and non-high achieving biology undergraduates. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 38(6), 737–753.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2012.697868>
- Otfinowski, R., & Silva-Opps, M. (2015). Writing toward a scientific identity: Shifting from prescriptive to reflective writing in undergraduate biology. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 45(2), 19–23.
- Padak, B., & Padak, G. (2001). *Research to practice: Guidelines for planning action research projects*. (ED380699) Ohio Literacy Resource Center. ERIC.  
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED380699>
- Parr, J.M. & Timperley, H.S. (2010). Feedback to writing, assessment for teaching and learning and student progress. *Assessing Writing* 15(2), 68–85.  
<https://doi.org.10.1016/j.asw.2010.05.004>
- Patchan, M. M., & Schunn, C. D. (2015). Understanding the benefits of providing peer feedback: How students respond to peers' texts of varying quality. *Instructional Science*, 43(5), 591–614. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-015-9353-x>
- Perun, S. (2015). "What the hell is revise?": A qualitative study of student approaches to coursework in developmental English at one urban-serving community college. *Community College Review*, 43(3), 245-263.
- Poulos, A., & Mahony, M. J. (2008). Effectiveness of feedback: The students' perspective. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(2), 143-154.
- Price, M., Handley, K., Millar, J., & O'Donovan, B. (2010). Feedback: All that effort, but what is the effect? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(3), 277-289.
- Prior, P. A. (2005). A sociocultural theory of writing. In C. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J.



- Fitzgerald (Eds.), *The handbook of writing research* (pp. 54-66). Guilford Press.
- Public School Review Online Database* (2021, January). Find public schools.  
<https://www.publicschoolreview.com/find-schools>
- Punch, K. (2005). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Sage Publishing.
- Raes, A., E. Vanderhoven, & T. Schellens. (2015). Increasing anonymity in peer assessment by using classroom response technology within face-to-face higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 40(1), 178–193.  
<https://doi:10.1080/03075079.2013.823930>
- Ramsden, P. (1998). *Improving learning: new perspectives*. London: Kogan Page.
- Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to teach in higher education*. (2nd ed.) RoutledgeFalmer.
- Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2008). Introduction. In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 1-10). Sage Publishing.
- Reid, J., & Moore, J. (2008). College readiness and academic preparation for post-secondary education: Oral histories of first-generation urban college students. *Urban Education* 43(2), 240-26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085907312346>
- Relles, S. R. (2016). Rethinking postsecondary remediation: Exploring an experiential learning approach to college writing. *Journal of Continuing Higher Education*, 64(3), 172-180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07377363.2016.1229115>
- Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context*. Oxford University Press.
- Rowe, A. D. (2011). The personal dimension in teaching: Why students value feedback.

- International Journal of Educational Management*, 25(4), 343-360.
- Rowe, A. D., & Wood, L. N. (2008). Student perceptions and preferences for feedback. *Asian Social Science*, 4(3), 78-88.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Sadler, D.R. (1989). Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. *Instructional Science* 18(2),119-144.
- Sadler D.R. (2013). Opening up feedback: teaching learners to see. In S. Merry, M. Price D. Carless and M. Taras (Eds.) *Reconceptualizing feedback in higher education: Developing dialogue with students* (pp. 54-63). Routledge.
- Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage Publishing.
- Scott-Clayton, J., & Rodriguez, O. (2015). Development, discouragement, or diversion? New evidence on the effects of college remediation policy. *Education Finance and Policy*, 10(1), 4-45. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w18328>
- Scribner S., & Cole, M. (1981). *The psychology of literacy*. Harvard University Press.
- Song, G., Hoon, L., & Alvin , L. (2017). Students' response to feedback: An exploratory study. *RELC Journal* 48(3), 357-372. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217691445>
- Sommers, N. I. (1982). *Revision strategies of student writers and experienced adult writers*. National Institute of Education.
- Sommers, N.I. (2006). Across the Drafts. *College Composition and Communication*, 58(2), 248-257.

- Sommers, N.I. (2012). *Beyond the red ink: Students talk about teachers' comments*. Bedford/ St, Martin.
- Sperling, M. (1996). Revealing the teacher-as-reader in response to students' writing. *The English Journal*, 85(1): 22–26
- Sprinkle, R. (2004). Written commentary: A systematic, theory-based approach to response. *Teaching English in the Two Year College*, 31(3), 273-86.
- Srichanyachon, N. (2012). Teacher written feedback for L2 learners' writing development. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities and Arts*, 12(1), 7-17.
- Still, B., & Koerber, (2010). Listening to students: A usability evaluation of instructor commentary. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 24(2), 206-233.  
[https://doi.org/ 10.1177/1050651909353304](https://doi.org/10.1177/1050651909353304)
- Stone, C. A. (1993). What is missing in the metaphor of scaffolding? In E. A. Forman, N. M. Minick, & C. A. Stone (Eds.) *Contexts for learning. Sociocultural dynamics in children's development* (pp. 169–183). Oxford University Press.
- Street, B.V. (1995). *Social literacies: Critical approaches to literacy development, ethnography, and education*. Longman.
- Strijbos, J. W., S. Narciss, and K. D nnebie. (2010). Peer feedback content and sender's competence level in academic writing revision tasks: Are they critical for feedback perceptions and efficiency?" *Learning and Instruction*, 20(4), 291–303.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2009.08.008>.
- Stringer, E.T. (2014). *Action research* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sage Publishing.
- Sullivan, G. M., & Artino, A. R., Jr. (2013). Analyzing and interpreting data from Likert-

- type scales. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 5(4), 541–542.  
<https://doi.org/10.4300/JGME-5-4-18>
- Taber, K.S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's Alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research Science Education*, 48, 1273–1296. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2>
- Taggart, A.R., & Laughlin, M. (2017). Affect Matters: When writing feedback leads to negative feeling. *International Journal Scholarship of Teaching & Learning*, 11(2), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.20429/ijstl.2017.110213>
- Tashakkori, A., & Creswell, J. (2007). The new era of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 3-8
- Thompson, I. (2013). The mediation of learning in the zone of proximal development through a co-constructed writing activity. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 47(3), 247-276.
- Topping, K. J. (1998). Peer assessment between students in colleges and universities. *Review of Educational Research*, 68 (3), 249-276.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/1170598>
- Torres, J.T., Strong, Z.H., & Adesope, O. (2020). Reflection through assessment: A systematic narrative review of teacher feedback and student self-perception. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 64, 1-7.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.100814>
- Tsui, A.B.M., & Ng, M. (2000). Does secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments? *Journal of Second Language Writing* 9, 147-170.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(00\)00022-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(00)00022-9)

- Ulmer, W., Means, D. R., Cawthon, T. W., & Kristensen, S. A. (2016). Investigation of remedial education course scores as a predictor of introduction-level course performances: A case analysis at one for-profit institution. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 18(1), 109–130.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025115579675>
- Unrau N. ,& Alvermann, D. (2013). Literacies and their investigation through theories and models. In D. Alvermann, N. Unrau & R. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (6<sup>th</sup> ed., pp. 47-90). International Reading Association.
- Vetter, A. (2010) Positioning students as readers and writers through talk in a high school English classroom. *English Education* 43(1), 22-64
- Vickerman, P. (2009). Student perspectives on formative peer assessment: An attempt to deepen learning? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 34(2), 221–230.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930801955986>.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Trans.) Harvard University Press.
- Wakabayashi, R. (2013) The effects of the peer feedback process on reviewers' own writing. *English Language Teaching* 6(9). <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n9p177>
- Wertsch J. (1991). *Voices of the mind: A Sociocultural approach to mediated action*. Harvard University Press.
- Whipp, J., Wesson, C., & Wiley, T. (1997). Supporting collaborative reflections: Case writing in an urban PDS. *Teaching Education*, 9(1), 127–134.
- Wichman, A., Funk, A., & Rummel, N. (2018). Leveraging the potential of peer feedback

- in an academic writing activity through sense-making support. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 33(1) 165–184.
- Wiemelt, J. (2001). Toward an activity-based conception of writing and school writing contexts. *Written Communication*, 18(2), 107.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088301018002001>
- Willes, K. 2017, Data cleaning. In Allen, M. (Ed.) *The sage encyclopedia of communication research methods* (Vol. 1, pp. 338-339) Sage Publishing.  
<https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483381411>
- Wilson, E., & Post, J. (2019). Toward critical engagement: Affect and action in student interactions with instructor feedback. In A. Gere (Ed.), *Developing writers in higher education: A longitudinal study* (pp. 29-55). University of Michigan Press.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem-solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines*, 17, 89–100.
- Wu, Y., & Schunn, C. (2020). From feedback to revisions: Effects of feedback features and perceptions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 60.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2019.101826>
- Xuan, X., Xue, Y., Zhang, C., Luo, Y., Jiang, W., Qi, M., & Wang, Y. (2019). Relationship among school socioeconomic status, teacher-student relationship, and middle school students' academic achievement in China: Using the multilevel mediation model. *PLoS ONE*, 14(3),  
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0213783>
- Yancey, K.B. (2009). The literacy demands of entering the university. In L. Christenbury,

- R. Bomer, & P. Smagorinsky (Eds.), *Handbook of adolescent literacy research*. (pp. 256–270). Guilford Press.
- Yang, M. (2006). A comparative study of teacher feedback and peer feedback in Chinese EFL writing class. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 3, 293-301.
- Yang, M. & Carless, D. (2013). The feedback triangle and the enhancement of dialogic feedback processes. *Teaching in Higher Education* 18(3), 285-297.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2012.719154>
- Zumbrunn, S., Marrs, S., & Mewborn, C. (2016). Toward a better understanding of student perceptions of writing feedback: A mixed methods study. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 29(2), 349–370.

## Vita

Name	<i>Jacqueline Regan</i>
Baccalaureate Degree	<i>Bachelor of Arts, Quinnipiac University, Hamden Major: English</i>
Date Graduated	<i>May, 1988</i>
Other Degrees and Certificates	<i>Master of Arts, Fairfield University, Fairfield Major: Education</i>
Date Graduated	<i>May, 1990</i>
	<i>Master of Arts, Montclair State University, Upper Montclair Major: English</i>
Date Graduated	<i>May, 1997</i>