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Profiling Writing-Knowledge: Exploring Peer Review Feedback Beyond Revising and Editing

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PROFILING WRITING-KNOWLEDGE:

EXPLORING PEER REVIEW FEEDBACK BEYOND REVISING AND EDITING

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Title: Profiling Writing-Knowledge: Exploring Peer Review Feedback Beyond Revising and Editing

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In an attempt to forward writing-knowledge research, I explored peer review feedback to profile writing-knowledge. The idea of profiling writing-knowledge is not new to teaching, researching, or assessing writing. As a method to cull writing-knowledge given its absence among established research methodology to profile writing-knowledge, peer review is new. Grounding this exploration in mixed-methods research, I borrowed microethnographic and descriptive research practices to profile writing-knowledge.

Using a modified revision workshop model of peer review, participants of this study, who were students enrolled in an undergraduate research writing class at the University of Guam, produced 2,394 feedback data items. Feedback was analyzed following the mixed-methods processes of data reduction and data transformation.

Feedback was reduced to alphanumeric codes linked to the writing-knowledge matrix (WKM) designed for this study. The content of the WKM reflects the University of Guam's institutionally defined writing-knowledge taken from its composition courses' learning objectives. Through data reduction, 1,775 data items were assigned a complete WKM alphanumeric code, 203 items assigned a partial WKM code, and 416 data could

not be assigned a WKM code. The results show that most feedback submitted reflects institutionally defined writing-knowledge

Through the data transformation process, WKM alphanumeric coded data were quantitized as numerical codes in preparation for descriptive statistical analysis. The results reveal that participants' attention to matters of correctness is purposeful: To access sentence-level meaning. The results showed that participants were more concerned about idea development, and secondarily about correctness. When they attended to matters of correctness, they did so because incorrectness interrupted their ability to make meaning. This observation counters preexisting perceptions that students attend to matters of correctness because it is what defines good writing. Additionally, eight WKM domains are reported as primary data concentrations and five as secondary concentrations.

Taken together, the results of aggregated data concentrations and descriptive statistical analysis present a collective profile of participants' institutionally defined writing-knowledge as well as a profile of my writing-knowledge.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I dedicate the work of this dissertation to my grandmothers

Ana Leon Guerrero Borja Garcia (b. 1926)

"Tan Ana" *Barrigada*

Rosa Ramona Blas Manibusan Balajadia (b. 1933)

"Chai/RosanJuan" *Barrigada*

who miss the companionship of my grandfathers

defunto Ignacio Francisco Garcia *Barrigada* (b. 1931 d. 1998) advanced dementia

defunto Juan Pangelinan Balajadia *Yona* (b. 1931 d. 1986) prostate cancer

My grandmothers always ask, "*Did you thank God?*"
To whom I pray for continued
blessings and protection,

But to which I honestly always answer,
No. i forgot.

There are others too who must be named
else they wish for me a fate worse than not finishing:
the curse to write another dissertation
just so that I enclose their names within that page,
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

To avoid that, as I shan't be writing another dissertation,

I name as many names that reflection retained from memory

to acknowledge

for their **chenchule'** that supported me
during the time it took to understand and write
academia's antimasterpiece
its dissertation

: sharleen santos-bamba and ↙ vince bamba
(her v&b ball playin' hottie hubbie)

james perez viernes whose ina'fa'mao'lek

bridges people and place

across places and peoples

mary spencer & harley manner

nancy hayward

ben rafoth

OCEANS beauty and barber shop Tumon "on Guam" (671) 646-0188
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, PA (love that place!)

drs. becky. brian. nicole. april.

'94, '96, '98, '99, '01 through'07, '08, '09, 10, 11, 12, 13 ….
..... friends made over those years near and far, distant and close.

the Lifes interrupted
defunto JOE.
defunto mentor TOM.
defunto momo, *defunto* ellen, *defunto* mike, *defunto* merle, *defunto* tommy,
& *defunto* _____

&the lives disrupted momo's family, ellen's family, mike's family,
merle's family, tommy's family,
& _____'s family.

/ Families:

garcia. balajadia. blas. manibusan. borja.

aguon. deigo, castro, torres. superbedia.

charfauros. manibusan. santos.

my mom **LULUBELL** & **SARGE** my dad

my siblings and their kids

roach & joey. tierra & calvin joey reede raven & guadalupe (pronounced "Rooke")

jr. (spelled V-I-C-T-O-R) & evaRenee. amber sage victorStorm & MadMad

jonjon & nikiMarie. juju-b & noah

trina & the one. kyle madison & tydus mama dot.

Mom Yigo & Dad Pete.

richie & risa. koyuki & ryusei.

aubrey & jesse. aprilyn.

ashley

andrew

jose

& **rena** andy tony mr. chang

nino Dimmy & nina Roxie. tye naughtygorgee↓ analuisa & demi-T.

spelled G-E-O-R-G-E who better be great.

my godparents & god*blings* confirmed and not confirmed
my godchildren baptized and not baptized

edna. terry. claire.

jackie & paj. mary. debbie.

joann & frank.

norine & darry. jobe rian & dari-rae

velma yamashita. grazyna badowski. carol simpson-warner.

tide & sarah. elizabeth kelley bowman. terry perez.

hyun-jong hahm “good energy”. clarisa. evelyn.

g.e.t. **docdiva magic.**

the cruz family from mangilao (uncle joe aunite chilang lisa marish jr temo)

8:00 am choir Mangilao catholic church

bri & jeric. erma & mike. dewdew. eh-lee (bka Elyjah!). jaryna.

Auntie viv. Uncle romy.

A D R I A N

the hernandez clan.

kevin.

the cool clients of oceans beauty and barber shop
esp. dot and diana.

dmr. rubbishman.

guam, uog, class, deal faculty, staff, & students like john & amanda

& my students SP 1998 to FA 2013 and beyond.

the **participants of this study**

a n d

RAYMOND.

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INTRODUCTION TO PROFILING WRITING-KNOWLEDGE

Process writing classes have historically used peer review as the premier activity to promote revising and editing. With the peer review method, teachers direct students to collaborate in pairs or small groups. Once formed, these groups exchange their written texts in an effort to advise one another about how to improve each other's writing. Throughout the process, students are encouraged to provide as much feedback as necessary to improve the quality of their peers' texts.

I first encountered the peer review process during my undergraduate studies, where my experience with the peer review was consistent with the general model outlined above: We were divided into small groups. We read our peers' papers. We developed written responses about the papers. Then, we forwarded this feedback to our peer writers. But, while the process of peer reviewing was itself transparent, the feedback generated was not always as clearly communicated. In some cases, teachers provided a detailed feedback list for students to address in their peers' work.

In other instances, teachers only verbally reviewed the standards of writing that students had to keep in mind, while still other instructors simply directed students to peer review without elaborating on any expectations for the peer review feedback. With these experiences, I became increasingly disenchanted with the peer review process especially as I observed some teachers completely remove themselves from the process and not engage in the students' dialogue about writing. When and if such teachers visited each

peer review group, they did so either to ensure students were actually addressing the peer reviewing task at hand, or to announce how much time remained before class ended.

I brought this perspective of the peer review method with me as I began to teach college writing courses at the University of Guam. I very consciously chose not to use peer review to teach writing, even though I subscribed to writing process pedagogy. My rationale for this decision was based entirely on my previous experiences with peer review as a student: If my teachers could not fully engage and monitor the writing conversations brought on by peer review, I wondered how I could possibly do what they did not. As a writing student, I wanted my teachers to take part in these peer review conversations about writing, so as a writing teacher, I wanted to make this commitment to my students. But logistically, I knew I could not fully and productively engage all small groups at once. For that reason, I opted to remove peer review activities from my writing classes.

But, like students' compositions, my perception toward peer review was ripe for revision. As a doctoral student I took a course entitled "Teaching Writing." In that course, I participated in a model of peer review I had never before encountered – whole-class workshop. For this process, the instructor's directions were simple: Select four pages of a major writing project, distribute it to all 15 students in the class, and prepare feedback for each peer's four pages. With this model, all members of the classroom community were engaged in peer review collectively, with the caveat that each writer was required to actively listen – and not engage in – the feedback being offered through the peer review process. That is, though each writer was present for the feedback discussion on his or her work, the writer's role was restricted to active listening only.

This drew my interest because, unlike my previous experiences with peer review, this model's design enabled all members of the class to have visibility into all peer review activities simultaneously, thereby ensuring that class time was used productively. This experience of whole-class peer review dispelled my previous perceived limitations of the peer review process, and I immediately implemented the whole-class model of peer review upon my return to teaching writing for my post-doctoral coursework.

In implementing whole-class peer review in my own classroom, I was able to create, as anticipated, an environment in which all students and I could fully participate in peer review. Most importantly, whole-class peer review allowed me to monitor students' conversations about writing, specifically, the feedback they gave each other about their papers. Further, after several semesters of developing a model of whole-class peer review suitable for my students and my teaching context, I began to observe a use of peer review for purposes that had not occurred to me beforehand. Because of these observations, my views of peer review and its possibilities changed.

While I initially used whole-class peer review as a means to be more attentive to students' feedback, over time the process evolved into a method by which I could assess what students knew about writing. That is, through whole-class peer review, I found that students' feedback constituted more than just advice about revising and editing; their feedback was their articulation of what they knew about writing – their "writing-knowledge" – which was evidence of their mastery of course learning objectives.

This realization, however, was not possible if not for the institutional context and university-wide conversations about student learning outcomes set in motion prior to my return to the University of Guam for post-doctoral coursework. At the time, the

university was engaged in a process of revising its course learning objectives to improve what and how faculty members measured student learning. At the heart of these discussions were the kinds of evidence faculty members cited to support their claims about student learning. This focus created an opportunity for me to implement a whole-class peer review model that was appropriate for my students and that aligned with institutional objectives at that time. In this regard, as I facilitated and participated in whole-class peer review with my students in class, I observed students articulate descriptions and advice of good writing and writing well in their written feedback of their peers' texts. Because students registered their descriptions and advice in writing, I was able to assess their understanding and application of the rules of writing academic English.

Eventually I came to recognize that the content of students' feedback evidenced their mastery of the course learning objectives. Through whole-class peer review, students revealed what they knew about writing. Inspired by the institutional framework that was seeking ways to improve how student learning outcomes were reported, I looked to document students' feedback as evidence of their mastery of the course learning objectives. This dissertation served as an opportunity to explore peer review feedback as a means to document evidence of writing-knowledge.

Scope of Study

In entitling this dissertation "Profiling Writing-Knowledge," I mean to reflect the work of writing and writing-knowledge research. Writing-knowledge is a vast domain to cover in any one study. Researchers, teachers, and scholars alike face an array of

possibilities to undertake such work, including trial and error and experimentation (Hillocks, 1986b), lore (North, 1987), and "dreams and plays" (Connors, 1992). Although the extent of writing-knowledge is not clearly known, what is known is that writing-knowledge's domain – its subjects, fields, and realities – can be locally "abridged." That is, writing-knowledge can be determined, essentially reduced, to the context in which it is observed. This abridged version of writing-knowledge, then, must be in accordance with the scope of a discourse community's sense and purpose of writing—like a writing classroom (Faigley et al., 1985).

Although I cannot dismiss the reductive nature of determining writing-knowledge based on the discourse community that uses it, such a view permits the development of a writing-knowledge classification system specific to a discourse community. Such a classification system is similar to Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) inventory of advice on getting good grades for writing. In this way, what is classified as writing-knowledge is determined by those who use it, which also serves to mark their membership in the discourse community (Faigley et al., 1985). Membership is marked by applying established rules for written discourse which includes transcriptions of electronic recordings (Faigley et al., 1985). Thus, an abridged form is meant to determine the scope of writing-knowledge pertinent to the context where writing-knowledge research is conducted. As Faigley et al. (1985) explain,

> The key notion is that within a general language and discourse competence, there exist many specialized kinds of discourse competence that allow people to participate in a specialized group. Participants know what is worth communicating, how it can be communicated, what other members of the

> community can be persuaded, and so on. The point here is that the strategies for composing described by cognitive researchers are part of the repertoire of the discourse community. (p. 20)

While Faigley et al. (1985) remind me that cognitive research did not consider the variable of "the role of the writer's community" as a "dimension of a writer's competence" (p. 20), which Cooper (1986) refers to as "writing ecology," this study uses one specific writing community's discourse principles as the means to explore reviewers' writing competence. In the case of this dissertation, the context is a writing classroom – EN111 Writing for Research – and the discourse community is the University of Guam – the institution that constituted the writing classroom from which I draw participants.

Further, Faigley et al.'s (1985) review of school-site writing ethnography informed the scope of writing-knowledge for this dissertation:

> Ethnographies of school writing proceed with an awareness that writing courses have goals that determine the curriculum or content of the course…teachers or researchers might be able to articulate the explicit goals of a writing class according to the view of composing that the course maintains. (Faigley et al., 1985, p. 93)

As such, the context of the study defines the scope for determining what will be classified as writing-knowledge. By analyzing goal statements for the courses and curriculum associated with the context of this study, I devised a coding scheme. This coding scheme emerged as I was constructing a visual representation of writing-knowledge inferred from the school-site's course learning objectives (see Appendix A). The result of this endeavor was the development of the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B) which

reflects that knowledge participants are expected to know by completion of their writing course.

The content of the writing-knowledge matrix is organized using basic, non-statistically supported, group classification principles—grouping based on topical and sub-topical relativeness. Most importantly, the content stems from the site's course learning objectives. The domains across the matrix were informed and inspired by the content of the learning objectives taken from each of four writing classes at the University of Guam. As an abridged version of the discourse community's writing-knowledge, the writing-knowledge matrix predetermines what data will matter during data analysis.

A Review of Current Research

My attempt to devise a method in which peer review feedback is used to profile writing-knowledge began with an exploration of current research. Among the investigators who have pioneered research about writing processes is Flower and Hayes, who in 1981 developed an advanced model of writing that reflected what, how, and when writers use various knowledge domains during the composing process. By 1987, Bereiter and Scardamalia's study into the *Psychology of Written Composition* furthered the insights into the writing process. These researchers defined writing-knowledge as that which writers activated in the midst of composing written discourse. Through their experimental research that isolated variables they thought to influence textual production, they informed themselves of which knowledge was activated during the writing process (Graham, 2006; Faigley et al., 1985). These studies on composing processes and

composition instruction, as Hillocks explored in his writing-knowledge inquiry, sought to "discover the kinds of knowledge writers use as they write … [in order to] examine how writers best learn particular kinds of knowledge and how and to what extent that knowledge affects writing" (Hillocks, 1986b, p. 71).

Whereas these researchers studied writing-knowledge under the pretext of that which is activated in the midst of composing, later researchers examined writing-knowledge through advice and descriptions of good writing. In contrast to this first wave of researchers whose methodology isolated variables of writing-knowledge, the second wave of research methodology undertaken by those including Schoonen and de Glopper (1996) and Saddler and Graham (2007), examined advice and descriptions of good writing to cull writing-knowledge data. The critical point here is that writing-knowledge data (variables and advice/descriptions) are different in that one is produced in the midst of composing and the other is not. Further, while the first wave of researchers examined written products (direct assessment), second-wave researchers examined advice and descriptions about good writing (indirect assessment of writing-knowledge).

Notwithstanding that research on writing-knowledge sought to report writing-knowledge stored in memory, the two approaches used in past and recent research are distinctly different. That is, past studies attempted to capture writing-knowledge as used in an active context, whereas more recent studies examined writing-knowledge passively. Although the limitations of capturing writing-knowledge in an active context, such as Victori's (1999) work on writing-knowledge and Flower and Hayes's (1981) work on the composing process, have been addressed over the years (Graham, 2006), the limitations of the methodology used in recent studies have not.

Therefore, in this dissertation, I define the problem of the data source used by recent research on writing-knowledge. This examination of challenges in the data source, presented in Chapter 2, explores the inherent constraints of the passive context of writing-knowledge wherein perceptions of good writing articulated as either advice on writing well or as descriptions of good writing, do not attend to data ecology that had previously been put forth in previous writing-knowledge research. In the context of this study, securing writing-knowledge data ecology requires the presence of the text. Thus, I argue, that because perceptions of good writing do not necessary imply mastery of what is perceived as good writing, an alternative methodology which forefronts grounding writing-knowledge data in a present text is necessary. Although perceptions of good writing is a valid data source in and of itself, the rationale of *midst of composing*, which also applies to "a present text," yields a type of "metatext" that is, in my estimation, direct writing-knowledge data—if not writing-knowledge itself. Embedded within this rationale for midst of composing direct data is my proposition to use a different writing-product data source. This data source is not the writing sample typical of writing assessment and writing (knowledge) research. This data can be used to ascertain writing-knowledge because its methodology secures data ecology—the presence of a text in the midst of composing.

It is from an assessment of the challenges in the data source that I have posited peer review feedback as the data source for writing-knowledge research. Peer review feedback resolves the problem of data ecology inherent in the limitations of the data sources used in past and recent writing-knowledge research. Specifically, because the production of peer review feedback requires reviewers to compose revisions for another's

text, peer reviewers are no less engaged in the writing process – that is, in the midst of composing written discourse – than their peer writers. And, because the text in which writers (as peer reviewers) engage the writing process, is not their own, writers in the capacity as peer reviewers are not faced with the same pressures as writers commenting on their own texts.

Peer response, produced during a composing process, namely revising and editing a peer's text, is a permissible data source to observe writing-knowledge. In the next chapter, I provide the foundation for justifying peer response as a viable data source. The outcome of this argument of peer response as writing-knowledge data are the research questions for this dissertation, which are stated and discussed following this section. Because the research questions inform the methodology and methods, I present the overview of the methodology and methods used in this study immediately after discussing my Research Questions. Following the methodology overview, I present an understanding of writing-knowledge as contextualized by the site in which writing-knowledge is observed. Finally, I highlight some potential uses of profiling writing-knowledge for the classroom and the field before concluding this first chapter with an overview of the remaining chapters.

Research Questions: 1 Central, 3 Ancillary

The central research question of this dissertation was inspired by Hillocks' (1986b) guiding question of writing-knowledge inquiry. Hillocks noted that researchers studied the kinds of knowledge that writers brought to bear on the composing process. It is from this statement that I articulate the central research question of this dissertation:

What institutionally-defined knowledge about writing do reviewers bring to bear on another's composition?

The two concepts identified in the central research question are: (a) Institutionally-defined knowledge about writing, and (b) Reviewers' knowledge of writing brought to bear on another's composition. I elaborate on the central research question in order to lay the groundwork for the Methodology and Methods Overview section that follows this Research Questions section. While the first half of the central research question relates to the coding scheme that I devised to classify feedback data, I pose three ancillary questions in relation to the latter part of the central research question, which focuses on the knowledge with which reviewers inform the peer review process (the feedback data).

The first two ancillary research questions name the two types of feedback that were elicited from participants: claimed feedback and actual feedback. Questions 1 and 2 are based on the notion that peer reviewers' feedback is intended to improve the quality of a text, even an imagined one. Therefore, this data reflects what reviewers believe to be good writing.

1. What feedback do participants say they give peers about their papers?

Question 1 examines "claimed feedback" which I consider as similar, if not the same as, perceptions of good writing reported as descriptions of good writing (Saddler & Graham, 2007; Lin, Monroe, & Troia, 2007), or advice to others on writing well (Schoonen & de Glopper, 1996; Aversa & Tritt, 1988). Aversa and Tritt's (1988) "advice to writers" project is synonymous with what I mean by claimed feedback as referenced in this study. For data to qualify as claimed feedback, it must have been produced in a manner akin to Aversa and Tritt's (1988) advice-to-writers' project,

wherein students provide written advice about writing, absent a text in which to contextualize the advice. In this way, absent a text, advice on writing well, and by extension descriptions of good writing, are no less claimed feedback about how to write well.

Juxtaposing advice on writing well and descriptions of good writing as perceptions of good writing, and further claiming it as similar, if not the same as, "claimed feedback" is permissible because these perceptions of good writing are not the outcomes of the "thoughtful reading" process (Pearson & Tierney, 1984, as cited in Gillan, 1990, p. 90). Through thoughtful reading, readers position themselves as the writer, and read "like 'a writer composing a text'" (Gilliam, 1990, p. 99). This process requires a present text, and if feedback is provided as part of the use of the thoughtful reading process, the resulting advice is not the same as the students' advice culled in Aversa and Tritt's advice-to-writers' project. That is, advice provided in response to a present text is not so much perceptions of good writing as it is more the application of what one knows about writing. Therefore, claimed feedback is unlike advice grounded in a present text; it is advice on writing well and descriptions of good writing not prompted by the thoughtful reading process that requires a present text. In the absence of the text, all feedback about writing well and good writing are only claims about good writing and not writing-knowledge itself. In short, claimed feedback is feedback not produced in the midst of composing.

2. What feedback do participants provide about the four student-written compositions supplied by the researcher?

In contrast to claimed feedback, actual feedback is produced in the midst of composing in the form of responses to a common, tangible, and specific text. For example, the earlier works of writing teacher-researchers Sarah Benesch (1985) and Eve Coleman (1987) examined "artifacts," i.e., audio records of students analyzing each other's texts. The purpose of their examination was to observe what students actually say about each other's texts. Such observations can be used to determine curricular revisions at the classroom site or curriculum level. Similarly, in Matsuhashi et al.'s (1989) work, researchers examined actual feedback by tracing tutor's responses produced about a tutee's paper. Actual feedback can include both oral and written forms, so long as the feedback is generated about a specific, common text. Because Question 2 calls for examining the content of peer review feedback, participants were asked to generate responses to four composition exhibits for this study. This examination is motivated by the possible use of actual feedback data for classroom writing assessment.

3. What themes about studying writing-knowledge using feedback data were observed in the data sources (feedback and peer review experiences)?

By viewing "descriptions about good writing" as "claimed feedback" and at once equating "production of good writing" to "actual feedback," I posed this third ancillary question. I wondered if the data and interactions with participants would have revealed something else about writing-knowledge research that I had not observed or learned beforehand. This question also reflects what might be revealed about these two types of feedback that have not come to my attention through my own prior classroom experience (teaching/peer reviewing) or from reviewing the literature (reading/ understanding). Thus, to answer this third ancillary question, I reviewed peer review experiences from the

interview transcripts, claimed and actual feedback data, and the descriptive results of feedback data.

Methodology and Methods Overview

The nature of the research questions posed a methodological challenge. That is, because of the exploratory intent of the research questions, a strict use of either qualitative or quantitative paradigms would limit an emergent exploration of feedback data as well as a research design to profile writing-knowledge. Inspired by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) call for researchers to "be creative and not be limited by the designs listed in [their] article" (p. 20), I pursued a mixed-methods approach because it would enable me to adopt, modify, and incorporate various components of past, either qualitative or quantitative, research methods.

During the design phase of this study, I considered several methods from qualitative and quantitative that I thought would achieve a view of the feedback data to profile writing-knowledge. Ultimately, I opted to incorporate components from these research paradigms for either data collection or perspective purposes as I perceived to be permitted through mixed-methods design (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed models allowed me to blend descriptive (Beach, 1992) and microethnography (Faigley et al., 1985) components that I perceived as aligning with writing research methodology and writing-assessment practice. Combining various components of quantitative and qualitative methodology, I developed the operational procedures to collect and analyze peer review feedback to profile reviewers' writing-knowledge. Thus, by blending research techniques, I was not limited to qualitative or quantitative research paradigms.

Notwithstanding Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's advice that the research design be user-specific and mindfully crafted, I followed most of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's "eight distinct steps" of the mixed-methods research process, as not all steps were applicable for this study. I discuss these matters in Chapter 4. The first three steps, however, are applicable for all research, regardless of design. The first two steps – identifying the Research Question and determining if a mixed-methods approach is appropriate for this study – have been addressed above. Next, I will address step three: reporting the mixed-method design used for this study.

Reporting the Mixed-Method Design

Mixed-methods design permits one study to incorporate two smaller-scale studies. One study, however, must be quantitative and the other, qualitative. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) provide several rationales in which to situate mixed-methods research. Borrowing from Green et al. (1989), they name five rationales: triangulation, complementarity, initiation, development, and expansion. Of the five, I adopted development and expansion for this mixed-methods exploratory study.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie are clear in their description of the development rationale—that the first study informs the methods of the second. For this dissertation, I reimagined mixed-methods' development rationale by conceptualizing a "first method," since I did not conduct a "first study" as prescribed by mixed-methods tenets. This first method is a synthesis of two "external-to-this-dissertation" studies: Schoonen and de Glopper, 1996; Saddler & Graham, 2007. Through my examination of these studies alongside other writing-knowledge studies for this dissertation, I proposed an alternative

means to profiling writing-knowledge using a data source (the peer review process itself) not previously studied for this purpose. Because the methodology of this dissertation was thus developed in response to these studies, this dissertation constitutes the "second method" of a conceptualized single study on writing-knowledge.

In addition to the development rationale, I also situated this mixed-methods approach within the "expansion" rational. I did so with intention of using the mixed-models design so as "to expand the breadth and range of research" on writing-knowledge "by using different methods for different inquiry components" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22). For this study, I purposefully selected data collection procedures, data displays, and data analysis methods that reflect the methodological criteria described in Chapter 3 and adhere to the procedures detailed in Chapter 4.

The mixed-models components of this dissertation are detailed in tandem with reporting Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) steps four and five, which are presented over several chapters: Chapters 4, 5, and 6. The data collection procedures undertaken in this study included one-on-one interviews and in-class workshop sessions. During the one-on-one interviews, participants were asked to describe their attitudes towards and experiences gained from peer review. They also orally reported claimed feedback in response to interview prompts, and were asked to provide actual feedback, both written and verbal, on two five-paragraph composition exhibits. As for the in-class revision workshop session, participants discussed two research papers, thereby providing actual verbal feedback on the composition exhibits. Before attending the in-class peer review sessions, students prepared and submitted electronically prepared feedback for the two research papers. Participants' electronically recorded written feedback for the research

papers, along with their handwritten feedback on the two five-paragraph length short compositions were examined as participants' actual written feedback. Transcripts of all face-to-face interactions with participants during the interviews and in-class peer review were examined for feedback data, both claimed and actual.

The participants' feedback on the four composition exhibits constitutes the primary data explored in this study through data analysis. In accordance with step five, this data is classified according to the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B) that I designed for this study. I refer to this matrix as the writing-knowledge matrix because its content reflects the University of Guam's composition curriculum's learning objectives. My choice to use a predetermined coding scheme was informed by quantitative research and previous research whose methods involved coding data using any kind of scale, criteria, or scheme.

In the absence of a process to certify perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge, I used a secondary code to depict my perception of the clarity and utility of a participant's feedback data. The feedback quality-level code (see Appendix C) reflects what I believe to be the quality of the feedback in relation to its textual context—the composition exhibit. Using this code, I assessed feedback in terms of the clarity of its explanation as advice and its relevance and usefulness towards improving the quality of the text.

Overview of Chapters

This dissertation studies reviewers' feedback as a means to profile "writing-knowledge." The knowledge gained from interpreting students' peer review feedback

might very well impact curricular and pedagogical decisions necessary for writing instruction intervention. Writing teachers can use what students say about another's text as data to ascertain what they claim to know and what they actually know about writing. Thus, peer review as used in this dissertation is primarily a data collection method—a venue to collect appropriate data to identify writing-knowledge. The resulting "profiles" can be reported as descriptive results for assessment purposes.

To summarize, to preface my review of the literature, I detail the problem of the data source in Chapter 2. Thus positioned, the ensuing chapter, Chapter 3, then provides a review and synthesis of data-driven and theory-based literature on writing-knowledge and peer review. Through the review of literature, I propose four tenets that necessarily ascribe a set of methodological criteria to secure writing-knowledge data ecology. These tenets are:

1. A view of peer review towards and beyond process
2. The textual review venue of peer review and revision workshop
3. The presence of another's text meant for revision, and
4. Studying writing-knowledge in feedback and conversation

In Chapter 4, I explain the methodological details of this study, and in Chapter 5 I present and explain the results of data collection and data analysis. Chapter 6 reviews several observations derived from the results. Specifically, these observations relate to classroom implications of using feedback data to profile writing-knowledge. Finally, conclusions are presented in the last chapter of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

THE CHALLENGE OF WRITING-KNOWLEDGE DATA SOURCES

The problem of the data sources used in both past and recent writing-knowledge research stems from the limitations related to assessment validity. My use of "past" and "recent" writing-knowledge research is intentional in that it refers to two types of data sources, each with its own set of limitations. Whereas data sources used by past researchers adhere to criteria of direct and indirect assessment, data sources used by recent researchers adopt methods akin to indirect assessment.

With regard to past research, investigators culled data through scores on writing samples or as direct observation of writers while they worked to compose written discourse. Some past researchers used instruments to cull writing-knowledge data that assessment experts view as indirect measures such as multiple-choice tests about sentence structure and grammatical correctness (see Murphy & Yancey, 2008; Faigley et al., 1985). Those indirect measures, to a degree, required students to compose by "re-composing," that is, revising, existing texts by way of selecting a correct answer signified by shading the correct answer's corresponding "letter" which is typical of standardized multiple-choice tests. Although assessment experts categorize multiple-choice tests as an indirect measure, it is still writing-knowledge data generated in the midst of composing written discourse.

Recent researchers, on the other hand, gleaned writing-knowledge data from advice about writing well and descriptions of good writing – data that was not produced in the midst of composing. And in terms of assessment practice, advice about writing

well and descriptions of good writing are indirect measures. My central aim, then, in terms of identifying the problem of the data source, focuses on the data sources of recent researchers. But to explain that matter, I first review the problem of the data sources used in past research to foreground the problem of writing-knowledge data sources of recent research.

Studies reviewed by Hillocks (1986a; 1986b) look to discover the kinds of knowledge that writers activated when they wrote, and how writers best learn that knowledge. Such past research, although meeting assessment validity criteria of data produced in the midst of composing, also met with a serious limitation in that they asked writers to respond to their own texts. This limitation was best articulated by D. H. Dunning (Gere, 1987), who said that writers are blind to their own flaws. If Dunning is correct in his assessment, then, one must question how reliable and valid writers' responses are about their own writing processes and the knowledge bases that they exploit during the writing process. Thus, the limitation of past research, although their methods would be defined by writing assessment scholars (Murphy & Yancey, 2008) as direct, is rooted in the researchers' inability to safeguard against data that might have been produced with self-preservation in mind. That is, writers may withhold crucial data that could be useful in understanding which knowledge is activated during writing, under the pretense that a writer's comments about his own work is an admission of his own deficiency in writing.

As for the second type of data culled, recent researchers adopted indirect measures, using perceptions of good writing as the primary source to infer writing-knowledge. As an indirect assessment approach, the observed data was not generated in

the midst of composing written discourse. To further compound the limitation, these researchers did not reconstitute participant's perception of good writing as a rubric in which to score a writing sample, and thus validate perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge itself. It is this problem of the data source of recent research that has motivated this current research on writing-knowledge.

Data Source Limitations

The problem of the data source refers to recent researchers' use of two kinds of data. The first type encompasses defining good writing in an interview setting to investigate writing-knowledge. Observed in Kos and Maslowski (2001), Saddler and Graham (2007), and Lin, Monroe, and Troia (2007), participants were asked to define "good writing" during an interview session. The other data type is "advice" about good writing and writing well. This data was collected using writing samples in which students narrated advice about how to write and get good grades. Aversa and Tritt (1988) proposed the writing project "Advice to Writers" in which students developed essays on advice to peer writers and non-writers about how to write. In their research, Schoonen and de Glopper (1996) instructed ninth graders to write letters to peers about "how to write in order to get good grades" (p. 90). The problem with the data collection methods used in these studies is reflected in Murphy and Yancey's (2008) view on indirect assessments:

> Indirect assessments estimate probable writing ability through observations of specific kinds of knowledge and skills associated with writing. They require

> passive recognition of error and selection of best examples as opposed to active generation of text. (p. 367)

This flaw is evident in Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) research, which examined participants' writing-knowledge described in advice letters. However, their research did not entail observing participants actively apply their advice as they wrote the advice letters. These researchers could have used participants' inventory of advice to assess writing samples or attend to while observing participants during their writing performance.

Viewed through the lens of writing assessment methodology, descriptions of good writing (Lin et al., 2007), advice on writing well (Aversa & Tritt, 1988), and getting good grades (Schoonen and de Glopper, 1996) are all "probable estimates" of what writers know about writing. Even so, the results and discussion were illuminating compared to the results of other kinds of indirect indicators such as multiple-choice test. My critique of the use of descriptions and advice as a valid writing-knowledge data source was influenced by the critique on the use of multiple-choice tests in that the data generated were not within the scope of "active generation of text" (Murphy & Yancey, 2008, p. 367).

Although my critique of recent research is rooted in the problem of the data source, I do not argue against reconstituting perceptions of good writing as inventories of good writing. But to constitute inventories of *good writing* as inventories of *writing-knowledge*, inventories must first be structured as some kind of coding scheme—a criteria of (good) writing. Schoonen and de Glopper adapted their coding scheme from an external source although the advice collected could have been used as the criteria of

good writing in which to code participants' writing samples and validate their advice as their writing-knowledge. But, that was not the case. Instead they used a predetermined rubric of "four aspects (overall impression, content, organization, and style and tone)" (Schoonen & de Glopper, 1996, p. 90) to determine the writing-sample score against which to correlate participants' advice. And, as is standard practice, Schoonen and de Glopper employed external readers to score participants' writing samples.

Faigley et al.'s (1985) review of writing assessment approaches—holistic, analytic, primary-trait, and performative assessment—address scoring practices and the use of external readers. The progression from holistic toward performative assessment was caused by critics' view that the criteria of writing identified in previous scoring scales did not provide enough detail to profile writing-knowledge.

My point is that the criteria of writing is often predetermined and originated by the teacher or researcher in his pursuits to test writing-assessment variables (Faigley et al., 1985; Haswell, 2008). Alternatively, Schoonen and de Glopper's inventory of good-writing advice provided sufficient data to reframe it as criteria for writing assessment. Instead, they settled for a modified variation of holistic-analytic scoring scales in which to score the writing samples.

Moreover, the notion of using students' perceptions of good writing as the criteria in which their writing would be evaluated is consistent with Lindemann's (2001) suggestion of having students develop their criteria of good writing which would then become the scale to score their writing. But in the absence of a text, perceptions of good writing reconstituted as student-determined criteria of good writing cannot be validated as writing-knowledge; an absent text means the criteria of good writing is just criteria of

good writing. If not that, in its potential form, then it becomes dormant, returning to its past form as perceptions of good writing.

Perceptions About Good Writing is not Writing-Knowledge

In this section, I argue that perceptions of good writing is not writing-knowledge data for several reasons. Elaborations of what students believe to be good writing is the most recently sought after data source to investigate writing-knowledge. From my analysis of the studies that informed this dissertation research, I posit that those researchers' methodological choice was based on a particular assumption. It appears that for researchers, if students could describe what they believed to be good writing and narrate how this sense of good writing was applied in writing, the students' description of good writing reflected what the students knew about writing.

My concern about such perception is the permissibility of analyzing indirect writing-knowledge data as writing-knowledge itself. I contend that *descriptions* of good writing (what) and of writing well (how) cannot represent actual writing-knowledge data because that data had not been produced *in the midst of composing* (when). Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) inventory of writing-knowledge was the result of content analysis of advice on how to write well, but this inventory was not cross-examined against the writing sample itself. Although I specifically reference Schoonen and de Glopper's work, the other recent studies on writing-knowledge that I have reviewed also did not certify perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge itself; that is, they did not observe participants as they applied their perceptions of good writing in their writing.

Furthermore, there is a risk in misinterpreting participants' perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge data if the data source is incomplete. Incomplete data may

cause data coders to miscode the data. Aversa and Tritt's (1988) example from their student David best illustrates what could be problematic about rendering indirect writing-knowledge data as writing-knowledge itself. My concern was prompted by Aversa and Tritt's review of David's ability to use a "standard" terms associated with the advice he was giving. I am concerned because absent a common text to contextualize descriptions of good writing or advice to write well, there is a possibility that the data cannot be accurately coded.

To explain, I reference several lines that Aversa and Tritt extracted from David's advice essay. I begin the following block quote with Aversa and Tritt's lines that introduced Aversa and Tritt's block quote of David's advice on apposition. In their block quote of David's line, I observed that although David describes apposition, he does not define it. Thus, Aversa and Tritt had recognized David's reference before examining the extent of David's advice on using appositions in writing, explaining:

> While there had been discussion of expanding a sentence by further modifying the noun, with the following example, "Washington, the first president of the United States, had false teeth made of wood," the word "apposition" was never specifically explained. Yet David nevertheless advised his readers:
>
> > Always think of the opposed commas as space in which to inject comments descriptive of the subject. One mistake I can think of is: "The girl sat, in the room, comfortably." The opposed comment does not describe the girl. A good example of apposition would be: "The girl, tired from a long day, sat comfortably in the room." (Aversa & Tritt, 1988, pp. 55-56)

David's "data"—an explanation of how writers should use appositions even though David had not been explicitly taught apposition—bolstered my view that indirect writing-knowledge data, if not certified within the context of writing, cannot be held as writing-knowledge itself. While David did use the term apposition, Aversa and Tritt pointed out that apposition was not among the lessons associated with their project. The source of David's knowledge, in other words, was classified as not originating with any of the lessons used as part of their Advice to Writer's project.

There are two points to clarify about Aversa and Tritt's discussion on David's advice. First, it is not clear if David's advice was isolated or if there was other advice culled that did not stem from their project's lessons. Secondly, Aversa and Tritt would not have been able to validate David's knowledge had it not been for the writing sample he produced to illustrate his knowledge of apposition. In light of the probability that David's advice was isolated, then how might writing-teachers make use of this advice to writers?

To answer that, I reexamined David's advice to assess it as either writing-knowledge data or as simply advice in the absence of a text. I contend that David's advice on apposition is reflective of his writing-knowledge because he produced a writing sample to illustrate the use of apposition. Further, based on his extended explanation of his advice and the example provided, as a researcher-practitioner I would profile his advice – a type of feedback – as his knowledge of using apposition in writing. Validation of David's advice is made possible because he produced a writing sample. Because his advice and the writing sample are both products generated in the midst of composing, David generated enough data to cull and validate his writing-knowledge. But, if David's

case is unique, then what good is Aversa and Tritt's proposal if it cites an outlier as evidence of their project's effectiveness? The lesson of David's example here is that it sets a benchmark for establishing a methodological criterion to cull and validate writing-knowledge data. That is, it provides a venue in which to ground writing-knowledge assessment in the classroom.

Expounding further on David's example, one must consider the implications if certain conditions were not evident in his advice. For example, what if David did not provide an example of using apposition? What if his advice was "Apposition is useful because it allows us to rename nouns in our sentences"? Based on the criterion that writing-knowledge data be generated in the midst of composing, then this advice would not suffice as writing-knowledge, but instead would be, at best, advice. As advice without evidence, it cannot be culled as writing-knowledge data. Furthermore, given the possibility that the extent of David's advice is not reflective of the majority of students, I contend that culling writing-knowledge necessitates a present text.

On another note, what if David had provided an example of correctly writing an apposition, explaining how to punctuate an apposition, but did not use the term "apposition," perhaps only referring to it as renaming nouns? Assuming that writing students have not mastered composition terminology, but may be able to recognize its use in writing and respond to it as advice or feedback, Aversa and Tritt's proposal has value in terms of identifying writing-intervention moments based on the advice and feedback students give each other or to other writers. In the case of students' non-use of standard terms, writing-knowledge can be made visible if the students compose writing samples in

which to illustrate how to write well, regardless of their awareness of the naming conventions for those standards.

This observation, critique, and re-imagining of David's advice about apposition underscores the importance of the writing sample – of a present text – in relation to the production of data sources from which to cull writing-knowledge. David's advice qualified as writing-knowledge data because he produced a text to illustrate his advice, a text that reflected his knowledge of writing apposition. This point is further informed by the work on writing research. The necessity of a present text, or at least the production of a present text, was at the fore of writing research through the cognitive era of the 1980s. Although research on writing carried on well into the 21st century, I draw attention to the data source in which the cognitive tradition culled writing-knowledge – data produced in the midst of composing.

In the next section, I summarize the three concerns of writing-research: the what, how, and when of research on writing. In short, the importance of the text, as illustrated above through David's advice, stems from the concerns of past writing researchers. Using David as an example, it can be summarized as follows. Had past writing researchers took to David's advice as writing-knowledge, they would foremost be concerned with: What does David know? How does he use what he knows when composing? When does he use it while writing? By reviewing the matters of what, how, and when of research on writing, I situate the criterion of securing ecology for writing-knowledge data. Aversa and Tritt's interpretation and assessment of David's advice showed me that students' advice to writers, when documented in writing or in essay form,

can be a means to validate writing-knowledge data. But this is only permitted if the writing sample is analyzed using the inventory of good writing and writing well.

Aversa and Tritt claim that teachers can use their students' advice to peers as a means to assess students' mastery of course content. The outcomes would reflect writing-knowledge registered in students' repertories. While I concur with Aversa and Tritt's proposition and their estimation of the benefits for the writing teacher, I am not convinced that all students will be as descriptive as David. David's extended description of appositions allowed Aversa and Tritt to recognize a potential benefit for writing teachers that springs from their students' advice, like David's.

I imagine, however, that the extent of David's discussion is possibly unique to David and is possibly not a general phenomenon observed in all data examined by Aversa and Tritt. In this case, how could writing teachers benefit from limited, less-detailed advice to writers registered in essays on advice to writers? What if in another situation the writer did not use the standard—known—term of the advice being given, similar to what was observed in David's data, and unlike David did not provide sufficient data to contextualize the advice as writing-knowledge data. How might the researcher/teacher validate this data as writing-knowledge data if the researcher/teacher did not have the necessary supplemental data, like David's extended description of using appositions, to accurately code or rate the data?

Moreover, David's extended description included several texts that David scripted in order to practically demonstrate the use of appositions. That is, in his examples, David composed actual texts, albeit sentence-length, in which to base his extended advice on using appositions. The imagined writer who David was advising did not have to supply a

text in which to contextualize David's advice; instead, David provided it: the text in which to illustrate his advice.

Through David's advice and Aversa and Tritt's analysis, I gained a clearer sense of the limitation of "advice data" not culled from data produced in the midst of composing. In the absence of David's detailed explanation of how to use appositions in writing, how would Aversa and Tritt have been able to validate this advice as David's writing-knowledge? So, if advice is grounded in an actual text, as opposed to an imagined one, advice on good writing and writing well is a step closer towards validation as writing-knowledge.

What, How, When: Research on Writing

With the challenge of writing-knowledge data sources brought on by recent researchers used of advice data to cull writing-knowledge, I look to the work of recent researchers predecessors, like Hillocks (1986a). I look to Hillocks because he took stock of past research directions to imagine new directions for writing research. In that regard, an expansion of the field's research scope drew attention towards writing process stages (*when*) extracting points which required various interactions (*how*) of various knowledge domains (*what*). Beginning with Flower and Hayes (1981), cognitive research greatly influenced composition teaching through the 1980s and beyond. Flower and Hayes developed, what was for that time, an advanced model of writing that reflected what, how, when writers use various knowledge domains during the composing process. Cognitive research demonstrated the potential of a streamlined scope: researching *what* knowledge bases were accessed, analyzing *how* knowledge bases interacted if they did at

all, and determining *when* these occurred during a writing performance (Hillocks, 1986a; 1986b).

Cognitive research traditions certainly did not gain rapid success without critique. While cognitive writing-process coverage across writing classrooms and textbooks increased, those who resisted it forwarded the field's own social turn as was occurring in literary studies and sociolinguistics (Cooper, 1986). The central critique of cognitive process, as I infer from Cooper (1986) is the absence of writing ecology. In "The Ecology of Writing," Cooper (1986) responded to the narrow view of staged writing processes by theorizing writing as an ecological system. Viewing the various social-group activities occurring in cognitive process-writing classes as resistance to cognitive writing processes, Cooper recognized that writing ecology was secured when writing was viewed as "an activity through which a person is continually engaged with a variety of socially constituted systems" (p. 367). That is, the group activities that were taking place in cognitive process-writing classrooms, which were scripted in process-writing texts, were for Cooper the sign of the shift in writing ecology—that "such changes in writing pedagogy indicate that the perspective allowed by the dominant model [cognitive model of writing] has again become too confining" (p. 366).

Aside from cognitive research's counterviews about the production of writing and "social's" place in the composing process, recent studies on writing-knowledge avoided gazing upon the interaction (*how*) of knowledge bases while one wrote. Recent research aimed to describe writers' writing-knowledge (*what*) *as correlated* to writing performance (*when*). Rather than observe this knowledge during a writing performance, researchers analyzed written registers of students' perceptions of good writing. Past

writing research focused on examining and interpreting the writer's internal composing processes in order to make generalizable statements of how people write.

Central to cognitive data collection is the active observation of writers in the midst of composing their own texts. Absent a text, perceptions of good writing cannot be validated as one's writing-knowledge (*what*). The methods of past writing research called on the researcher to observe a composing writer. The researcher then goes on to report on the various knowledge bases accessed during the composing process. By culling data during the composing process, past research methods secured data ecology. Although the issue of writing ecology is an important matter, further discussion of ecology is beyond the scope of this work. Recent data sources used to examine writing-knowledge are not of the same nature as the data sources used by cognitive research to trace writers' writing processes. The discussion on data ecology is limited to my critique of the different data sources used to profile writing-knowledge.

Securing Ecology of Writing-Knowledge Data

I consider the nature of the problem of the data sources along the lines that Cooper (1986) views cognitive writing process as lacking in writing ecology. But the problem of recent data sources more closely parallels Min's (2008) observation of data ecology. For Min, Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger's (1992) study on reviewers' stances lacked ecology. That observation prompted Min to redesign the earlier study so as to restore data ecology. Through Min's recognition of data ecology and through writing assessment methodology (Murphy & Yancey, 2008), I was able to articulate my view of

recent writing-knowledge data sources—that they lacked a validation check to secure data ecology.

Researching knowledge that writers use in the midst of composing, profiling writing-knowledge, is not new to writing research or composition teaching. Recent methods required participants to supply an imagined text in order to characterize good writing (Schoonen & de Glopper, 1996; Aversa & Tritt, 1988). But an imagined text only exists in the mind of the participants. This makes it difficult for researchers to secure data ecology because they cannot contextualize participants' perception of good writing. But Saddler and Graham's (2007) and Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) research suggest that the content of advice, although produced using an imagined text—one that is not accessible to the researcher and one that cannot be proven in material form as real—arguably reflects the advice-giver's command of writing. From that perspective, writing skill and knowledge can be assessed using the criteria that participants supplied as perceptions of good writing.

Peer Review as Data Source

Because writing assessment defines direct writing data as "active generation of texts" (Murphy & Yancey, 2008), I was able to imagine different types of "advice data sources" that would be produced using a different, but appropriate approach to data collection. Because the approach I propose and use in this dissertation has not been used in prior research, I was able to consider how "advice data," the data source of previous studies, constitutes perceptions of good writing and not direct writing-knowledge data. This understanding, in turn, helped me identify one particular data type that did not reflect the problem of the data source. This data source is peer response.

In process writing classrooms that employ peer reviewing activities, students are dually positioned as reviewers and writers. In this classroom context, they are both reviewers and writers because they are tasked to self-edit their work and peer edit other's work. The product of this work, which ranges between narrow editorial comments and broad revision suggestions, is feedback to oneself or to a peer writer. This feedback about a text is no different from the advice that Schoonen and de Glopper and Aversa and Tritt's participants gave to peer writers, with the exception that Schoonen and de Glopper's and Aversa and Tritt's students' advice was not framed within a peer review context.

Advice, regardless of whether spoken or written, often entails describing good writing and writing well. If advice is framed as revising and editing suggestions, the peer response feedback can be examined in a manner similarly used to trace a reviewer's perception of good writing. Peer review feedback can be used to replace "advice-only" and "descriptions" of good writing as writing-knowledge data sources because peer review feedback is fundamentally advice on writing a text that is produced in the midst of composing.

I want to be clear that peer review feedback is writing-knowledge data because it is produced in the midst of composing (or re-composing, or re-writing, or re-visioning) a peer's text. In this way, peer review as a data collection method secures writing-knowledge data ecology. My claim is further supported by the practice of thoughtful reading (Gillam, 1990, p. 99) and practice in critical evaluation (Graner, 1987). In other words, because the text being (re)written is not that of the peer reviewer and because peer review was meant to promote revising and editing, students engage with peer review

differently from that of a regular reader. In other words, peer reviewers approach peers' texts in a manner similar to what "reading theorists D. P. Pearson and Robert J. Tierney (1984) call a 'thoughtful' reading, when a reader reads like 'a writer composing a text'" (Gillam, 1990, p. 99).

On the premise that they (reviewers) are drawing from their writing-knowledge repertoire to complete the peer review task, I contend that peer reviewers are very much engaged in the act of writing. Prior to this study, I had not considered this particular value and use of feedback as insight into what one knows about writing. I am not alone in this experience as Mittan (1989) first had realized this unexpected observation. Contrary to my and Mittan's view—Mittan calls it "benefit"—of feedback data as a means to know what our students know about writing, Matsuhashi and colleagues (1989) claimed that the classroom and writing center were sites to examine writing-knowledge, explaining that:

> In the classroom or writing-center setting, we can observe writers of different levels of education, class, language, and social background articulating what they know about writing. The practice they receive as writers, listeners, editors, readers, and problem solvers is integral to the writing process. (Matsuhashi et at., 1989, pp. 294-295)

From that perspective, considering the peer review group as a subset of the classroom, peer review can be a means to generate data that reflects what students know about writing. I was further inspired by Mittan (1989) who used peer review sheets to trace his ESL students' language difficulties. This practice was supported by other ESL writing researchers who had proposed this idea (Liu & Hansen, 2005; Mangelsdorf &

Schlumberger, 1992). Given the ways in which writing-knowledge had been investigated, I am confident that the content of peer review feedback constitutes a rich data source that has yet to be exploited. Therefore, this study explores feedback data, produced in a writing classroom, as a source of writing-knowledge.

The selection of the classroom site was due to several conditions. For one, the classroom site, as Matsuhashi et al. (1989) claimed, is a site wherein teachers can observe student admission of writing-knowledge. Past methods to know what students know included analysis of student writing samples and observing students in the midst of teaching them to write. While teaching, teachers interact with students and students interact with each other. Secondly, the classroom site comes with a predetermined understanding of what writing-knowledge is to be mastered by the end of the writing course. According to Faigley et al. (1985), this knowledge is tied to curriculum goals and is typically communicated in two ways: as an overall description of the program and as specific goals of individual courses.

Grounding the Methodological Criteria

Although writing-knowledge has been conceptualized and examined in numerous studies, the work of profiling it has not differed much from the work that writing teachers and writing researchers have done, are doing, and could continue doing. Teachers and researchers, recent and past, have constructed and continue to construct profiles of writing-knowledge using and combining various methodologies. These profiles reflect the contexts, uses, and implications of research for pedagogical and assessment purposes.

By contrasting these perspectives of writing-knowledge research and writing assessment methodologies, I was able to envision an alternate classroom-level *venue* to

profile writing-knowledge, other than a writer's text. That classroom-based textual review venue, namely peer review, is a prime candidate to profile writing-knowledge. To elaborate on this claim, I have assembled several literature to ground the methodological criteria towards profiling writing-knowledge that address the limitations of past and recent writing-knowledge research discussed in this chapter.

In the literature reviewed, especially those that I present in the next chapter, I discovered that peer feedback – the product of peer review – individually and collectively is a snapshot of one's writing knowledge if it is produced as a result of the thoughtful reading process. As an act of thoughtful reading, peer reviewing requires accessing the reviewer's writing-knowledge, and as such, feedback produced through this process is an artifact of the reviewer's writing-knowledge. Further, because the storehouse of writing-knowledge is activated similarly to, if not the same as, how knowledge is activated when writers compose written discourse, peer feedback is a product of the writing process because it was produced in the midst of composing.

With that in mind, I proceed to the review of the literature that informs and grounds methodological criteria for conducting writing-knowledge research. In the case of this study, the methodological criteria is specific to the data source used and its data collection method. That is, in this study, peer feedback is the data source for the writing-knowledge research conducted through the peer review process, which was developed using principles of the revision workshop model (Graner, 1987).

In summary, the literature reviewed in Chapter 3 lays the theoretical and methodological foundations for data collection and data analysis procedures, reported in Chapter 4, in which peer feedback data was examined to profile writing-knowledge.

Specifically, I report on literature in which four key criteria to profile writing-knowledge using peer feedback as its data source were identified: (a) Towards and Beyond Process Peer Review, (b) Textual Review Venue: Revision Workshop, (c) The Presence of Another's Text Meant for Revision, and (d) Feedback and Conversation towards Studying Writing-Knowledge.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE TOWARDS PROFILING WRITING-KNOWLEDGE

In this chapter, I review literature that establishes the methodological criteria for profiling writing-knowledge. Data-driven and theory-based scholarship informed and supported my use of peer review feedback as writing-knowledge data. In that regard, I discuss the limitations of the use of peer review espoused by process writing because its place in writing process positions several classroom-level assessment possibilities that extend beyond process writing.

I reviewed literature that considers textual review as the data source for research on writing-knowledge. As part of that discussion, I specifically discuss Graner's (1987) revision workshop model in which writing-knowledge data are generated by the peer reviewer. I contend that, unlike other en-vogue peer review models, Graner's model does not require the presence of a peer writer, only the presence of the text intended for revision.

After discussing how Graner's model facilitates the production of feedback grounded in text, I review literature that informs my position that peer review organically secures ecology of writing-knowledge research. That discussion contrasts my analysis of the methods and data sources of recent research as lacking in data ecology. Taken together, the literature reviewed in this chapter worked to inform this study's design.

Towards and Beyond Process Peer Review

Peer review predates the formally acknowledged teaching writing-as-process pedagogy which was officially sanctioned as a "pedagogical approach" in the 1970s

(Pritchard & Honeycutt, 2006, p. 275). Gere (1987) explained that peer review, which is a type of writing group, began as "literary societies" that "emerged as a forum in which students debated public issues, but 'assigning and criticizing compositions' soon numbered among their functions" (p. 10). These literary societies were the writing groups of the old-college (Gere, 1987) where students debated the quality of their orations and compositions. Peer critics discussed the application of rhetorical principles and the logic of the arguments presented in the composition. Based on the feedback generated by peer critics, writers revised their compositions accordingly. The format of these literary societies laid the foundation for peer review workshops, which were first incorporated into creative-writing classes and then teaching writing-as-process classes (Gere, 1987, p. 15).

By the end of the 20th century, peer review formalized its relationship to process writing revising and editing pedagogy in many composition classrooms throughout the United States. Because of process' pedagogical insistence (Cooper, 1986), peer review was primed to return to its institutional prominence, not as the literary societies of the old-college, but as the flagship activity of process writing's revising and editing stage.

Process writing pedagogy assigned to peer review the task of facilitating students' revising and editing stages of their papers before they reached the teacher's desk (Hairston, 1986; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Gere, 1987). Although peer review in process pedagogy was restricted to improving the text's quality, the benefits of peer review have been claimed since at least 1880 (Gere, 1987, p. 17). Gere (1987) highlighted peer review's staying-power, explaining that "in temporal terms, writing groups provide response with an immediacy impossible in teachers' marginalia and

reviewers' evaluation… in physical terms, writing groups reduce the distance between writer and reader" (Gere, 1987, p. 2).

As a result of peer review's perceived value in writing pedagogy, writing teachers developed variants of peer review that suited the needs of students and the curriculum. Gere (1987) opened her text *Writing Groups* with a litany of names that refers to the work of writing groups. But for Gere, "The name, of course, matters less than what it describes, which is writers responding to one another's work" (Gere, 1987, p. 1). Teachers directed students to respond to other students who read their papers aloud, thereby entering into a conversation about another's composition. These discussions focused on suggestions for revision as well as explanations about students' thoughts on the quality of each other's texts. Other instructors directed students to provide feedback that "[helped] generate ideas or [told] the writer what to do next—while others restrict[ed] responses to what [had] already been written" (Gere, 1987, p. 1). While there exist a number of peer review versions, most, if not all, are fashioned after the small-group model.

Many writing teachers have opted for small-group models typically because the small-group format is most familiar to writing teachers (Howard, 2001). The popularity of the small-group model can be attributed to its practical nature. Hairston (1986) suggested that composition teachers have their students read and respond to each other's papers so that teachers would not be burnt out by student essays. When Hairston wrote her article, "On Not Being a Composition Slave," composition teachers were facing insurmountable work load of student compositions which had to be graded immediately. Typically, providing advice to student writers required teachers to determine the quality

of a student's text (Lindemann, 2001), and not simply provide advice for revision. Teacher assessment of student work was often reduced to a final grade or score after providing comments in the paper's margins (Haswell, 2008), if that was done at all. Regardless that the work of responding to students texts was standard in the occupation of teachers, a teacher's assessment remained subject to critiques of validity.

In an effort to assist teachers in effectively and consistently providing advice across student papers, so as to address assessment critiques, Lindemann (2001) enumerated some requisite knowledge about writing that writing teachers should have specific to rhetoric, language, and cognition. But Lindemann's discussion of designing and responding to assignments was not as extensive as her treatment of requisite knowledge and strategies to teach writing. Perhaps this is because there were a number of scholarly works that had commented along the lines of Hairston's (1986) "On Not Becoming a Composition Slave." For example, Horvath (2000), in the chapter-article "The Components of Written Response," noted that "written teacher responses need not be students' only source of response" (p. 249). Horvath suggested that feedback be provided through "conferences, class discussion, small group work and written peer evaluations, tutoring in writing labs, computers, and other strategies to get students to be self-editing" (p. 249). This shift away from teachers as the sole source of feedback called on students to engage in conversations about writing.

Prompted by collaborative pedagogy, process-writing teachers began articulating recipes for designing and incorporating group activities in their process writing classes. Over time, peer writing and peer reviewing became a "common feature of writing-process classrooms, and it is often recommended as a way of providing student writers

with an audience of readers who can respond to their writing, identify strengths and problems and recommend improvements" (MacArthur, 2007, p. 146).

Elbow (1973) and Bruffee (1972) laid the groundwork for modern composition's use of peer review for revising and editing purposes. Their efforts initiated a number of subsequent methods which encourage writers to enter into a dialogue with other writers about rewriting. However, having writing students engage in peer review activities did not happen without criticism. Among the critiques, one that was foremost was the need to train students to promote revising and editing as they engage in peer review activities (Min, 2005; Graner, 1987).

One instance of this need to train students was reviewed by Benesch (1985). Benesch's report at the 1985 NCTE Spring conference on the analysis of a student group conversation in her freshman composition course illustrates, for me, the importance of training students. Benesch's students Ann, Pascale, and Mark tape-recorded their group meetings. Their task at these group meetings was to read their texts aloud to each other and then provide feedback about each other's texts. In one recording, Pascale admitted her difficulties reconciling Benesch's assignment guidelines with her group's revision advice. Mark reminded Pascale that the text's final draft remained hers and that she was responsible for her revisions and that all feedback from both peers and Benesch were merely suggestions because Pascale owned the text. Mark's response and Pascale's negotiation of feedback exemplifies the need for peer reviewer training so reviewers can craft comments about writing that may carry over to future writing activities.

Towards that end, researchers, scholars, and teachers have worked to overcome several classroom limitations of peer review, one of which is training students only to

revise (Min, 2005). Other researchers have focused on describing the emotional risks involved in peer review and outlined the kinds of training students need to have in order to manage the emotional aspects of peer review (Spear, 1988). Removing the writer completely from the process (Graner, 1987) was also proposed.

One other limitation that Graner (1987) found of peer review is often less-acknowledged, but nonetheless an important one. This limitation was in part due to the number of participants involved in the peer review conversation, which was typically limited to the number of members of a small-group ranging between three to four students. Additionally, if students were partnered, each would spend less than a third of their time actually incorporating peer's feedback, and the other two-thirds time was spent discussing each other's papers. In groups of three to four, Graner estimated that students spent three-fourths their time, by Garner's calculation, responding to peers' papers. Benesch (1985) noted students spent a majority of their time discussing what to revise about each other's papers than actually revising papers. In short, there was a disparity between time spent revising and time spent discussing revisions, with which Graner took issue in proposing his revision workshop model.

By recognizing this clear difference between revising one's text and responding to other's texts, Graner (1987) theorized that students' writing improvement was the result of giving feedback, which he referred to "practice in critical evaluation." For Graner, incorporating peer review feedback in the revisions of one's own texts did not capture the real gains that were made through conversations and practice. And like Benesch (1985), Coleman (1987) also observed that post peer review, students were more aware of their writing than they had been before peer review, but not because of the revision advice

received. Instead, like Graner, Coleman observed that her students' increased attention to writing was due to the work of peer review.

Although Benesch (1985) reported on "meta-responses" between four of her students and Coleman (1987) investigated whether and how collaborative learning benefited the writing process for five students, common to both studies was evidence that students were developing a vernacular for writing—a phenomenon Gere (1987) also recognized. Essentially, during peer review activities, a vernacular for writing emerges, which is clearly a venue for textual review. In addition to peer review as a venue for textual review, the writing conference too is a venue of textual review as described by Mittan (1989).

Mittan (1989) traced his students' difficulty in responding to a text while asking them to determine the text's key features. These occurred during a writing conference. But for Mittan, the task during the writing conference was similar to that of the peer review activities. As a result, Mittan suggested that the data recorded on various peer review instruments could provide information about students' sources of difficulty, claiming:

> In using and developing the peer review process in my own classroom, I have discovered some additional, unexpected benefits. Before I began to use peer reviews I thought of myself primarily as a writing teacher, focusing only on students' composing. But using peer review has made me more aware of students' needs in all the modes of language—reading, writing, listening, and thinking. By observing students' peer discussions and reading their responses on

> review sheets, I can sometimes trace the source of writing difficulties to one of these other areas. (Mittan, 1989, p. 211)

Although I observed from Mittan's last sentence a degree of uncertainty in achieving the results as proclaimed, it was the possibility of "tracing the source of writing difficulties" that drew my attention. Mittan articulated a call for further research offering a data source and a data method; that by observing students responses produced from peer review instruments (method) such as "peer discussions and reading their responses on review sheets" (data sources), teachers, like Mittan, "can sometimes trace the source of writing difficulties" (Mittan, 1989, p. 211). Mittan's ability to trace these difficulties was rooted in the presence of a text which was prompted by a conversation about writing.

If indeed the last line should be viewed as a proposition, then Mittan (1989) called for treating students' discussions and responses as data to trace possible source(s) of difficulty. For this study, I adopted that perspective although repurposing the use of peer review feedback beyond process-writing's use of peer review, a use specifically aimed at promoting revising and editing. That is, for Mittan, peer review sheets (data source) helped him "trace the source of writing difficulties," yet for me, peer review feedback (data source) was used to profile writing-knowledge. In other words, I extend Mittan's efforts beyond "difficulties" and instead attend to developing profiles of writing-knowledge based on feedback produced during a textual review event.

Textual Review Venue: Revision Workshop

In a general sense, during a textual review event, a text is discursively examined for a number of purposes. For example, students review various texts as heuristics before

setting off to write their own. If a writing class is process-writing oriented, students typically respond, post production, to each other's texts in peer review (Howard, 2001). The nature of peer review entails a discussion of the merits of another's text in the context of revising and editing. Through the venue of peer review, students are trained to review texts modeled after the peer review processes of the larger academic discourse community (Faigley et at., 1985).

In a writing class where students read and respond to each other's papers, establishing rapport between students is crucial for successful peer review sessions. That is, if each student's written composition is to be evaluated by classmates for the purpose of revising and editing, then students must be trained beforehand on how to give and receive supportive feedback (Spear, 1988; Min, 2005). But if the purpose is to profile writing-knowledge, and not revising a present peer-writer's text, then I contend that training is unnecessary. The feedback produced during a peer review event is information that serves not just as revision advice directed at the peer writer, but is at once data about the reviewer's (the advice-giver's) knowledge of writing.

Of all the peer review approaches available, Graner's (1987) Revision Workshop model best fits the objectives and methodology of this study. The feedback collected in Graner's study were generated using texts written by students who did not participate in his study—students in the course where he collected data—but were students who had completed the course in a previous academic term. I considered the authors of the composition instruments that Graner used as peer-equivalent authors. In other words, Graner informed his participants that they were reading texts authored by fellow students

who were neither their present classmates nor participants of this study. Graner's design illustrated an important shift in peer review models—an absent peer writer.

Peer review models typically assume, if not require, that peer writers be present during the review process. This assumption is reflected in the literature that advocates response training to minimize the known negative outcomes of peer review, so as to maximize its benefits (Spear, 1998; Min, 2005). Certainly I agree that for classroom peer review purposes, writers should be among the audience in order to observe the discussion about their texts. But for the purpose of profiling writing-knowledge, as is the objective of this dissertation, there is no reason to put students at risk given the limitations reported in the literature about peer reviewer perceptions (Min, 2005; Mangelsdorf & Schlumberger, 1992). The literature reports limitations of peer review, such as reviewers choosing to withhold feedback that might negatively affect peer relationships. In addition to reducing the number of feedback that might help writers address ineffective aspects of their texts, this limitation of peer review using a present-writer's text, would limit the total number of feedback data for the purpose of profiling writing-knowledge.

In that regard, then, I contend that Graner's (1987) model is an appropriate choice because it does not require a present writer. The absent writer means that reviewers do not have to withhold feedback or "coat" their feedback with stances that preserve relationships with peer writers. Removing the peer writer from the textual-review venue permits reviewers to engage in discussion about a peer-written text without fear of peer-writer backlash. Thus, the peer-written text used as the instrument to prompt participants' revision feedback does not have to originate from the participants.

In addition to addressing the limitation of using a present-writer's text, Graner (1987) also addresses the limitations of using the small-group model. Not only did the small-group model limit the number of texts students read and responded to, it also limited the number of students participating in the conversation about another's composition. In other words, the small-group model allows only three to four students to participate in the peer review conversation, and, in a class of twenty writers, this model creates several logistical challenges for the researcher. Therefore, in devising the revision workshop model, Graner purposefully expanded the small group membership to include the entire class.

In Graner's (1987) design, the whole class was treated as one large small group in which all members of the whole class participated in the conversation about texts in a pattern similar to that of the small-group model of peer review. Unlike the small group where its members read, commented, and discussed only its member's papers, the whole-class model used a common text that was not authored by a member of the class. All members of the class had access to the common text. Using a common text that was authored by a peer-equivalent writer allowed the whole class to practice critical evaluation, which for Graner was the cause of writing improvement. In short, rather than having students exchange papers, students exchanged ideas about the common text by making public their suggestions for revisions—the essence of practice in critical evaluation.

In summary, Graner (1987) illustrated that the texts used for the textual-review event did not have to be that of a present peer author because practice in critical evaluation is the activity that works to improve writing rather than the incorporation of

peers' feedback into a revised text. The text selected, however, should not be one written by the teacher, an advanced-level peer such as an upperclassman, or an expert writer, and it should not be a published text or a text accepted for publication. Graner was clear that the text selected be written by a peer equivalent and be intended for revision.

The Presence of Another's Text Meant for Revision

In Chapter 1, I discussed the necessity of a present text to ground descriptions and advice about writing to ensure data ecology for writing-knowledge research. Without a present text, there is not a mechanism in place to validate writing-knowledge claims. The data used in recent writing-knowledge studies were descriptions and definitions of good writing, and at times, these descriptions of good writing were elicited as advice to writers about writing well, either in general (Aversa & Tritt, 1987; Schoonen & de Glopper, 1996) or advice to oneself about one's own text (Victori, 1999). With the exception of Victori (1999), recent research used data not grounded in a present text.

A closer examination of Victori's (1999) case study on writing-knowledge revealed that Victori's methodology secured ecology of writing-knowledge data, but the text used to secure ecology was inherently limited. There are several limitations to note about Victori's case study. The obvious limitation was the number of participants in the case study: four—two skilled, two lesser-skilled writers. I took note of this because in proposing the use of peer feedback data to profile writing-knowledge, I meant this use for classroom-sites, and typically, there are twenty-plus students enrolled in a first-year writing class. Thus, a case study of four participants does not present a methodology practical for a writing class of twenty students.

The other limitation was the data itself. Using participants' responses to their own texts rather than a text of another does not reflect the depth of the participants' writing-knowledge for two reasons. The first reason related to D. H. Dunning's claim about "writers' own blindness to their faults" (Gere, 1987, p. 13). In a practical sense, participants might not be able to admit all of the errors present in their texts, which for Dunning was the essence of writers' ignorance of their writing ability and errors.

Secondly, the cognitive demand placed on a participant threatens that accuracy of data culled as writing-knowledge. For example, Victori (1999) used a participant's original text and asked each to explain the choices made in the production and revision of his/her text. Although Victori's data source and method differed from that of recent studies, this method centered on asking four students to report on their "self-regulating activities" (Butler and Winne, 1995, p. 246) as they wrote and revised their compositions. For Butler and Winne (1995), the feedback that Victori's participants produced was essentially internal feedback in which they say derives from the writer's responses to and about his/her self-regulating activities in the midst of compositing his/her written discourse. I took note of Butler and Winne's view of internal feedback in light of Graham's (2006) explanation that "theorists … have identified a variety of self-regulation strategies that writers use to manage the process of writing" (p. 463).

In that regard, Graham named "goal setting and planning" (p. 463), assembling the necessary information needed to compose, and self-assessment among a litany of self-regulation strategies that writers use to produce their texts. The methodological criteria of "another's text" was due in part to my observations of Victori's (1999) work, specifically, the cognitive load that writers faced as they commented on their own texts.

In short, Victori's (1999) design required participants to compose a text and in the process of writing, they had to stop to verbalize as many internal thoughts as possible. These thoughts were meant to target information related to the development of the text. Adapting the think-aloud protocol, Victori was able to document participants' thoughts to analyze as writing-knowledge data.

Given the number of knowledge bases accessed during the act of writing (Graham, 2006), I contend that the verbalized thoughts captured and examined did not reflect the extent of the network of thoughts occurring in the minds of Victori's participants. The network of thoughts, located in the mind of the participants, were invisible to the researcher, thereby prohibiting the researcher from comprehensive access to internal feedback so as to observe the extent of the ongoing cognitive activities in the midst of composing. In an attempt to collect writing-knowledge data using a think-aloud approach, researchers have asked participants to write a text, verbalize their thoughts about writing, and comment on their revision choices (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Berieter & Scardamalia, 1987). The demands that Victori's research design placed on the participants might have distracted participants from producing the targeted writing-knowledge data.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitation of using a writer's own text as the present text, Victori's (1999) method supported my proposition of using feedback data to trace writing-knowledge. Having reviewed Victori's methods, I realized that recent studies' use of descriptions of good writing should not be viewed as writing-knowledge data in the same vein as Victori's data. I took this position because recent studies' data was not generated in the midst of composing an actual text, which is the work of peer

review. That is, when peer reviewers develop responses to a peer's text, peer reviewers are essentially recomposing another's text with the goal of revising and editing. Thus, in that way, the feedback of Victori's participants qualified as data generated in the midst of composing a text.

Moreover, the methodological limitations I reviewed of recent writing-knowledge research were illuminated for me by Victori's (1999) method. In light of this observation, I hypothesized that response to writing was a viable data source when profiling writing-knowledge research, which I attribute to Matsuhashi et al.'s (1989) theoretical framework on response. In explaining their view of response as a "feedback process" related to peer review, they write:

> When response is seen as a feedback process, the link between response and revision can be seen as more than a means to an end. Revision is more than changes wrought in the visible text; it can be changes in plans or changes in invention processes, or even changes in understanding…. This view of revision implies a "revision of cognition …that must take place for transferable learning to occur, a [cognitive] reorganization that stems from response" (Freedman 1985, xi). Response, viewed broadly as an event, then, should encompass the developmental learning process, verbal interaction, sequences of writing events, and a variety of contexts. (Matsuhashi et al., 1989, pp. 296-297)

Thus, responses grounded in texts meant for revision are writing-knowledge data because revision feedback is produced in the midst of composing associated with "developmental learning process, verbal interaction, sequences of writing events, and a variety of contexts" (Matsuhashi et al., 1989, p. 297).

I also informed my understanding of a text meant for revision through McCutchen et al.'s (1997) research methodology. They asked participants to generate feedback for a text in which participants acted as editors—revising and editing another's text with the intent of improving its quality. In other words, texts meant for revision are texts written with knowledge that the text under review is a draft text and not a text ready for publication (Horvath, 2000). Additionally, texts meant for revisions are those that would prompt formative feedback and not summative feedback (Horvath, 2000).

To summarize, Graner's (1987) revision workshop model positioned students as reviewers of a peer-equivalent text tasked to produce feedback that was framed as "revision advice" to an "imagined peer writer." Further, by selecting texts authored by students who were not participants of the revision workshop session, Graner's model successfully eliminated the workshop limitation of worrying about offending peers through their comments or "hurting [the present writer's] feelings" (Spear, 1988, p. 134). Through Graner's model, peer reviewers did not have to contend with this limitation of peer review, and could instead focus on what matters most: practice in critical evaluation.

By removing peer review's known limitations, the revision workshop model fostered "thoughtful reading" (Gilliam, 1990, p. 99) by "Learning through Response," which enabled reviewers to provide feedback as if they were the author of the text. From that perspective, the feedback that Graner's participants produced was primed as writing-knowledge data to profile writing-knowledge because participants still generated their responses in the midst of composing another's text, albeit through a different model of peer review, through practice in critical evaluation.

Feedback and Conversation Towards Studying Writing-Knowledge

Although much of the research on writing-knowledge relied on indirect writing-knowledge data, other studies such as research on revision reported findings similar to writing-knowledge research. For example, Schoonen and de Glopper (1996), Lin et al. (2007), and Saddler and Graham (2007) concluded that skilled writers were more knowledgeable about writing and were able to appropriate that knowledge in the act of writing. Their claim that proficient writers provided global advice, as in organization, is consistent with observations reported by work in revision (McCutchen et al., 1997; Faigley & Witte, 1981). Citing McCutchen and colleagues' findings, Lin et al. (2007) explained that:

> Skilled writers appear to quickly develop a global structure for different types of written text, enabling them to detect out-of-place sentences during revising … less-skilled writers fail to consider the global structure and meaningfulness of their text and attend to superficial aspects of writing when revising; thus, their revisions tend to have little impact on the clarity of their writing. (p. 208)

For their study, McCutchen et al. (1997) set out to test assumptions of a theoretical model for revising in which they concluded that skilled writers knew more about writing than did their lesser performing participants.

McCutchen et al.'s observations were consistent with Faigley and Witte's (1981) findings. That is, after analyzing revisions made by expert adult writers, advanced student writers, and inexperienced student writers, Faigley and Witte (1981) reported that expert and advanced writers made more meaning-related revisions, and did so more frequently than the participants classified as inexperienced writers did. Inexperienced

writers made surface edits. Although writing-knowledge research was beyond the scope of research on revisions, in my observation the consistent findings between recent writing-knowledge research and revision research about the types of feedback that skilled and less-skilled writers generated, further supported my proposing of studying writing-knowledge by using revision-based feedback as the data source.

It is clear from my review of the literature that researchers did not considered revision-based feedback as a data source to profile writing-knowledge. While revision-based feedback remained what Matsuhashi et al. (1989) referred to as a "means to an end" (p. 296) to promote revising and editing, writing-knowledge researchers have used other data sources to investigate writing-knowledge. The data sources were derived using two distinct approaches. One approach was the use of interviews and the other was writing samples.

Saddler and Graham (2007) "assessed students' knowledge of the attributes of good writing and what good and poor writers do" (p. 237) by interviewing their participants. Lin et al. (2007) also used interviews to determine "the different types of writing-knowledge that students acquire during their educational experiences, including knowledge about the composing process, the purposes of their writing, writing genres, and application of these funds of knowledge when approaching various writing tasks" (p. 210). Aside from the interviews, writing samples about advice to writers were the other approach to culling writing-knowledge data. Schoonen and de Glopper (1996) had their 9th-grade participants write letters of advice on "how to write to get good grades" (p. 90). Aversa and Tritt (1988) had their seventh graders produce essays on advice to other

writers, published as a class book on "Advice to Writers." For these researchers, these advice writing-samples documented perceptions of good writing.

Like the writing sample wherein its author advised others about writing well, the interview was also a common means to elicit what one knows about writing (e.g. Kos & Maslowski, 2001; Lin, Monroe, & Troia, 2007), yet both of these methods did not position writers to demonstrate what writers claimed to know about writing. These methods also did not position researchers or teachers to validate what writers knew about writing.

McCutchen et al.'s (1997) revision research positioned writers to reveal what they knew about writing. By role-playing the part of "editors," participants provided feedback about two texts. Although McCutchen et al.'s research objectives did not extend toward writing-knowledge research, their data was suited for writing-knowledge research on the grounds that its data collection procedures involved generating revision feedback in response to a text.

I first observed the idea of exploring peer revision feedback in Mendonça and Johnson's (1994) study on ESL students' revision activities. Mendonça and Johnson reported that the feedback students gave each other reflected students' writing-knowledge, but they too like McCutchen et al. had not set out to research what students knew about writing. Through this observation of their work on revision, I realized that even though Mendonça and Johnson's (1994) findings implicate a link between feedback production and writing-knowledge, research in that regard has yet to be done. From the work on revision, my own exploration about the use of peer feedback data beyond

revising and editing advice and towards profiling writing-knowledge was further grounded.

The limitations of peer review, in its popular and present implementation as "a tool—attempting to mimic the instructor's oft-perceived aim of eradicating written error" (Parfitt, 2012, p. 3), drew Speck's (2002) attention at the turn of the century. As Speck contends, students perceive their peer review task as doing what they believe to be instructor behavior, of which some students insist they are not qualified to do the teacher's work. He explains:

> What students generally mean when they say, in so many words, that they are not competent to evaluate a peer's writing is that they do not know all the fine points of mechanics and grammar; they also may not have great confidence in their spelling ability. ... Students' focus on such points provides evidence that they have been taught that good writing is a matter of correctness. A good writer, they believe, does not make sophomoric mistakes, and anyone who is called to judge good writing would certainly have to have the knowledge to identify and correct such mistakes. (Speck, 2002, p. 83)

Although Speck was addressing efficacy of students' writing confidence as the reason to resist peer review activities, the perception that peer review is a matter of "eradicating written error" (Parfitt, 2012), as learned from teacher behavior, persists. Among these kinds of errors, according to Speck (2002), include spelling, fine points of mechanics and grammar, and other matters of correctness.

Regardless that a narrow perception of process's use of peer review remains, I did not consider feedback related to matters of correctness as insignificant or unnecessary.

To the contrary, if correctly communicated, feedback related to matters of correctness clearly demonstrates reviewers' knowledge of spelling and grammar. This matter is important in that feedback, regardless if it is spelling or related to matters of correctness, is made visible through commenting about a present text.

Research who have investigated revision know well the centrality of a present text if to cull writing-knowledge data. McCutchen et al. (1987) investigated students' revision data in order to determine which knowledge bases, "content and discourse" (McCutchen, 1986, p. 432), were reflected in the data. McCutchen et al.'s reliance on a present text, two in fact, in which to collect information about content and discourse knowledge used during revision processes, is common to the present work of using peer review feedback, which is no less than revision feedback, to profile writing-knowledge. Hillocks took up the matter with regard to research on composition and the writer's knowledge using different terms from that of content and discourse knowledge, which were the knowledge-bases that McCutchen identified. But, McCutchen and Hilloks are describing the same phenomenon regardless of what they call it. For Hillocks, he prefers "substantive and formal" (Hillocks, 1986b, p. 72). With regard to investigating knowledge through response, Liu and Hansen (2002) refer to those same knowledge bases as "content, linguistic, and rhetorical schemata" (p. 3).

Moreover, Mittan (1989), Liu and Hansen (2002) and Mendonça and Johnson (1994) suggest examining students' peer feedback for writing-knowledge purposes. Relatedly, Matsuhashi et al. (1989) examined tutor responses to examine evaluative strategies of writing center tutors. In the case of Matsuhashi's study, knowledge was referred to as "evaluative strategies" during the peer tutor event. No matter the names

that knowledge goes by, it is clear that various knowledge bases are activated when writing and revising. More importantly, knowledge of writing can be abridged to those that researchers investigate—like McCutchen, Mittan, etc.. In other words, these studies implicated a link between responses and writing-knowledge, yet feedback as a writing-knowledge data source goes unexamined for writing-knowledge research.

For Mittan, his students' feedback gave new purpose to peer review (as a method) and alternative use of its product (as a data source). For Mittan, this purpose extended beyond revising and editing. Still, however, in the process-writing classroom, peer review centered on revising and editing the product of writing: Reviewers produced feedback that they believed to improve the quality of a particular textual product, typically centered on correctness. Then, writers worked to incorporate that feedback into their revisions.

These procedures made process-writing's use of peer review a task wherein reviewers helped other writers revise their texts, in which most recently, Parfitt (2012) took aim at the perpetual view that reviewer's feedback was limited to information for revising and editing. Parfitt suggested that students develop an essay-type response to their completed peer reviews addressing the feedback they provided to their peers. Essentially, Parfitt proposed a rethinking of peer review as a genre with a purpose more important than eradicating error. Although Parfitt's aim is to eradicate error, Parfitt does see a use of peer review beyond revising and editing narrowly practiced as the work of correcting a student paper.

In retrospect, if produced by way of "thoughtful reading" (Gilliam, 1990, p. 99), peer feedback is consistent with ESL writing pedagogy's view of peer review (Liu &

Hansen, 2002) in that the "suggestions and explanations offered during the peer reviews allowed students to show what they knew about writing and to use that information in their revisions" (Mendonça & Johnson, 1994, p. 765). Thus, when reviewers articulate feedback through thoughtful reading, they are at once displaying their command of writing-knowledge in the midst of composing. Thus, because peer review requires the present text of another, a text intended for revision, one could not necessarily demonstrate what one knows about writing in the absence of it. In this way, a text is necessary because it prompts a reviewer to enter in conversation with a peer writer (present or absent) about the peer's text and engages in conversation with him/herself as the reviewer composes feedback to his/her peer's text.

On that note, the notion of "response" or "feedback" implicated the importance of the conversation about writing. That is, the nature of interviews and peer review models also required conversation. The conversation between reviewers and texts, reviewers and other reviewers, and reviewers and writers facilitate the admission of what one knows about writing. For me, Benesch's (1985) and Coleman's (1987) observations of their students' conversations during peer review activities, as well as Graner's (1987) implementation of the revision workshop model where students discuss a specific text as a whole class, all share one important characteristic: writers talking about what they know about writing. Their conversations about writing, prompted by the presence of another's text meant for revision, certainly contextualized the task of peer review for the purpose of writing-knowledge research.

As support for the treatment of peer review as a writing-knowledge data-collection event, Graner's (1987) revision model required reviewers to provide feedback

for a central text by engaging in conversation with it while at the same time engaging in conversations with other peer reviewers about it. Through generating feedback for and by discussing feedback about another's text intended for revision, reviewers are concomitantly admitting what they know and do not know about writing. Therefore, if Speck's observations about students' apprehension towards peer review as well as "grammatical-correctness" naysayers are correct, regardless of how more correct one may be over the other, I should anticipate that the feedback reviewers produce would include and go beyond error-correction data. What lies beyond error-correction data, it appears, is a matter of writing ecology (Cooper, 1986).

The peer review conversation, then, served as the medium in which feedback was revealed and debated by writers and reviewers alike. Considering the matter of writing ecology, the peer review conversation allows researchers, teachers, and students to observe the articulation of feedback about and beyond error-correction. For example, Benesch (1985) was able to observe her students meta-responses from a recorded peer review conversation. Benesch's ability to describe her student's meta-response themes stemmed from tracing her students' conversation and illustrated how writing-knowledge could be studied through peer review conversations.

Benesch's report (1985) also highlighted a risk of having students collaborate during peer review purposes. That is, achieving consensus by the end of a conversation was a continual challenge that interlocutors had to confront, and in the classroom, this is no different because students are meant to negotiate and compromise on the path towards achieving consensus. Certainly, on the path towards consensus, some peers and ideas risk being silenced and/or ignored. For instance, in the example from Pascale (Benesch's

student), Mark "silenced" Pascale's concerns about contradicting feedback by telling Pascale that Benesch and their group were not responsible for the quality of her text. Mark explicitly stated that Pascale needed to determine for herself how to synthesize Benesch's directions and her peers' feedback in the process of revising her text. Pascale's difficulties in synthesizing her peers' feedback with Benesch's directions might have not been so much an issue had Benesch allowed these students to participate in generating the criteria for the assignment. In other words, Pascale's confidence in reconciling Benesch's directions with her peers' revision suggestions might have been better if Pascale and her group had the opportunity to develop the criteria of good writing beforehand.

In that sense, Lindemann (2001) addressed the idea of student-generated criteria. She reported that unlike the criteria of good writing typically determined by the instructor, student-generated criteria of good writing fostered better understandings of what constituted the criteria of good writing (p. 208). Influenced by Lindemann's suggestion, I piloted this in my writing classes. In doing so, I recognized that my students generated criteria of good writing through conversation, just as did Benesch's (1985) and Coleman's (1987) students had. On that note, engaging in conversation about good writing, in my estimation, was a more purposeful outcome of Lindemann's proposition than the creation of a rubric on good writing which in turn would serve as the instrument to assess students' writing.

Lindemann (2001) highlighted two advantages of student-generated criteria of good writing. First, teachers empowered students by sharing responsibilities such as determining criteria of good writing, and secondly, students learned to solve writing

problems by way of articulating criteria of good writing. Lindemann's point was echoed among advocates of peer review activities in the composition classroom. That is, as students determined for themselves what constituted good writing, they became better at solving writing problems. In this way, if Pascale had the opportunity to participate in the discussions of good writing and had a role in the design of the assignments, Pascale might have been better positioned to reconcile the contrasting feedback she received about her text in light of Benesch's (1985) assignment directions.

Having students determine the criteria of good writing, for the purposes of developing the standards in which students' texts will be evaluated (Lindemann, 2001), is consistent with Aversa and Tritt's (1988), Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996), and Saddler and Graham's (2007) views and methods. That is, when students collaborate on the criteria of good writing either to generate a rubric on good writing or to provide advice about writing well, they are engaged in talk about writing. And when students are talking about writing for these purposes, they are demonstrating what they know about writing.

In common with Lindemann's view on empowering students to establish the criteria of good writing with the work of peer review is the conversation about good writing. Essentially, the conversation about good writing requires the use and fosters the development of what "Gere calls a 'vernacular' for talking about writing" (Gilliam, 1990, p. 99). Thus, the work of responding, Gilliam adds, "provides a language for thinking about writing" (p. 99). Talking about writing by way of providing advice about a present text, as is the activity of peer review supports the development of a vernacular of writing,

and a vernacular of writing, produced in conversation with others, makes it possible for both teachers and researchers to observe writing-knowledge directly.

Towards Methodology

Because peer review had been a tradition of school-based composition instruction (Gere, 1987), and activated only upon completion of a composition, peer review has been studied for a range of purposes other than writing-knowledge. Some of these purposes include: the stance reviewers took when asked to provide feedback to a text (Min, 2008; Mangelsdorf & Schlumberger, 1992), the language used by reviewers as they articulated feedback to peers (He, 1993), perceptions of sender's competence (Strijibos, et al., 2010), and effectiveness of peer tutoring (Topping, 1996). Even though peer review tends to be institutionalized as a part of teaching writing-as-process's revising and editing stage, the nature of these studies demonstrates otherwise. Clearly, studying peer review for purposes beyond revising and editing informs composition teaching and scholarship about the attitudes, perceptions, and relationships among and between students and their texts.

Thus, I turned attention towards literature that informed a methodology for profiling writing-knowledge. My exploration of a link between peer review and writing-knowledge is in response to an absence of this research in the literature. Although I initially suspected this gap in the literature following my secondary research activities using electronic databases, the absence of this literature was made more concrete for me upon my review of the research topics that Ferris (2003) catalogued in her chapter on "Research on Peer Response." Thus, because research of this nature has yet to be conducted, my overarching methodological approach was exploratory.

My interest in recent writing-knowledge data sources stems from the methods used to capture that data. For writing-knowledge research, given the methodological criteria reviewed in this chapter, textual review appears to be a methodological approach to secure writing-knowledge data ecology. My view of peer review as a site in which to observe active writing-knowledge was informed by works such as Mittan (1989), Schoonen and de Glopper (1996), Mendonça and Johnson (1994), Saddler and Graham (2007), Parfitt (2012) among the few.

Mei Ha and Storey (2006) illustrate this alternative perspective of peer review as a site for writing-knowledge although they framed it as writing development instead of writing-knowledge, and refer to peer review as "peer-editing." They write:

> Peer editing in writing courses should be adopted to provide opportunities for students to activate their awareness of writing effectiveness through discussion and to integrate what they know (declarative knowledge) with what they are doing (procedural knowledge) through peer feedback and finally improve their writing performance by learning from each other. The experience they gain from editing others' work will then contribute to their declarative knowledge. Peer-editing is in fact a kind of peer-assisted learning which does not only bring academic advancement but also social and affective benefits to the students. However, further investigation is needed to examine how peer-editing can be incorporated into the curriculum most effectively. It is time for language teachers to help students to do better what they already know how to do in principle. (Mei Ha & Storey, 2006, p. 297).

Notwithstanding the various and many models of peer review available to cull writing-knowledge data from peer feedback, I have chosen to incorporate Graner's (1987) revision workshop process as the guiding model in the design of the data collection procedures for this study. Through Graner's logistical review of revision workshops, I was able to define parameters of this study. These included interviews and feedback data of one EN 111 writing class that had an enrollment of no more than twenty students. A class size of twenty was standard for a writing course at this study's site. Because these practical logistical choices stemmed from my review of Graner's revision workshop model, as well as my knowledge of the research site, I turned to literature on methodology to guide the design of this study.

The references that guided me throughout this writing-knowledge research project related to writing research viewed from social-cognitive perspectives as described in Faigley et al.'s (1985) review of the three composing views of writing: literary, cognitive, and social. Moving passed the literary view of assessing writers, which emphasized evaluation of written products, and not on the writer's production of text, I turned to the cognitive and social views of writing research because, in my estimation, they aligned with methods used for writing-knowledge research and peer review pedagogy. Some of the literature that I consulted to construct this study's design included *Methods and Methodology in Composition Research* (Kirsch & Sullivan, 1992), Creswell's (2007) *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design*, and *Fundamental Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences* (Howell, 2004). Having reviewed these reference materials and by cross-referencing these texts with other literature on research methodology, statistical analysis, and recent and past research designs, I observed the possibility of an alternative research

framework that mixes methods and models (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) of quantitative and qualitative research.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY TO PROFILE WRITING-KNOWLEDGE USING PEER REVIEW FEEDBACK

In Chapter 1, I presented and discussed the central and ancillary research questions in which I sought to examine the kinds of institutionally determined knowledge of writing observable in peer-review feedback. I also gave an overview of my selection of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) mixed-methodology design to answer the research questions. In that regard, Chapter 1 attended to the first three steps of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) approach to mixed-method research: Stating the research questions, determining the purpose of mixed-methods research, and identifying the research methodology. In Chapters 2 and 3, I reviewed literature that grounded several methodological criteria necessary to secure ecology of writing-knowledge data. The methodological framework for this study applied those criteria to secure data ecology. To summarize the procedures used in this study, I interviewed participants, archived and categorized their handwritten and electronically produced feedback data, and observed their discussions about the compositions that prompted the feedback examined in this study.

For this chapter, I explain the procedures that complete Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) mixed-methods research steps 4 and 5, which are data collection and data analysis, respectively. With regard to step 4, I first provide a description of the research site before describing the data collection procedures of this study. As for step 5, data analysis, I begin with a review of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's seven stages, explain

my selection of the first three data analysis stages, and detail the activities of each of the selected stages. The stages selected for this study include reduction, display, and transformation.

Research Design

For the research design, I adapted several stages of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) mixed-methodology research process. Although mixed-methods research was applied in this study, the methodological research framework was informed primarily by Beach's (1992) review of descriptive research and microethnography as explained by Faigley et al. (1985). With regard to microethnography, Faigley et al. (1985) explained that microethnography was for school-site writing research because educational institutions have established learning goals that serve as the context of microethnographic research. I selected microethnography since the school site where the research was done had established learning goals, communicated as course learning objectives (see Appendix A).

As well, I selected Beach's (1992) descriptive research because I meant to describe through exploration a method that was useful for teaching writing and conducting writing-knowledge research. Beach (1992) claimed two specific benefits of descriptive research. The first was that descriptive research allowed teacher-researchers to access the language of the research, which I understood to be methodology. Beach claimed that descriptive research positioned teacher-researchers to rethink their classroom contexts by replicating past research or conducting new research as informed by descriptive research method. I took that to mean that descriptive research was

especially accessible to teacher-researchers. Along those lines, I took note of the second benefit of descriptive research, which occurred as the result of examining descriptive research without replicating the study for oneself. Beach explained that the simple act of reading descriptive research itself could influence teachers and teacher-researchers to rethink their pedagogy and research methodology.

Therefore, informed by Beach (1992) and Faigley et al. (1985) reviews of descriptive research and microethnography, respectively, within Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) framework of the mixed-methods research for practicing researchers, I worked to develop an accessible research procedure for teacher-researchers as a teacher-researcher myself. Thus, the mixed-methods research framework designed for this study was an attempt to bridge classroom practice and research methodology. With the methodological approach established, I proceed with a description of the research site's demographic information, including a brief history of its origin as a post-secondary institution, its student diversity, and its first-year composition curriculum. After I provide that information about the research site, I continue this chapter with the data collection and data analysis activities carried out for this study.

Research Site

The University of Guam (UOG), the site of this study, is located in the US Territory of Guam and was established in 1952 as the "Territorial College of Guam." In 1968, the college was renamed the University of Guam after receiving a maximum five-year accreditation. UOG is the western-most four-year public US Land Grant University. Fitting the Carnegie classification for diverse bachelor and master-degree granting

university and accredited by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges, UOG offers nearly fifty degree-granting programs for undergraduate and graduate students. As of Fall 2011, UOG's total population (undergraduate, graduate, and non-degree students) was $N = 3{,}721$. Of that total population, 72.72% were full-time students, 60.22% were female students, 89.14% were undergraduate students, and 9.35% were graduate students. There were 56 non-degree seeking students.

I selected UOG as the research site because college students from UOG have not been reported as participants of either peer review or writing-knowledge research. This reality is not surprising given an already limited pool of studies on peer review and writing-knowledge studies that investigate college-level student populations. To address this limitation, I selected UOG as the research site because its demographic information reflects a diverse population of college-enrolled students. Because I have selected these participants from at this specific research site, I overview UOG's student demographic information reported by UOG's Office of Institutional Research.

From the demographic information provided by the institutional researcher at UOG, the university is rich with a culturally and linguistically diverse population. It students self-identify as Chamorros from Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands which made up 42.3% of the student population at UOG in 2010-2012. Nearly 40% of the students were of Filipino decent. Other students came from the Micronesia region (7%) and Asia (5%). Less than 10% of students consisted of other ethnicities that include White non-Hispanic, Black non-Hispanic, Hispanic, Native Americans and Alaskans. UOG's students reported speaking multiple languages: English, Chamorro, Filipino, one of the many Micronesian languages (e.g. Yapese,

Pohnpeian, Kosraean, Chuukese, Palauan), and/or one of the Asian languages (e.g. Japanese, Chinese, Korean).

As an open-enrollment institution, UOG requires most new students to take English and Math placement tests to determine initial English and Math courses. To place new students into an English course, two instruments measure English language and writing skills: a 30-item CLOZE test and a 40-minute timed essay sample. Combining the total number of correct items on the CLOZE test and the essay score, students place into an initial English course. Trained and calibrated faculty members from UOG's Division of English and Applied Linguistics (DEAL) score the essay sample on the basis of a uniform rubric system.

Students place into one of three English composition courses: EN 085 Fundamentals of English; EN 100 Fundamentals of College English; or EN 110 Freshman Composition. EN 085 and EN 100 are developmental English courses. During academic year 2010-2011, 773 new students took the placement test. Of 773 test-takers, 69.99% placed into a developmental English course; 20.96% (n = 162) placed into EN 085 and 49.03% (n = 379) placed into EN 100. For academic year 2011-2012, of the new students who took the English placement test (N = 731), 74% (n = 541) placed into a developmental English course; 199 students (27.22%) placed into EN 085 and 342 students (46.78%) placed into EN 100. Students who enroll in EN 085 earn credits that did not count towards a baccalaureate degree, whereas EN 100 students earn elective credits that are counted toward graduation. For General Education curriculum purposes, EN 110 is considered the first credit-bearing college-level composition course at UOG, and EN 111 is the course subsequent to EN 110.

On rare occasions, a student is placed into EN 111 without taking the placement test or completing EN 110 at UOG. If a student scores 4 or 5 on the national Advanced Placement (AP) Exam, the student does not take the English placement test, receives credit for EN 110 without enrollment, and is placed into EN 111. Another reason a student might place into EN 111 is if the student transferred EN 110 (or an equivalent) credits to UOG. Otherwise, all students who enrolled in EN 111, for the context of this study, completed EN 110 (Freshman Composition) with a grade of C or better. UOG's undergraduate catalog describes the English 111 course as:

> A continuation of EN 110; emphasis is placed on clarity, accuracy, and effectiveness in written English; the techniques of research; and reading fiction and non-fiction. Grades are A, B, C, D, F, or NC. Prerequisite: EN 110 or advanced placement based on tests and an interview with the English Composition Committee. (UOG Catalog, 2011-2012, p. 138)

EN 111 is the final course in UOG's Composition Curriculum, and all students must complete EN 111 with a grade of "C" or better in order to enroll in 300/400 level courses.

Data Collection

Prior to data collection activities, I applied for and received Institutional Review Board approval from Indiana University of Pennsylvania and the University of Guam regarding the procedures and instruments used. Approval from the University of Guam Institutional Review Board was necessary because participants were students enrolled in an EN 111 Writing for Research course at the University of Guam (UOG). I carried out the approved procedures with the knowledge, consent, and cooperation of the course

instructor. Moreover, the course instructor required all students ($N = 20$) to participate in this peer review project, but submittal of data was strictly voluntary. Regardless of the course instructor's requirement to participate in this project, I analyzed the data only of students who signed the consent form and had submitted all data components.

The primary data collected for this study was peer-review feedback, which was either claimed feedback or actual feedback. I collected these feedback types at one or both of the two data collection events: Interviews and Revision Workshops. That is, claimed feedback was collected only during the interview sessions, whereas actual feedback was collected at both the interview and revision workshop events. In this section on data collection, I first review the procedures carried out at each of the data collection events and then I differentiate between claimed and actual feedback.

Procedures

Data was collected over two data collection events. In this section, I articulate the procedures used to collect data.

Data collection event #1: Interviews. For the first data collection event, I conducted interviews in my office located in the English building in the University of Guam campus. I developed the "Interview Procedures and Questions" sheet (see Appendix D) to guide the interview sessions. I recorded interviews using the LiveScribe's PULSE pen that I activated through the Dot Paper's control panel at the start of each interview session. The Dot Paper, which is an enhanced paper developed for the PULSE pen, also enabled me to digitize my handwritten notes taken during the interviews.

I held interview sessions between June 6, 2011, and June 18, 2011. The instructor was not present during these interviews. On average, each interview lasted one hour and 15 minutes. I asked participants to recall and describe the kinds of feedback they gave peers during past peer-review events. Then, I asked participants to read two short compositions and provide handwritten feedback for both. As for the origins of the short compositions, two former EN 085 Fundamentals of English students who had given me permission to use their essays anonymously produced the two short compositions, titled "iPad" and "Reading and writing are more important today [sic]" (see Appendix E). I told participants to use as much time as needed and contribute as much feedback as they wanted. After participants signaled that they had finished responding to the short compositions, I concluded the interviews with discussion about participants' responses to the short compositions. To note hereafter, reference to "iPad" will be abbreviated as SC1 for short composition 1, and reference to "Reading and writing are more important today" will be abbreviated as SC2 for short composition 2.

Data collection event #2: Revision workshop. The second data collection event commenced with an orientation session about the in-class revision workshop sessions. At the orientation session, I discussed the goals and objectives of this second data collection event. I held the orientation session after all interviews were completed, and the session took place at the participants' classroom site during one class session. For this data collection event, participants were ask to prepare their feedback about the two undergraduate research papers, titled "Civil Liberties" and "Aspiring Airheads" (see Appendix E), before the in-class sessions were conducted. As for the origins of these

research papers, two of my former EN 111 students who had given me permission to use their research papers anonymously for this study wrote them.

During the orientation session, I distributed and discussed a workshop notes handout (see Appendix F) to familiarize students with the format of the second data collection event. This handout stemmed from a similar one that I have used in the past to prepare my students for peer-review activities. There were several distinct sections of this handout: an overview of the peer-review session procedures, instructions on using Microsoft Word's track-changes feature, information about expected behaviors, and responses which participants could consider as they reviewed the research papers. To note, the response consideration section of this handout was not made available to participants prior to the orientation session for use during the first data collection event. Participants did not have access to the workshop notes document while responding to the short compositions they read and wrote feedback on during the interview sessions. After the orientation session, I emailed the two research papers to participants as ".doc" and ".docx" formats because I instructed participants to use the track-changes feature of Microsoft Word to compose their feedback electronically.

Participants emailed their feedback to me at the email address garciafeedbackproject@gmail.com before the first in-class peer-review session. The in-class peer-review sessions took place on June 21 and June 22, 2011. As I had with the interview sessions, I used the PULSE pen technology to audio record the in-class revision workshop sessions.

For the first in-class peer-review session, students discussed the first research paper, "Civil Liberties" (hereafter I will reference this first research paper as RP1), their

feedback about it, and their responses to each other's feedback. Then during the second session, participants discussed the other research paper, "Aspiring Airheads" (hereafter, this research paper will be referenced as RP2), their feedback, and their responses to each other's feedback about it. To begin these sessions, I reviewed the procedures for participants in order to ensure a smooth, efficient, and effective use of class time. The instructor was not present for the first session, but was for the second session.

With regard to the response consideration section of the handout, I did not take extra precaution to control participants' feedback or their use of this section of the handout. I intentionally chose not to do that because the response consideration section of the handout was intended to be informational and not prescriptive. Certainly, however, if I recognized that if the response consideration information influenced participants' feedback, I took note of it when reporting the results.

As I did with the short compositions, I removed any information that identified the authors of the research papers prior to electronically sending these composition instruments to participants. I also removed the author information recorded in Word's document properties. To remove these tags, I copied the research papers from its original electronic document and pasted it into a new Word document in which I was the registered owner of the document.

Feedback Types

Participants produced two kinds of feedback data: claimed and actual. In the section below, I differentiate between these two types.

Claimed feedback. Claimed feedback, reported only verbally, was elicited during the interviews by asking participants to consider three different scenarios and describe the kinds of feedback they provided in the past for each scenario. In one scenario, I asked participants to recall feedback required by rubrics used in previous peer-review tasks. If they were able to, they named what they remembered. Once I sensed that they recalled as much as they could, I presented the second scenario, which asked participants to describe additional feedback that they had given but was not among the feedback listed on rubrics used in past peer review. Lastly, for the third scenario, I asked participants about the kinds of feedback they would give peers if they did not have a rubric to guide their peer-review assignments.

Actual feedback. Actual Feedback was the feedback that participants produced on the four composition instruments (see Appendix E). Unlike claimed feedback which was produced absent a text, actual feedback was generated in response to the composition instruments. As a result, actual feedback data were more extensive in quantity and quality than claimed feedback data. Moreover, actual feedback was reported either in writing or verbally.

Participants generated both handwritten and typed (electronic) feedback on each of the four composition instruments. During the first and second data collection events, participants provided verbal feedback about the composition instruments. In the following subsections, I describe the difference of actual feedback produced *on* the compositions (written) and *about* the compositions (verbal) and I discuss the transcription process used to record participants' feedback in preparation for data analysis.

Written feedback* on *compositions. As mentioned, participants produced handwritten feedback for the two short compositions after reading those texts during the interview session, and electronic feedback for the two research papers using Microsoft Word's "Track Changes: New Comment" feature. To transcribe written feedback on the short compositions, I numbered each comment on the short composition instrument beginning with the first paragraph, first sentence, and first word. Then, I documented descriptive information about the feedback data item to include its location on the composition (i.e., paragraph, sentence, and word order), sequential order (i.e., first comment, second comment, etc.), and the feedback itself. Written feedback locations were expressed numerically. For example, feedback location identified and recorded as 1.3.4-6 referred to the fourth through sixth words of the third sentence in the first paragraph of the composition instruments. For comments not identified as part of the main text, with a paragraph, sentence, or word order sequence, e.g., paragraph 1 sentence 3 words 4 through 6, I used textual descriptors rather than numerical expressions such as "Title" or "Final Comment" as its feedback location.

Additionally for short compositions, I noted my interpretation of the nature of the feedback. I referred to the nature of handwritten feedback of the short composition instructions as revision operations that included the following:

1. Add
2. Delete
3. Insert
4. Replace
5. Insert-Replace (recorded as "INSERT-R")

6. Move
7. Comment
8. Emphasis

Prior to transcribing feedback data, I had not anticipated documenting these revision operations. I identified these revision operation in the process of transcribing participants' handwritten feedback of the short compositions in preparation for data reduction and data display. Moreover, only when I began to document handwritten comments did I observe these various operations. The terms that I have used to describe the operations reflect what I thought to be the common terms used when communicating feedback.

To transcribe feedback for the research papers, I extracted all feedback that participants typed into Word's track-changes comment bubbles in preparation for data analysis. While the sequential ordering of the comment bubbles was automatic, that ordering did not provide accurate feedback location. Because of that, I expressed feedback locations numerically as I did for handwritten feedback on the short compositions. To reiterate, I expressed numerical feedback location in the order of paragraph, sentence, and word(s), but for comment bubbles not attached to the main text, I provided the textual description of its feedback location, e.g., "Final Comment" or "Header".

The track-change comment bubble feature included a predetermined identification record of comment-bubble authors, which Word referred to as "reviewer," but this study refers to as "participant." Because this feature did not protect the identity of the author,

the participants of the study, I revised these identification records by manually replacing the predetermined identifier with participant number. Additionally, I added the feedback sequence to the participant number. To illustrate what I mean, take for example participant 1's first comment on the research paper. For participant 1's comment bubble identifier, I would use "P01" and add "-01" to mean that "P01-01" refers to participant 01's first comment-bubble.

In summary, actual feedback *on* composition instruments refers to the written feedback that participants wrote, either handwritten or electronic, on the composition instruments. Preparing actual feedback for data analysis involved a transcription process that included itemization of feedback data on each of the compositions, documentation of feedback descriptors such a feedback location, sequence, and operation, and deletion of information that identified participants. After itemizing participants' feedback data in preparation for data analysis, I documented participants' actual feedback *about* the composition instruments. These feedback data were reported verbally at either the interview or the in-class revision workshop sessions.

Verbal feedback* about *compositions. I provide this section on actual feedback that participants verbally reported to distinguish it from claimed feedback, which participants also reported verbally. That is, verbal feedback, as referred to in the later chapters of this dissertation, is actual feedback about one of the composition instruments. This kind of actual feedback is clearly different from claimed feedback in that participants reported actual verbal feedback in response to one of the composition instruments, whereas participants' claimed feedback was not in response to another's text meant for revision.

Moreover, participants provided verbal feedback for the short compositions during the interview sessions after having read and composed handwritten feedback on the short compositions. Participants gave verbal feedback about the research papers during two in-class peer-review workshop sessions. For the remaining chapters of this dissertation, I refer to all actual feedback *about* composition instruments as verbal feedback. In preparation for data analysis, I also documented feedback descriptors as I had done with actual feedback *on* the composition instrument, with the exception of feedback location. When reporting verbal feedback, participants did not specify a location in the text. Participants did specify feedback location when prompted by myself or other participants, but rarely did this happen for risk of distracting participants as they worked to articulate their feedback completely. Documenting actual feedback, both written and verbal, was the last data collection activity.

Thus, after collecting and organizing claimed, written, and verbal feedback data, I proceeded to analyze data. With regard to data analysis, I adopted several data analysis stages described by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004). In the following section on data analysis, I detail the processes involved for each data analysis component used in this study.

Data Analysis

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) data analysis for mixed-methodology consisted of seven stages, which included reduction, display, transformation, correlation, consolidation, comparison, and integration. For this study, however, I purposefully did not employ all seven stages, using only the first three stages: Reduction, Display, and Transformation.

I completed data reduction and data display activities concurrently. Data reduction involved assigning two codes to each feedback data item: A writing-knowledge matrix code and a feedback quality-level. In process of coding, I began to construct an inventory of feedback data, which I refer to as the comprehensive feedback database.

Following data reduction and data display stages, I began the work of data transformation. Data transformation, according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), is a process that involves converting qualitative data to quantitative data or vice versa for the purpose of quantitizing and qualitizing data in preparation for quantitative or qualitative analysis. For this study, qualitative data were quantitized and "represented statistically" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22), but this process involved two steps. The first step was converting pre-quantitized writing-knowledge matrix and feedback quality-level codes to numerical codes. Once all feedback data items writing-knowledge matrix and feedback quality-level codes were converted to their numerical codes, I proceeded with the second step of data transformation: represent the data statistically. In that regard, I analyzed the data using select components of descriptive summary statistics.

Data Reduction and Data Display

Data were reduced and displayed using two coding systems. The first coding system was the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B). The second coding system was the feedback quality-level evaluation (see Appendix C). The content of the writing-knowledge matrix aligned with the learning goals taken from the research site's first-year composition courses' learning objectives. Upon deconstructing the learning objectives for each of the composition courses, I developed this matrix to code feedback data. In this way, the data could be analyzed for the purpose of answering the central research

question. Feedback quality-level descriptors reflect my experiences of evaluating the quality of my students' peer-review feedback. In the following subsections, I elaborate on the design of these coding systems.

To assign these codes, I used the descriptor information available on the feedback data item record. Upon my review, I reduced feedback data to a textual descriptor on the writing-knowledge matrix, if one were available, and then proceeded to evaluate the feedback using the feedback quality-level descriptors. Once feedback data items were reduced to textual descriptors, I displayed these data as using the alphanumeric code the corresponded with a cell on the writing-knowledge matrix and a one of the nine possible feedback quality-level code combinations.

Writing-knowledge matrix. To construct the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B), I intuitively divided the course learning objectives (see Appendix A) into meaningful domains and subdomains of writing-knowledge. I was guided by my writing-knowledge repertoire to determine these various domains and subdomains as culled from each set of course learning objectives. Once each course learning objective was examined for meaningful units of knowledge, I reconstituted these as domains and subdomains of the writing-knowledge matrix. The development of the matrix was informed by my interpretation of Creswell's (2007) discussion on classifying "categories, themes, or dimensions of information" (p. 153) related to data coding and principles of group classificiation.

By extracting writing-knowledge topics from localized institutional learning objectives, I identified four overarching knowledge areas in which writing-knowledge

domains and subdomains could be assigned using group classification principles, that is, grouping based on topical and sub-topical relatedness. These knowledge areas include:

1. Conventions of Standard English
2. Idea Development
3. Conventions of Compositions
4. Conventions of Research Writing

Having identified these knowledge areas, I relegated appropriate and related domains and its subdomains to it. While the domain names were borrowed from terms used in the course learning objectives, subdomain names were derived from terms that I commonly use when responding to my students' work. Some of these terms include subject-verb agreement, idea development, documentation system, in-text citations, etc.

In all, I identified 89 subdomains on the writing-knowledge matrix. In no way does the writing-knowledge matrix capture all the possible knowledge areas, domains, or subdomains at work during the course of writing. Its content, however, was derived from and limited to the content of the course learning objectives that informed the content of the writing-knowledge matrix.

Generally, I assigned a writing-knowledge matrix code to each feedback data that corresponded to one of the subdomains listed on matrix, but there were instances where a feedback data item did not correspond to any of the subdomains. In such an instance, I reexamined the feedback data item to determine if the feedback could be reduced to any of the domains. If this were possible, then the feedback data item was displayed with the

corresponding knowledge-area and domain codes, but its subdomain was displayed as "z".

The "z" subdomain, which is a blank cell on the writing-knowledge matrix, reflected a subdomain that I did not identify during the development of the writing-knowledge matrix. Additionally, there were some feedback data items that could not be reduced to any of the knowledge-areas on the writing-knowledge matrix. These feedback data items were displayed with the code "z.zz" indicating that the feedback data item had an undetermined knowledge-area, domain, and subdomain.

Because the writing-knowledge matrix coding scheme was developed as a quantitative model of data coding, the absent knowledge-areas, domains, or subdomains illuminated through feedback data items could not be added to the matrix for this study, but this absence does not mean that the matrix cannot be revised for use in future research. Moreover, all data displays of undetermined knowledge-areas, domains, and subdomains were excluded from final data analysis because the content of those feedback data items were beyond the scope of the course learning objectives. In other words, I treated feedback data not displayed as one of the 89 established subdomains on the writing-knowledge matrix as beyond the scope of the institutionally determined knowledge of writing.

Feedback quality and level. Once actual feedback items were displayed with a writing-knowledge matrix code, I determined feedback quality-level using a restricted set of descriptors (see Appendix C). This restrictive set of descriptors included three quality categories and three levels of explanation. Feedback quality was evaluated as ineffective, neutral, or effective. Once I determined feedback quality, I assigned a quality-level

associated with the depth of the explanation pertinent to its inclusion and/or accuracy. Because claimed feedback was not generated in response to a present text, a feedback quality-level for claimed feedback data could not be assigned. Thus, only actual feedback data were evaluated for quality because this feedback was grounded in the presence of text.

I provide the following description to illustrate how I assigned a feedback quality-level code. If a reviewer's feedback involved placing a comma somewhere in the sentence, I returned to the feedback location and assessed the inclusion of the comma and its effect on meaning and/or correctness. If I evaluated the feedback as incorrect, that is, not useful, I numerically expressed my evaluation as *0*. If the feedback did not impact the quality of the text, that is, the comment was neutral, I expressed my evaluation as *1*. If I evaluated the feedback as effectively improving the quality of the text, then I would code it *2*.

After determining quality codes, I further reduced the feedback quality code by assigning it a level through the lens of my work as a writing teacher. These levels were also expressed using an alphabet code. I used the following alphabet codes to express each level: (a) feedback without explanation, (b) feedback with inaccurate explanation, or (c) feedback with accurate explanation.

Data Transformation

Data transformation was a two-step process conducted following data reduction and data display stages. The first step was the conversion of writing-knowledge matrix and feedback quality-level codes to numerical codes, as per Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's

(2004) directions. The use of numerical codes allowed me to complete the second step of data transformation—descriptive analysis. In this section, I elaborate on these details.

Numerical codes. All alphanumeric codes were converted into whole numbers. These whole-number codes correspond to one of the eighty-nine subdomains on the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix G for writing-knowledge matrix numerical codes) and one of the nine possible feedback quality-level combinations (see Appendix H for feedback quality-level numerical codes). Although I stipulated in the previous section that I excluded all underdetermined data displays from final data analysis, e.g., "z" subdomains and "z.zz" writing-knowledge matrix codes, I included "z" subdomains in the data transformation process. Data displays of "z.zz" were not included in the data transformation stage.

The following example of this conversion process illustrates the data transformation first step: If a participant wrote "This is a run-on sentence" on one of the compositions, this feedback would be reduced to the subdomain "run-on" and displayed as writing-knowledge matrix code "0.01a". Then for data transformation, the writing-knowledge matrix code would be converted to the whole number "1" because this was the numerical code identified for data displays of "0.01a". Then, if that feedback data item was displayed as feedback quality-level "0a", to mean ineffective feedback without an explanation, I would transform the data display to its numerical code *9*.

Admittedly, the numerical codes used for transformation of feedback quality-level *1* through *9* were hierarchically assigned. That is, the hierarchical ordering of feedback quality-level numerical codes reflected my evaluation of the feedback quality as being most, least, and not at all revealing of participants' writing-knowledge. Feedback

quality-level numerical code assignments were based on my interpretation of the feedback's clarity and usefulness towards improving the quality of the composition with numerical code *1* reflecting the best feedback and *9* representing the least effective feedback.

Descriptive analysis. For this second step of data transformation, I quantitized feedback data items through descriptive analysis. After completing the first step of the data transformation process, I conducted summary statistical analysis using Microsoft Excel. Specifically, I examined the results of mode, median, and range of the data displays because these results best fit the research purpose of determining frequencies of institutionally determined writing-knowledge. In other words, through these specific descriptive analysis measures, I was able to answer the central and ancillary research questions.

In Chapter 5, I present the results of data collection and data analysis. Then in Chapter 6, I discuss five observations of the outcomes of my exploration of peer-review feedback to profile writing-knowledge. In the final chapter, I draw conclusions about the results of the data and my interpretation of those results. Throughout these final chapters, I embed discussions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FEEDBACK DATA

In the previous chapter, I explained the procedures of data collection and data analysis used to carry out steps 4 and 5 of mixed-method research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). With regard to step 5, data analysis included a data transformation process "wherein quantitative data are converted into narrative data that can be analyzed qualitatively…and/or qualitative data are converted into numerical codes that can be represented statistically" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22). Simply put, mixed methods research permitted a process in which qualitative data are quantitized and quantitative data, qualitized. Invoking the data transformation process for this study, the qualitative feedback data were quantitized in preparation for descriptive statistical analysis.

This chapter first reports on participants' demographic information. Thereafter, I present the data results related to each research question. The results that answer the central research question are discussed first. I then review the results that pertain to the first two ancillary research questions. Because the third ancillary research question calls for a report of my observations of and between the results related to the first two ancillary research questions, I delayed discussion of ancillary research question 3 for Chapter 6.

In addition to presenting results related to the research questions, I explain my reasons for excluding specific data from analysis, presentation, and extended discussion. As mentioned in the previous chapter, several data collected did not work to answer the research questions and thus were excluded from further review. Specifically, feedback

quality-level data analysis results, feedback assigned "z" as its subdomain, and feedback coded "z.zz" were excluded from analysis. "z.zz" coded data and data with a "z" coded subdomain (WKM "KA.Dz") were excluded because the data did not wholly or partially correspond to descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix. Notwithstanding its exclusion from analysis, my initial observations of these data reveal findings pertinent to profiling writing-knowledge, but those findings do not pertain to the research question. And for that purpose, those discussions are not extended in this dissertation, but are addressed at the conclusion of this chapter.

Following explication on several ideas for further and future research to come about through the data excluded from analysis, I conclude Chapter 5 with a brief post-data analysis reflection. I summarize my data analysis activities in order to reflect on the actual research subject, my role as ethnographer, and the outcomes of this attempt at conducting a microethnographic descriptive study. This reflection will preface my discussion of ancillary research question 3, which is the subject of Chapter 6. Then, in Chapter 7, I conclude the dissertation by addressing several matters raised in the post-data analysis reflection that begins at the conclusion of this chapter. Specifically, I reflect on my agency as the author of this study that explored peer review feedback as a data source that can be used beyond revising and editing for the purpose of profiling writing knowledge.

Participants

The participants of the study were students enrolled in the EN 111 course at the University of Guam. I attended the first class session, distributed the Informed Consent

Forms, and presented an overview of this study. In all, 16 students agreed to participant, but only 14 submitted all data requested. Therefore, only the data of the 14 participants were analyzed in this study. Of the 14 students, 12 were female (86%) and 2 were male (14%). Only one of the 14 participants reported not being a US citizen, and 11 participants were born on Guam. Of the three not born on Guam, one was born in Saipan, another in Palau, and the third in the Philippines. Six participants (43%) identified themselves as Chamorro from Guam, seven (50%) identified themselves as Asian-Filipinos, and the participant born on Palau is of native-Palauan decent.

In terms of academic class standing, all but two participants were freshmen. Not all participants began their university-college schooling at UOG. Three participants transferred from community colleges; two transferred as freshmen and one as a junior. One participant enrolled at UOG as a high school dual-enrollment student. Of the 14 participants, 12 completed EN 110 at UOG; 9 of whom placed into EN 100. Three others placed directly into EN 110—the college-level first year composition course. Moreover, only 3 participants failed any of the English courses on the first attempt. Specifically, 1 of the 3 had to take EN 100, EN 110, and EN 111 twice. The two other participants completed EN 100 and EN 110 once, but EN 111 twice.

Demographic information about participants is limited to this section of the dissertation in order to protect the identity of participants. Securing the safety of the participants was a foremost concern throughout this dissertation process given the small participant size. Therefore, when reporting data results and discussing individual participants' writing-knowledge profiles, I reference participants using assigned participant number, e.g., Participant 1 or P01, without referring to participants'

demographic information. All references to gender, cultural and linguistic origins, or performance in past composition classes will not be used to profile writing-knowledge. With regard to gender, I may interchange he/she singular-third person pronouns when referring to a specific participant, so these should not be assumed to be the actual gender of a participant.

Central Research Question

In this section, I present the results related to the central research question, "What institutionally-defined knowledge of writing do reviewers bring to bear on another's composition?" To answer this research question I first considered the means in which reviewers reflect their knowledge on another's text. I targeted peer review feedback as the primary data source because the work of peer reviewing requires reviewers to use their knowledge of writing as the lens in which to review their peers' text. The product of peer review, then, is an artifact of one's writing-knowledge.

On that presupposition, I collected two types of feedback: Claimed and Actual feedback. As I mentioned in Chapter 4, claimed feedback includes those things that participants claim to have said and will say to peers about peers' texts for the purpose of peer review. Participants did not ground their claimed feedback in a text.

Actual feedback, on the other hand, is feedback produced about a specific text. Actual feedback constituted the bulk of feedback examined, and thus, actual feedback yielded results that created a profile of writing-knowledge culled from feedback data of one set of students.

In all, the 14 participants produced a total amount of 2,394 feedback data items. Of that total, there were 178 claimed feedback data items and 2,216 actual feedback data items. Moreover, in keeping to data coding procedures, which I explained in Chapter 4, I reduced participants' feedback data from its narrative form to an alphanumeric code that corresponded with one of the descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B).

Upon review of the outcomes of the data reduction process, I identified three feedback code categories, which I had not considered prior to the data reduction process. These data were grouped according to the writing-knowledge matrix code assigned to each feedback data item. As a point of reference, there are occasions when I abbreviate writing-knowledge matrix to "WKM" especially when referencing any of the three feedback code categories or any specific WKM descriptor or numerical code throughout the rest of the dissertation and especially in the Tables and Figures included in the Appendices. I reference specific Appendices in the following chapters of this dissertation. On that note, and for that same purpose, I abbreviated the labels for each component of the writing-knowledge matrix: Knowledge Area as "KA", Domain as "D", and subdomain as "sd".

To familiarize these abbreviations, I provide the following example . This example references Appendix B for the textual descriptors and alphanumeric codes and cross-references the descriptor and alphanumeric code with a numerical code included listed in the Writing-Knowledge Numerical Codes Matrix (see Appendix G). Therefore, using the format WKM "KA.Dsd": *sd* references subdomain descriptors. Thus, if a letter between a and f, and sometimes z, is assigned in the place of *sd* it can be located on the

WKM according to its D and KA assignments. I draw attention to *sd* first because subdomains form the bulk of the dimensions of the writing-knowledge matrix. To illustrate, the WKM *sd* descriptor "run-on" is assigned to the domain, *D*, "sentence structure". This domain falls within knowledge area, *KA* 0: Conventions of Standard English. Feedback related to run-on sentences were coded WKM 0.01a, and through the data reduction process, feedback assigned a KA, D, sd code were transformed as a numerical code. In the case of WKM 0.01a, the numerical code "WKM 1" was assigned.

The feedback code categories were not too difficult to identify because of the use of these abbreviations K, D, and sd. As a result of the data reduction process, wherein I discovered feedback that did not correspond to any subdomain or domain on the WKM, the three feedback code categories emerged. I labeled the first feedback code category as WKM "KA.Dsd". This first code category included feedback corresponded with any of the subdomain descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix, thereby be categorizing that feedback as fully or wholly coded. There were 1,775 feedback data items, of 2,394 total feedback data items, assigned a "complete" writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dsd" code. The large sum of feedback data reported as feedback code category 1 evidences that most of students feedback were related to writing matters that were draw from the course learning objectives and reflected on the writing-knowledge matrix.

The second feedback code category that emerged included all partially coded feedback data. A partially coded feedback data item was one in which its subdomain was assigned "z" while its knowledge area (KA) and domain (D) descriptors were taken from the writing-knowledge matrix. I assigned a "z" subdomain if the subdomains on the writing-knowledge matrix did not correspond to the feedback data. I used the

abbreviation “KA.Dz” to refer to this feedback code category (see Appendix I). With regard to the second category WKM “KA.Dz”, the amount of 203 feedback data items could not be assigned a subdomain code other than “z”.

The third category included all feedback labeled WKM “z.zz” which signified that that feedback did not correspond to any descriptor on the writing-knowledge matrix, namely a knowledge area and domain. In other words, this category included feedback data items not assigned with either a complete WKM “KA.Dsd” code or a partial WKM “KA.Dz” code. These feedback data were coded “z.zz” when none of the WKM “KA.Dsd” or WKM “KA.Dz” descriptors pertained to the feedback data item. In all, participants produced 416 “z.zz” feedback data items.

Although some 2,394 feedback data items were collected from two data collection events, the data reduction process had shown me that not all feedback data items were appropriate for, and useful towards, answering the research questions. Because the central research question placed emphasis on observing institutionally-defined knowledge of writing, I omitted the second and third feedback data categories from further data analysis. Those results simply did not answer the research questions. The data excluded from analysis reflected dimensions of writing-knowledge that were not culled from the course learning objectives.

Because I excluded feedback code categories 2 and 3 from data analysis, I wish to be clear that I valued all feedback as knowledge of writing revealed during the peer review process. Because the scope of writing-knowledge was narrowed to those determined by the institution through its learning goals, e.g., course learning objectives,

only data assigned to the WKM "KA.Dsd" feedback code category were included for analysis.

Towards data analysis, then, the data reduction process required an intensive examination of each feedback data item, to be as restrictive as necessary about which data to exclude from analysis. Data and results excluded were stored for future review. One such data and results stored were related to the disparity between the amount of claimed feedback and the amount of actual feedback submitted for analysis. Although a total of 619 feedback data items were excluded from subsequent data analysis procedures, 1,775 feedback data items were analyzed. The two feedback types that make up the combined feedback data amount of 1,775 contributed a seriously uneven amount of data items. Claimed feedback data made up only 5% of the combined feedback data amount (n = 93), and actual feedback made up 95% of that amount (n = 1682).

Since participants reported actual feedback data orally and in writing, I decided to separate written actual feedback from orally reported actual feedback. Participants produced 1,557 written feedback data assigned to feedback code category 1. They produced 125 verbal feedback data items also reported as data assigned to feedback code category 1. In an attempt to understand the disparity between the amount of claimed feedback and actual feedback data submitted for data analysis, I reexamined participants' feedback data in its original text-based form. This examination yielded several findings.

First, participants submitted more written feedback data items than they did orally reported feedback data items. Secondly, participants articulated more specific revision suggestions in writing than they had for their orally delivered responses although orally reported actual feedback was more specific than orally reported claimed feedback. These

findings implicated the necessity of written feedback and text-specific feedback to observe institutionally defined writing-knowledge in feedback data. That is, participants typically did not explicitly or extensively articulate orally reported feedback, whether text-specific or not, as they had when composing their written feedback that was text-specific.

I initially selected alphanumeric codes to express writing-knowledge matrix descriptors. These alphanumeric codes unnecessarily complicated descriptive statistical analysis procedures. The process of data transformation wherein qualitative data are quantitized (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) was a process to replace alphanumeric codes with whole-number numerical codes. By transforming the alphanumeric data to numerical codes, I was able to conduct descriptive statistical analysis.

The data transformation process entailed assigned a number of each of the subdomain on the WKM to include those coded "z." Data assigned to feedback code category, namely those with a sd code, were assigned a number between 1 and 89, depending on its subdomain descriptor (see Appendix G for numerical code key). Numbers 90 through 115 were assigned to feedback data coded WKM "KA.Dz".

Once data were transformed and assigned a numerical code, I conducted the descriptive statistical analysis. With regard to the results of descriptive statistical analysis, I chose to report on only two measures of central tendency: Mode and Median. I also included the minimum and maximum numbers to express the range of participants feedback data across the WKM I included the results of maximum and minimum WKM codes to contextualize the two measures of central tendency reported (see Appendix I). Viewed together, these results revealed meaningful interpretations toward the central

research question. I also reported these results alongside the presentation of the aggregated data distribution results (see Appendix I).

Using median and mode for data interpretation, I was able to identify data distribution trends across the writing-knowledge matrix. Range was determined by the maximum and minimum numerical code identified on the summary statistics report. Moreover, the numerical codes assigned to feedback data represented nominal data and not ordinal values. For that reason, I excluded several summary statistics results from this report because for nominal data, certain measures, like Mean, did not lead to any meaningful interpretations that worked to answer the research questions.

With that said, the mode of the quantitized data was WKM 43, which was the numerical code for the textual descriptor "sentence-level (re) phrasing / awkward phrasing (part of sentence)." The median WKM 38, referring to the writing-knowledge matrix descriptor "clarifying existing ideas," evidenced that less than half of the feedback data were related to matters of correctness. On the writing-knowledge matrix, knowledge area 0, which spanned WKM numerical codes 1 through 35, included the course learning objectives' relative to matters of correctness. Because the median WKM 38 was among the WKM numerical codes designated as knowledge area 1, participants' feedback did not strictly address matters of correctness.

The remaining data spanned three knowledge areas: KA1, KA2, and KA3. Knowledge area 1 consisted of domains and subdomains related to idea development (writing process). KA1 subdomains were assigned WKM numerical codes 36 through 49. Knowledge area 2, conventions of compositions, used WKM numerical codes 50 through 71. Lastly, knowledge area 3 categorized knowledge about the conventions of

research writing and then assigned WKM numerical codes 72 through 89 to each of its subdomains. To reiterate, the data submitted for analysis were restricted to those assigned a WKM numerical code between 1 and 89. These distribution trends can be observed in the Aggregated Data Distribution Results (See Appendices K and L).

Data analysis of the data categorized as feedback code category 1 (WKM "KA.Dsd") reported its median to be WKM 38. But this median indicated more than just the halfway mark of data distributed between WKM numerical codes 1 and 89. The median results showed that the participants produced feedback that was consistent with claims that peer reviewer perceive good writing as error-free (Speck, 2002). The median, at the same time, countered that prevailing and narrowed perception of good writing in that aggregated data distribution results (see Appendices K and L), report that participants demonstrated a range of writing-knowledge based on the dimensions of the WKM.

As observed in participants' data, good writing entailed other matters beyond error-free writing. That is, a little more than half of participants' feedback, feedback classified as WKM "KA.Dsd" (n = 1,050), spanned WKM numerical codes 36 through 89. I interpreted this result to mean that many of the participants had produced feedback about and beyond matters of correctness, which they had when reviewing the aggregated data distribution results (see Appendices K and L). This median also indicated several data concentrations across the writing-knowledge matrix.

Although the results report WKM 43 as the mode of quantitized data, a closer examination revealed that this result was especially influenced by the amount of written feedback analyzed (n = 1,557). To explore the implications of this observation, I

conducted a second descriptive statistical analysis in which I removed written feedback from analysis. Submitted for analysis then, were orally reported feedback data, which included claimed feedback data and verbal actual feedback data. The results reported WKM 47 as mode, "proofreading conventions."

Moreover, while examining participants' written responses in light of the data results, I noted data coded WKM 43 often prompted secondary feedback data, which typically, more often than not, were matters related to proofreading conventions (WKM 47). When participants provided feedback about sentence-level revisions (WKM 43), some extended their responses to include a rewritten sample to illustrate their advice, much like how David provided an imagined text to example his advice on using appositions that I discussed in the earlier chapters. When participants provided WKM 43 feedback, they often followed-up with a writing sample that demonstrated correct use of what was inaccurate in the written text. In brief, participants attended to matters of idea development and correctness.

To elaborate on this relationship between WKM 43 and WKM 47, I provide the following illustration. If a participant suggested "idea rephrasing at the sentence level," I further examined the feedback to determine if the reviewer also rewrote the text as the reviewer suggested. If this were the case, I would document that feedback separately and code it as WKM 47, because its content reflected editorial feedback associated with proofreading conventions.

On that note, most if not all feedback pertaining to writing mechanics were coded *47*, regardless if they were prompted by another more dominate feedback item. I discovered the absence of descriptors related to writing mechanics on the writing-

knowledge matrix. I noted these absences while working to reduce the data. Those, however, were not the only descriptors not included on the writing-knowledge matrix.

Among the various descriptors not included on the writing-knowledge matrix, I noted the absence of a descriptor related to matters of composing an introduction. There were no domains and subdomains for "introduction," which I would expect to see among the domains and subdomains of KA 2, conventions of compositions. Also not among the descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix were topics that reflected reviewers' meta-commentary such as "Your sentence structure interrupts my reading." "The writer failed to capture my attention." "Your text must relate to something that is familiar to readers." Identifying absent descriptors were possible through the data reduction process, but as mentioned already, because the research questions were specific to institutionally-defined writing-knowledge, these data are not elaborated on in this dissertation.

Additionally, meta-commentary was also reported during the interviews. These topics were inventoried on the various interview data sets (see Appendix J). Also inventoried were participants' past peer review experiences and their perceptions about the benefits and challenges of peer review work. Their responses were itemized by data set, which were included on Appendix J. Although I did not extensively detail these matters, I did embed discussions about those data and results at various points here and Chapter 6.

In the next sections, I present data results that answer the first two ancillary research questions. As for the third question, I will discuss my observations in the next chapter, Chapter 6. I begin with the results associated with the first ancillary research question, "What feedback do participants claim to give peers about their (peers') papers?

In other words, what do participants say they look for in their peers' text when tasked to review them?"

Ancillary Research Question 1

Data reported as claimed feedback was elicited from participants as: (a) Specific dimensions of peer review rubrics used in the past that participants could recall, and (b) Feedback not enforced by a rubric, but provided to peers in addition to the dimensions of a rubric, and 3. Feedback provided in the absence of a peer review rubric. Participants' responses were recorded and presented over several interview data sets (see Appendix J). Collectively, participants reported a total of 178 claimed feedback data items. The average number of claimed feedback items produced per participant was 13.

For the first claimed feedback data source, which was the recollection of the dimensions of peer review rubrics, a total of 14 topics were extracted from interview transcripts. These topics made up the first data source of claimed feedback data (see Appendix J: Data Set 2B.2), and although there were 14 individual topics named, collectively participants provided 58 data items spread across these topics. The disparity between these numbers can be accounted for because participants named many of the same dimensions recalled from past peer review rubrics. For example, two dimensions from past peer review rubrics were named by nine participants:

1. "Content: Ideas" as related to paper/supporting ideas"
2. "Content: Main idea" as related to thesis/topics sentences

Of the 14 data items, five topics were coded with a complete WKM "KA.Dsd" code, seven were assigned the partial WKM "KA.Dz" code, and only two topics did not

correspond with any of the writing-knowledge matrix knowledge areas and domains. Those two feedback data items, then, were assigned feedback code "z.zz". The results of this first data source for claimed feedback data, specifically given that seven data items did not exactly correspond to a specific subdomain, support my assertion that feedback provided without a specific-text tended to be more ambiguous than text-specific feedback. The only knowledge area wherein all its feedback topics were assigned a complete writing-knowledge matrix descriptor code was knowledge-area 1, "Idea Invention to Transcription (Writing Process)". In other words, participants' responses that were classified under KA 1, specifically for this particular claimed feedback data source, corresponded to a subdomain descriptor on the WKM.

With regard to additional feedback, some participants recalled that several topics in which they had come to view as "standard" rubric dimensions were not always included in every rubric used in the past. If this were the case, participants explained that they provided comments related to the missing standard dimension. Because participants' notion of "standard" feedback categories drew my attention, I constructed two groups of "additional feedback" to be precise in describing additional feedback data sources (see Appendix J: Data Set 2C Group 1).

The content of the first group was pre-determined, as it was identical to the dimensions that participants recalled from past peer review rubrics (see Appendix J: Data Set 2B.2). I assigned the content of data set 2C Group 1 as the same data set 2B.2 on the presupposition that the topics participants recalled from past peer review rubrics (see Appendix J: Data Set 2B.2) reflected standard dimensions of rubrics used for peer review. In that regard, participants explained that the listing of feedback topics on peer

review rubrics were inconsistent in that certain dimensions will be included one rubric, but not featured on another. Therefore, to distinguish these feedback data sources on that premise, the topics included on data set 2B.2 served as the standard dimensions of past peer review rubrics. Other additional feedback not identified on data set 2B.2 were inventoried and included as part of the second group of additional feedback.

The content of the second group, which were not among the dimensions of past peer review rubrics (see Appendix J: Data Set 2B.2), included 22 data items. Although there were 22 data items, only nine topics were identified as the kinds of feedback participants would provide in addition to the dimensions of peer review rubrics. More importantly, however, of the nine topics recorded for this data set, only three topics were fully classified using the descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B). Two topics were coded with the same writing-knowledge matrix descriptor, "proofreading conventions," WKM 47, although its content addressed two different issues associated with proofreading.

The last data source reported claimed feedback that participants provided peers in the absence of a rubric (see Appendix J: Data Set 2D). For this data source, participants provided 82 data items that were distributed over twenty-two feedback topics. The amount of data items and feedback topics recorded from this data source clearly outnumbered the amount of data items and feedback topics submitted for the other claimed feedback data sources (e.g., Data Set 2B.2, Data Set 2C Group 1, and Data Set 2C Group 2). I took note of this because participants recalled fewer dimensions of peer review rubrics, but in the absence of a rubric, the amount of claimed feedback data that participants produced increased.

As for the results of feedback coding for these two groups of 2C datasets, five topics were coded "z.zz" and seven topics were assigned a "z" subdomain code. Thus, ten feedback topics corresponded to one of the writing-knowledge matrix descriptors, which was far more feedback than those reported in any of the other claimed feedback data sources. Of the topics assigned a complete writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dsd" code, there were two topics identified by most of the participants (i.e., no fewer than 10 participants). These topics included responses about the clarity of main ideas (thesis) and grammar use. That is, when participants did not have a rubric to guide their peer review feedback, all but three participants reported that they examined the clarity of their peers' main ideas, whereas 10 participants admitted they corrected grammar.

Among the 22 topics identified by participants for this data source, nearly all participants cited only one feedback topic. After further examination of the topic "points/supporting ideas/evidence" that is a shared concern between 12 participants, I better understand the trend of claimed feedback data. That is, the problem of the topic was assigning it an appropriate feedback code. This feedback topic did not correspond precisely to any of the subdomain descriptors associated with WKM 2.03. Because these participants' claimed feedback was vague, I assigned a "z" subdomain to it. Other than the three feedback topics described here, no other topic included in data set 2D were reported by 12 or more participants. There were, however, a couple more topics reported by no more than six participants. On average, two or three participants contributed most topics, regardless of its feedback code category designation. These data results were reported on Appendix J (see Data Set 2D).

To summarize the results related to ancillary research questions, participants recalled dimensions of past peer review rubrics, identified types of feedback that participants claimed to give peers in addition to the dimensions of the rubric, and reported the kinds of feedback they would give peers in the absence of a rubric. The results showed that most participants claimed to provide feedback related to matters of correctness, idea development, and conventions of compositions. Further analysis of these data sources revealed several more findings.

First, participants reported dimensions of past peer review rubrics associated with matters of idea development, composition conventions, and proofreading. Notably, participants' topics that related to WKM KA 1 (Idea Development) were assigned a complete WKM "KA.Dsd" code, meaning that each topic associated with idea development corresponded with a subdomain descriptor (see Appendix J: Data Set 2B.2). As for topics related to conventions of compositions, those were more often assigned a partial writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dz" code. This outcome suggests that topics about matters of composition conventions did not fully correspond to any of the descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix. This observation suggested to me that participants were better able to discuss idea development using precise and accurate terms and concepts associated with idea development. Their ability to use specific terms and accurately refer to several concepts about idea development contrasted their ability to use terms and refer to concepts about matters related to conventions of compositions. That is, participants did not produce claimed feedback data about the conventions of compositions that corresponded with the descriptors identified on the writing-knowledge matrix.

Secondly, with regard to data sets 2C Group 1 and 2C Group 2 (see Appendix J), participants produced the least amount of responses assigned a complete writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dsd" code. Of the 18 feedback topics documented between these two data sets, only six topics corresponded with a subdomain descriptor on the writing-knowledge matrix. These outcomes supported participants' claims that, for the most part, they adhered to the dimensions of peer review rubrics and only provided additional feedback that exuded a supportive tone. Participants' examples of these were included on data set 2C Group 2 (see Appendix J).

Lastly, in the absence of a rubric, participants said they provided as much feedback as they could remember while advising peers about their texts. Participants' claims were also supported by the data collected for the last data source (see Appendix J: Data Set 2D). In other words, participants generated the largest amount of data pertaining to the kinds of feedback they would provide their peers in the absence of a rubric.

Over the past section, I presented data and results that formed the claimed feedback database. These data stemmed from feedback topics that participants recalled from rubrics used during past peer review events, feedback that participants provided to peers in addition to the dimensions required of the rubrics used for peer review, as well as feedback they would provide peers in the absence of a rubric. In all, participants generated 178 claimed feedback data items, of which only 93 were submitted for descriptive statistical analysis.

In terms of descriptive statistical analysis results, I presented those in the previous section wherein I discussed the aggregated data and descriptive statistical analysis results.

In that section on the "Central Research Question," I presented an overview of the trends of the data from a comprehensive perspective. Following the presentation of the results related to the central research question, I discussed data results pertinent to the first ancillary research question. The results presented essentially describe the feedback that participants claimed to provide peers.

Ancillary Research Question 2

In the final section designated for results presentations for this chapter, I report on the feedback data that participants provided on the four student-written compositions. These results pertained to matters associated with ancillary research question 2, "What actual feedback do participants say about the four student-written compositions supplied by the researcher?"

To answer this research question, I collected and analyzed written and verbal advice about writing just as previous researchers had done. Informed by the work of Schoonen and de Glopper (1996), McCutchen et al. (1997), Saddler and Graham (2007), Min (2008), Benesch (1985), Coleman (1987), Aversa and Tritt (1988), among many others, I chose to collect written feedback about four compositions. I also chose to facilitate, audio record, and transcribe several writing conferences and in-class peer review sessions in which participants chose to either orally report their prepared actual feedback or verbally discuss their impressions about the composition instruments. In my role as ethnographer, I participated in the environment in which the research subject exists (Babin & Harrison, 2000, p. 169) without disrupting its ecology. Through my involvement with the research subject throughout the data analysis process, I began the work of profiling writing-knowledge using text-specific feedback data. In this section, I

report on the results of the aggregated data and descriptive analysis of actual feedback data.

Upon data collection, I examined, documented, and coded participants' written feedback on the four student-written compositions. Those activities were completed during the data reduction process. The data reduction process also led to the development of an inventory of actual feedback data, which I have referred to as the comprehensive feedback database.

While the outcome of the data reduction process was the development of the comprehensive feedback database, the outcome of the data transformation process was the re-presentation of the feedback data as numerical codes. That outcome was central to analysis of quantitized data. By using quantitized data, I was able to report the results of aggregated data distribution and descriptive statistical analysis. Although I have already presented aspects of those results in the preceding sections of this chapter, I reflect on those processes and results briefly to give rise to my analysis of the bulk of feedback data: actual feedback data. Of the two types of actual feedback that participants produced and submitted for analysis, that is, written and verbal feedback, written feedback was the primary feedback data source because participants generated a greater amount of written feedback data than did for orally reported feedback, such as actual feedback and claimed feedback.

Having conducted analysis on written feedback data prior to claimed and actual verbal feedback data, I experimented with several data displays in which "to pictorially" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22) display the data and its results. To display these data, I developed an index-type chart (see Appendix K). On that chart, I reported through

display the aggregated data results of quantitized data. The aggregated data results on Appendix K were sorted by WKM Numerical codes, beginning with WKM 1, and grouped according to their designated knowledge area on the writing-knowledge matrix.

Thereafter, I sorted the data results by the total aggregated data for each WKM code to display an index-type chart wherein the WKM numerical code most frequently observed in that data appeared on the first row of the chart on Appendix L. Because of this sorting, the codes that did not yield feedback data items were relegated to the last rows of this chart. In other words, Appendix L reports the WKM numerical codes aggregated data results as sorted by total data items observed in descending order.

Following the outcomes of this data sorting process, I divided the data into four groups. The first group included only the WKM numerical codes from 1 through 89 that reported as least one feedback data item, regardless if it were reported orally, as claimed or actual feedback, or in writing. In doing that, all codes that reported zero data items were identified, reviewed, and then excluded from further analysis. Additionally, I used this same criterion to divide feedback code category 2. The sorts revealed that 26 subdomains between WKM 1 and 89 did not yield any data item, and as for WKM "KA.Dz" data, only four codes did not report feedback data.

Because several WKM codes did not report data items, several interpretations are possible. For example, participants might not have been prompted by the composition instruments, or their past peer review experiences, so as to be concerned about those matters in which participants did not generate feedback. I also considered the possibility that participants had not yet acquired the knowledge of those subdomains, or they were perhaps still developing a functioning competency of those writing-knowledge domains.

The limitations caused by the participants were not as critical as the threat my limitation posed towards data analysis. For this reason, I often reflected, time and time again, on the feedback data and on the codes in which I assigned them. I constantly reflected on my coding practices to ensure coding consistency; to be certain that the writing-knowledge dimensions that did not report data, were not caused by my own biases or limitations with appropriating English the language and appropriate the composition of it.

To increase my own confidence, I coded the data twice, on separate occasions, and with a couple of months between the two data coding periods. I called this process the feedback location test, wherein I sorted the feedback based on their location in relation to the composition instrument. Because of this, only written feedback data were subjected to the two coding periods mentioned above. There were several coding discrepancies, and each discrepancy was resolved by conducting a more in-depth analysis of the feedback in the context of the composition that prompted it. In these instances, I examined the feedback in my capacity as writing teacher; role-playing the kinds of responses I would provide my students had that feedback data item been authored by them.

After intensive and thorough analysis of these feedback data items, I determined a code for them. I would then reexamine other feedback data assigned the WKM code under review so as to determine their fit as bearing the same WKM code. If I did not assess a good fit, I returned to the writing-knowledge matrix and reviewed my coding notes as part of the process of reevaluating feedback. This process continued until all coding discrepancies were resolved. If I assessed the feedback to fit among other feedback assigned the same WKM code, then the assigned code remained.

Returning to the presentations of actual feedback data, the index-type chart in which I reported the results and distributions of aggregated data across the subdomains of the writing-knowledge matrix reflect analysis of quantitized data. In the form of quantitized data, these reduced and transformed qualitative data make possible a tangible means in which to gain a macro view over the data in which to identify data concentrations. Appendix K and L both provide this macro view of the data, although those two appendices sort the data differently. Moreover, the data concentrations reported in this section were first observed on the "Aggregated Data Results and Distributions by WKM Numeric Codes" chart (see Appendix K).

From the chart on Appendix K, eight data concentrations were observed. These were grouped as primary data concentrations because all subdomains were identified as having reported at least one feedback data item. Appendix M includes results and distributions of aggregated data for the subdomains assigned to each domain identified below:

1. Sentence Boundaries (WKM 0.02)
2. Word use and phrasing (WKM 0.08)
3. Punctuation (WKM 0.10)
4. Invention (creating) (WKM 1.01)
5. Idea transcription (WKM 1.02)
6. Idea editing for publication/presentation (WKM 1.04)
7. Thesis sentence (WKM 2.01)
8. Support (WKM 2.03)

The order of these primary data concentrations follow their WKM descriptor code which are indicated in the parenthetical notations. Because WKM domains did not undergo the data transformation process, domains were not assigned a WKM numerical code. In place of a numerical code, I opted to use the domain's textual descriptor and include its alphanumeric code beside it for ease of reference if to review these domains positions on the writing-knowledge matrix (see Appendix B; for numerical codes see Appendix G).

The data of each of these domains were extracted from Appendix K and Appendix L and were reported separately in order to provide a more focused view of these primary data concentrations. Regarding Appendix M's sorting order, which is from greatest amount of data items to least, word use and phrasing (WKM 0.08) was positioned first because participants provided over 400 feedback data reported in this domain. This result appears to be consistent with participants' claims about the feedback in which they provide peers about their peers' texts. Participants' focus about matters of word use and phrasing evidences their concern for how peers express their ideas.

The greatest data combinations as observed on Appendix M are those domains associated with matters of controlling one's language so as to not obscure meaning. For example, there were two domains reporting the greatest amount of claimed feedback: Proofreading conventions (WKM 47) and Clarifying existing ideas (WKM 38). The combination of these observations was consistent with my observations as a writing teacher. That is, clarifying existing ideas typically give rise to several editing matters that writers must address, but at times, reviewers attend to it so writers do not have to complete those edits. These matters often deal with matters considered as general proofreading conventions. This observation drew my attention because I observed a

relationship between feedback initially coded WKM 43 and the secondary feedback that it prompts because the secondary feedback is often related to matters of proofreading , WKM 47. As mentioned already, WKM 43 refers to feedback classified as "sentence-level (re) phrasing" and WKM 47 refers to "proofreading conventions."

My observations of Appendix M led me to uncover another relationship between feedback coded WKM 38 and WKM 43. WKM 38 calls writers to clarify an idea that exists in the text because the idea may be inaccessible to the reviewer or the reviewer may unsure about the idea's place or significance in the text. In terms of WKM 43, a reviewer draws attention to a narrowly defined idea; an idea that is part of a broader idea equal to the span of the sentence. WKM 43 denotes feedback that modifies ideas at the sentence level, within the sentence, so to as achieve precision in meaning. WKM 38 refers to a much broader revision stroke that might entail a greater amount of time spent revising.

While their relationship involves the extent of revising ideas, my observations of these domains were linked to their relationship to WKM 47. In the discussion about the median and mode results associated with the first ancillary research question, I elaborated on the relationship between WKM 43 and WKM 47, and also identified WKM 38 as the data's median.

Now, at this point of examining data concentrations in relation to the second ancillary research question, these same subdomain continue to draw my attention. After extensive examination of feedback coded WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47, I have come to consider them as building blocks of writing-knowledge and literacy skills as well as foundational to articulating responses for and beyond peer review work. Moreover,

Appendix M features several other observations about the results of the primary data concentrations, but I do not further elaborate on them. I have highlighted WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47 in terms of the relationship and affect these domains have on writing-knowledge access and revision advice. In short, those three codes recurred throughout each set of results reported thus far.

On to secondary data concentrations (see Appendix N), the domains designated as secondary data concentrations were those that had no more than one subdomain not report at least one feedback data item. There were five domains identified as secondary data concentrations. These domains are listed below according to its order WKM code, beginning with conventions of Standard English:

1. Sentence structure (WKM 0.01)
2. Conclusions (WKM 2.06)
3. Construct persuasive academic argument (WKM 3.01)
4. Distinguish reliability of sources (WKM 3.02)
5. Quotations and paraphrases (WKM 3.05)

Among these five domains, several of these domains were among those designated as conventions of research writing. I draw attention to them because these conventions of research writing, up to this point, have not been a matter to address. Because the course in which the participants enrolled was research writing, as a writing teacher, I expected to observe greater data concentrations on matters related to the conventions of research writing than what had been observed.

But I still will draw attention to the matters related to research writing. First, quotations and phrases reported a total of 66 data items assigned WKM 3.05. Most

comments, however, were focused on "in-text" citations. Interestingly, I equate these to matters as similar to WKM 38 and WKM 43, except that WKM 87, in-text citations, is a matter infinitely tied to the context of writing for research. WKM 38 and WKM 43, however, deal with idea development and clarity of expression which are applicable to all written texts, whereas, WKM 87 is restricted to texts intended to report research. I raise this issue because the data in which comes to my attention as a domain of secondary data concentrations, directly impacts the assessment of the participants in the context of their writing for research course.

Participants also discussed their challenges about validating a peer's source of information as scholarly, WKM 3.02. For some participants, they were still developing an awareness of scholarly sources, whereas others were knowledgeable about detecting the facial conventions of scholarly sources. With regard to this domain, one other subdomain was identified. A few participants provided advice about places in the research paper that need a scholarly reference to ensure the credulity of the claims made in the research papers.

The third domain associated with the conventions of research writing is perhaps the most important learning goal to master in any research writing class, the ability to construct a persuasive academic argument. Of the five domains marked as secondary data concentrations, this domain about composing an academic argument (WKM 3.01) reported only five data items, four of which were reported as WKM 72, which is the reviewer's ability to analyze credible sources. In terms of the research writing course, knowledge of participants' lack of data that corresponds to constructing persuasive academic arguments would work to inform the lessons selected. That is, data-driven

information such as this would motivate me to spend some time helping students develop the craft of articulating academic arguments.

At this point of this chapter, aggregated data and descriptive statistical results and distributions have been reported. These results were presented in relation to the research questions. The central finding from the results was a view in which these three codes WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47 worked to form a foundation in which to engage in peer review work. Curiously, a few other WKM codes that stood out from the rest of the data were relevant and related to the work of WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47, clarifying existing ideas, sentence level (re)phrasing, and proofreading conventions, respectively. For example, WKM 87, in-text citations, was assigned to feedback data that required some kind of proofreading edit, akin to WKM 47, related to composing some form of an in-text citation, either as part of the main text or noted as a parenthetical citation. A relationship between WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47 along with WKM 23 can be surmised because much of the work involved in WKM 38, WKM 43, and WKM 47 require skill in use of diction and word phrasing. Having addressed the central observation of the data, I proceed with my discussion of the data excluded form analysis.

Data Excluded From Analysis

As stated in Chapter 4 and in the introduction of this chapter, three data sets were excluded from analysis. These included z.zz coded feedback, "z" subdomain coded feedback, and all feedback quality–level data. These were excluded from analysis because their results did not address any of the research questions as the research questions specifically sought institutionally defined knowledge of writing observed in the

feedback data. Although these data were not submitted for analysis in this dissertation, the data was preserved for future analysis.

For example, WKM "KA.Dz" and WKM "z.zz" were stored in order to conduct content analysis of these feedback data. It is likely that the results of a content analysis of the data will prove useful for curricular revisions. As observed during data reduction, several feedback data reflected content associated with conventions of compositions that were not featured as a domain on the writing-knowledge matrix such as "introduction" and organization subdomains. The results of content analysis might identify knowledge areas, domains, and subdomains that could be considered for inclusion of future versions of the writing-knowledge matrix. Moreover, descriptors that do not yield data should be reviewed and considered for removal from the writing-knowledge matrix. The ultimate goal, however, is to use the results of the content analysis of these feedback types so as to revise the curriculum statements regarding student learning goals. The usefulness of other kinds of analysis to profile writing-knowledge was evident at every stage of this dissertation endeavor.

On the several occasions when I reexamined participants' qualitative feedback data, I noted several other observations for further inquiry. Some of these observations include the disparity between claimed and actual feedback and between actual written feedback and actual verbal feedback, as well as the difference between claimed and actual verbal feedback. These observations were not elaborated on in this dissertation as those observations were beyond the scope of the research questions, but these observations were nonetheless significant for writing-knowledge research using peer review feedback data.

One research thread to examine stems from observations the length and specificity of claimed feedback data in comparison to actual feedback data. That is, Participants provided data about claimed feedback with a greater degree of ambiguity not observed in their written actual feedback and verbal actual feedback. Thus, a comparative investigation between claimed feedback and actual feedback is an opportunity to examine why participants detailed their text-specific feedback and not as much when orally reporting it. The results of which might shed light on the depth of participants' feedback about a specific text and their more shallow feedback about non-specific texts.

Additionally, another matter to examine which had not been address fully in this dissertation was participants' orally reported feedback. When comparing orally reported feedback types, it was clear that participants provided more explicit and clear actual verbal feedback than they did for claimed feedback. A future, more in-depth study should investigate the affect and influences a text has on producing orally reported feedback. This suggestion stems from my observation that participants' written actual feedback data were more explicit than their actual verbal feedback. I also observed that participants' actual feedback was greater in quantity and more specific in advice for revision than their claimed feedback by comparing orally reported claimed and actual feedback data. These kinds of investigations would be useful in understanding the relationships between feedback, text, and writing-knowledge. The usefulness of these investigation were experienced when working with students towards improving their relationships between feedback, text, and writing-knowledge.

The data and results presented throughout this chapter detail the kinds of writing-knowledge that the participants accessed as they engaged in peer review work. In this next and final section of this chapter, I reflect on my interactions with participants' feedback data, speculating on how the research framework positions me, the researcher, in relation to the research subject. In the following chapter, I discuss several observations reported as text.

Post-Data Analysis Review

After completing each activity of data analysis such as data reduction and data transformation, I became more and more aware of how immersed I had become in the environment of the research subject. I draw attention to the subject of ethnographic research as prompted and informed by Babin and Harrison's (1999) tertiary's perspective on ethnography: It is a "descriptive experimental method used in the social sciences, especially in anthropology, and derived from phenomenological theory in which the researcher studies a person or group of people in their own environment" (p. 169).

As demonstrated in this chapter, the results come from my own descriptive-experimental method from which I framed as a mixed-methods exploration applying microethnography. The tenet of the research subject, however, was experimentally and organically different from what many would expect to be a researcher's subject. That is, through the data collection and data analysis, I had considered the participants the lone research subjects.

In this mixed-methods study, I adopted the streamlined version of ethnography commonly used for school-site writing research (Faigley et al., 1985). Microethnography

sees the classroom as the environment in which the student or *plural*—in the role of "who"—as in the "person or group of people" whom the researcher will study. The researcher, typically a teacher in the case of microethnography, is not interested in the cultural phenomenon beyond the writing classroom, but only of the one happening in the classroom in the present time. In this way, ethnography was possible for class-based writing research. Central to ethnography is the study of a person as he exists in his natural environment. I continue to stress the human person as the researcher's research subject on purpose.

That purpose for this study was the drive I needed to modify the research design criteria so as to explore peer review feedback as data source to profile writing-knowledge. As part of this research framework, the microethnographic approach positioned feedback as the research subject to be observed within its environment. In the case of this study, there existed a dual environment for the research subject. The environment of the feedback, as observed and applied during data analysis, were both participants' past peer review experiences and the composition instruments that had prompted feedback data. As I observed, participants' past peer review experiences established a context from which feedback about specific and non-specific texts originated. Then, when tasked to produce feedback about another's composition, the composition instrument itself became the environment in which the feedback existed. As a point of inquiry for future research, participants past peer review experiences, to include the tools used for peer review such as rubric, influence the reviewer in the articulation of his feedback in relation to response to the environment of the composition instrument.

While further theoretical and pedagogical inquiry is necessary, what remains for this dissertation are the discussions and conclusions about the data results specifically for ancillary research question 3. To that end, I address five observations about writing-knowledge and peer review feedback in the next chapter. The observations that I discuss in Chapter 6 are limited to those that were consistent with articulating a general and dominate writing-knowledge profile of the participants as a discourse community.

Although there were other findings that emerged from this research, the discussion was restricted to that of matters related to addressing the central and ancillary research questions. At various points throughout this chapter, I indicated which topics I will take up as future research. For now, I move on to the discussion of five observations that influenced my work as a writing teacher and which has provided a better and clearer focus of my research on writing.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FIVE OBSERVATIONS TOWARDS PROFILING WRITING-KNOWLEDGE

As explained in the previous chapter, this chapter addresses the third ancillary research question, "What themes about studying writing-knowledge using feedback data were observed in the data sources (feedback and peer review experiences)?" To report on my observations, I turned to the "environment" of participants' past-peer review experiences. Viewing participants' feedback data in light of their past-peer review experiences, I discovered several of my own biases as a writing teacher.

Through the research process, from interpreting feedback data to classifying them according to the writing-knowledge matrix, or not, and then reconstituting coded feedback using the numerical codes so as to prime the data for descriptive statistical analysis, I engaged with the data. My involvement with data resembled the kind of involvement that I imagined of the ethnographer who invests time and effort interacting with her research subject in the context of the research subject's environment. In the role of a "quasi-microethnographer," I positioned myself in relation to microethnography to check and recheck the accuracy of my coding assignments within the context of the composition exhibits. Moreover, while doing so, I was able to reflect on participants' past peer reviewing experiences.

The observations reported in this chapter were the outcomes of my synthesis of my reflections on peer review as a method to collect writing-knowledge data, my observations of and interactions with participants' feedback as subject of this research

inquiry, and my view and treatment of participants' past peer review experiences as the environment in which feedback stem. With that said, I discuss the first observation about the use of textbook terms as the lexical foundations for the vernacular of writing.

Observation #1: Not the Case of Textbook Terms:

Non-Use, Misuse, and Wrong Use

My first observation comes from my wrong use of textbook terms. If not for this research project and my interactions with participants and their feedback data, I might not have come to know that there exists "shades of meaning" for the terms we use when we engage in the vernacular of writing. This section describes this observation and then I proceed to discuss its implication for profiling writing-knowledge and more importantly, for classroom-site writing conversations.

I observed this phenomenon while reviewing participants' data distributions. This observation came through by isolating feedback codes that were reported most frequently. Among the codes identified were WKM 43 and WKM 90. These feedback codes stood out from among the 115 possible WKM codes because each reported little to no aggregated data results for one feedback type, but reported a significantly greater amount of data for another feedback type. Specifically, I assigned WKM 90 to a very limited number of written-feedback data items. Contrastingly, among claimed feedback data WKM 90 was among the most frequently cited codes. As for WKM 43, although not cited at all for claimed feedback data, I did assign this code to nearly 200 written feedback data items.

Viewing the data coded WKM 43, I observed that participants provided sentence-structure feedback data, but I did not recognize its relationship to WKM 90 during the data reduction process. Through data analysis, however, I found that feedback assigned WKM 43, which were revision suggestions associated with sentence structure, reflected a meaning that was not meant by participants: sentence structure in relation to matters of correctness associated with copyediting. That is, I interpreted participants' claims about "sentence structure" as matters of correctness. "Sentence structure" was the term used by participants as they reported on topics they recalled from rubrics, as feedback they provided in addition to the scope of the rubric's topics, or as one of the writing elements in which they looked for in a peer's text in the absence of a rubric. Participants did not provide extensive detail about what they meant by "sentence structure." I did not think to prompt participants for greater explanation because their use of "sentence structure" was, at the time of the interview, quite clear to me given that I had uncritically superimposed my own textbook definition of sentence structure as similar, if not the same as, what they meant by it.

Remarkably, that was not the case. Analysis of feedback coded WKM 90 and WKM 43 led me to recognize a difference between what I understood as sentence structure and what participants intended by sentence structure. That is, participants' references to sentence structure promoted idea-oriented revisions *within* sentences, rather than an feedback akin to "matters of correctness." In other words, participants were inspired to revise at and within the sentence-level when writers opaquely expressed a phrase or smaller idea within a sentence. Based on that, I recognized that my operational definition of sentence structure countered participants' intended and effective use of it

simply because I restricted interpretations of the phrase "sentence structure" to mean only those matters associated with correctness.

If not apparent through this section's heading, my definition of sentence structure, at least in the context of the participants of this study, was a matter of "wrong use." By "wrong use," I mean to contrast two other cases of textbook terms as identified and used by Aversa and Tritt (1988) and Matsuhashi et al. (1989). On the one hand, Aversa and Tritt's (1988) observation of David, which I elaborated about in Chapters 2 and 3, was a matter of "non-use" of textbook terms. That is, I considered a hypothetical scenario in which David did not use the textbook term "apposition" when describing how to use appositions in writing. On the other hand, Matsuhashi et al. (1989) recognized that their tutor Brad had "misused" the textbook term "thesis" in the process of developing feedback for his tutee. These observations foreground the importance of establishing a collective understanding of textbook terms within classroom communities for writing intervention purposes.

As revealed through the data, participants' written feedback showed me how sentence structure, when lexically employed as feedback to another's text meant for revision, is not always meant to mean a matter related to correctness. Given the context in which these observations emerged, I could not ignore the evidence that supports the methodological criteria described in Chapter 3. That is, my observations in this regard may not have been possible in the absence of a text, especially when comparing the clarity of participants' feedback in the absence and presence of a text (claimed versus written feedback). Because participants crafted more written feedback data than they did claimed feedback data, their written feedback coded WKM 43 revealed my bias towards

and my limited definition of sentence structure in the feedback coded WKM 90. In other words, had participants not produced written feedback, I could not have recognized my static regulation of sentence structure to matters of correctness.

In short, because a text was present and participants were able to generate written feedback on it, I was able to articulate a definition of sentence structure using participants' written feedback that was coded WKM 43. My revised definition is more an expansion of my definition of sentence structure than it is a revision to my existing definition. Because of participants' feedback data and my feedback coding practices, I observed a case of textbook "wrong use" in that I wrongly limited the scope of what I mean by "sentence structure." Because of participants and through my observations of their feedback data, I was able to rethink my working definition of sentence structure so as to expand my understanding of it to include "idea inspired" sentence structure feedback, rather than default to a restricted reference to "matters of correctness." Moreover, these participants' feedback data, as reported here in reference to the case of non-use, misuse, and wrong use of textbook terms illuminate participants' mastery of institutionally-defined writing-knowledge of sentence-structure and idea-revisions within and at the sentence-level.

Observation #2: Comprehension-Based Strategies: Grammar not Included ?

During the process of revising data items that might be textbook term misnomers, I often returned to Matsuhashi et al's. (1989) findings that came from examining their tutor Brad's evaluation strategies used to generate written feedback on a tutee's paper.

To review their investigation, Matsuhashi and colleagues observed Brad, their tutor, initially using comprehension-based strategies to develop a comprehensive view of the tutee's text prior to giving feedback advice. As part of these researchers' data analysis scheme, they used idea units to chunk data in which to group related evaluation strategies.

Matsuhashi et al. reported that Brad began with strategies that helped him understand the text—what the tutee what trying to say in her discourse. In my own experience, I can understand Brad's initial use of comprehension based strategies—to generate an image of the text in order to transition into production-based strategies that would generate feedback for the tutee. Similarly, I repeat this process when I engage with my students' texts. Generally, when I encounter an unfamiliar text, I begin by studying the text to learn its main ideas. While this has been my experience, I observed a different perspective of what should be included among the strategies associated with comprehension.

From what I observed about several participants, grammar-oriented feedback was among the kinds of feedback addressed during their initial review of another's text. Through my discussions with participants in that regard, participants explained that for them, grammar was essential to their comprehension of a text. For that reason, these two participants provided a number of corrective feedback data. This observation led me to consider the place of grammar—in a sense reduced to copyediting—among strategies associated as comprehension-based (Matsuhashi et al., 1989).

This observation drew my attention because of the position that editorial-type feedback comments should be reserved for the final review of a paper before submission

especially in the context of peer review (Spear, 1988). This position was encouraged because of long-held perceptions that matters of correctness are associated with "lesser-skilled" writers. Recent writing-knowledge research (such as Schoonen & de Glopper, 1996; Saddler & Graham, 2007) observed that lesser skilled writers provided surface-level advice related to grammar, spelling, and mechanics. From this perspective, I wondered if P03 and P08 might be perceived by those researchers as lesser-skilled writers because of the number of corrective feedback observed in their feedback. Perhaps all participants who heavily provided corrective feedback should be considered "lesser-skilled" writers.

From conversations with participants during the interviews, I learned that part of their peer review processes involves perusing their peer's texts to formulate a general sense of the author's ideas. During this phase, some attended to grammar errors if those errors became too distracting, in other words, if the errors interrupted the participant's meaning-making efforts or caused the participant not to generate meaning from the text. Some claimed that they would have to correct those errors in order to access the main ideas of the text. In the aftermath of copyediting a peer's text, some participants reported being too exhausted, after "cleaning up the errors," that they could not proceed toward the next activity of peer review, identification of the texts' ideas and the manner in which authors had presented those ideas in the text. For some, the break from the text was necessary in order to return to it, prepared to engage with it for the purpose of idea revisions. But for many others, the time on break, away from the text, was part of the reason they were not as motivated to return to it and complete the peer review task.

Thus, contrary to perceptions of feedback associated with "matters of corrections," participants have reported that they make grammatical corrections initially in order to comprehend the text. Unlike recent research, my observations here about participants' choice to put forth grammar feedback during their initial review are not the proclaimed matter of having an inadequate writing skill-set. That is, for the participants, providing initial grammar feedback was a *matter of comprehension*. Stemming from this observation, I imagine a future narrative synthesizing theory-based and data-driven scholarship to tell the "secondary" tale that has become grammar and reading. In that narrative, I hope for its plot to inform me of the purpose for excluding copyediting as an indirect means to access a written text.

Observation #3: *On Apprehension* –
Matters of Correctness or Just Saving Face?

Graner's whole-class peer-review design was meant to counter the limitations of peer editing groups reported in the literature. Among these limitations, Graner listed the following limitations of peer reviews that were perceived of students tasked to response to peer's texts. Students were uncritical and unskilled in evaluating texts, had feelings of not being qualified to provide substantive critical feedback, and doubted their preparedness to engage in peer review.

Participants who provided grammatical feedback did so in order to access the ideas of the text. This observation is contrary to the notion that student writers tend to provide grammar correction feedback because they do not know how to provide macro-level feedback (see Peterson, 2003, for example). When discussing their apprehension

towards peer review during the interviews, participants' responses did not parallel a preexisting perception: that reviewers must provide grammatical corrections, and if they are weak in this knowledge area, they will resist peer-review tasks (Speck, 2002).

One participant admitted that he was unable to provide grammatical feedback because he was not confident about his grammatical competence, while another participant provided very few comments on the short compositions even though the compositions were extremely flawed with incorrectness. These participants' data is evidence that counters the perception that students who are not knowledgeable of matters of correctness will resist peer review. In fact, the participants who produced very few feedback items on the short compositions produced a substantial number of feedback data for both of the research papers, thereby eliminating this participant from the pool of *peer resisters*.

Some participants found that critical feedback like grammar and idea development were difficult to share with peers especially if the participant perceived peers as sensitive. Some participants, who admitted their own sensitivity, said they too had difficulty sharing critical feedback because they could empathize with peers' reactions about receiving a large amount of critical feedback.

Some participants said that they would not withhold feedback that would be necessary to improve the text, no matter how critical—or mean—it may be. Of course, participants elaborated on this matter saying that they would take a tone that was supportive. They would be cautious of projecting a "know-it-all" attitude. Participants also said that they would withhold feedback from peers whom they felt might perceive

the reviewer as mean-spirited or as capable of causing harm after the peer review event, which one participant described as "backlashing."

Based on these responses from participants during the interview phase, as well as the kinds of actual feedback included in the comprehensive feedback data, I speculate that participants' apprehension is not rooted in the limitations of their knowledge. Rather, peer review apprehension seems more related to preserving peer relationships. This reality was the premise of Spear's (1988) work on teaching students to provide supportive feedback so they could provide the more important "challenging" feedback. For the most part, I observed challenging feedback in participants' actual written feedback data, but in the absence of the writer of these peer texts, I could not observe if participants' would follow through with their claims.

In summary, participants' hesitation to peer review is rooted in their attempts to avoid hurting another's feelings. But as Graner has shown me, which the data supports, removing the writer and using a "sample text" just as Brad had as part of his application to be a tutor in the Writing Center that Matushashi et al. (1989) were investigating, eliminates the risk of straining peer relationships. Using sample texts in the absence of the writer means reviewers do not have to fret over upsetting peers with critical feedback. Reviewers, instead, could focus on the quality of their feedback in as much detail as possible, providing critical feedback and with increased frequency, without fear of peer writer backlash.

Observation #4: Necessary Feedback *is* the Work of Peer Review

During the interview sessions, I asked participants to describe the kinds of feedback they would withhold from their peers. Most participants said that they would not withhold even the most critical feedback. They reasoned that providing feedback—positive or constructive –is their task as peer reviewers. Participants' data support their claim, but because their data were produced in the absence of the writer, these claims might not have been supported had data been generated about text with the writer present. I liken this situation to that of Min's (2005) work on reviewer stance.

Observation #5: Data *Before* the Score

The value of "data before the score" emerged when I returned to the literature on direct and indirect assessment methods. The goals of direct and indirect assessment tended to reveal something about writing-knowledge, often representing a value defined and elaborated about using an assessment scale and criteria (Faigley et al., 1985). Faigley et al., like Murphy and Yancey (2007), reiterate that indirect measures such as objective multiple-choice tests seek to describe what is known and unknown, and represent what is known and unknown as a score.

For writing teachers, standardized testing practices do not use student-generated texts (Faigley et al., 1985). Indirect measures such as multiple-choice tests, do not replicate the writing reality. Because data culled from indirect assessment are not produced within authentic writing contexts, analysis of scores on indirect measures do not because it cannot reflect a more accurate depiction of what is known and not known

about writing. To counter that limitation, all the while still respecting the value of indirect assessment towards forwarding my research agenda, I propose examining the data before the score.

This idea originated following my observations of writing assessment practices in the literature (Murphy & Yancey, 2008); comprising empirical and statistical evidence that satisfied critics' demands for more rigorous and systematic research if to examine what is known and unknown about writing (Faigley et al., 1985). Although the assessment practices that persisted were those that employed quantitative data analysis of scores on direct and indirect measures such as writing samples and multiple-choice tests, the results of these quantitative analyses did not reveal much about students' realities of learning to write and students' progress towards writing well (Faigley et al., 1985). From what I have observed following the widespread use of process writing classrooms, researchers and practitioners who attempted to progress assessment designs did not necessarily better teachers' classroom practices insofar as how students learned to write or what writing intervention was essential for students to write well.

After re-reviewing Faigley and colleagues' (1985) work while developing data displays during data analysis, I concluded that the efforts to scale writing in the sense of determining a greater and lesser value of data furthered an existing opaque view of the writer's reality. That is, the persistent insistence of scoring data and grading essays, which I had noted in each of the assessment models reviewed by Faigley et al. (1985), appears to circumvent the *real* data that I believe is pertinent to the work of teaching writing, e.g., writing intervention and learning process. While I professionally value and respect the power of quantitative analysis, my faith in the results of sophisticated

statistics rests in its construct validity. That is, do the measures used to assess writing reflect what teachers desire to know? In other words, if writing teachers want to know how their students learn to write and how well they perform in writing, especially in preparation to participate in a variety of academic discourse communities, assessment measures must lend itself towards that end.

Cognizance of construct validity manifested in my critique of Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) writing-knowledge research measures. That is, the measures Schoonen and de Glopper employed to cull writing-knowledge data were not writing-knowledge itself. Data produced from measures that cull advice about writing well does not equate to knowledge of writing as examined in the research reviewed by Hillocks (1986a; 1986b), which is writing-knowledge activated in the midst of composing. Along these lines, however, Schoonen and de Glopper admit that their measures to cull writing-knowledge data were at best, indirect. Moreover, in terms of construct validity, scores on writing samples analyzed quantitatively also do not yield practical knowledge in which teachers can take to their classrooms for purposes of writing-intervention.

On that note, then, I propose an alternate to analysis of scores. Instead of attending to the quantitative analysis results for scores on writing samples, researchers and teachers should examine the data before the score. Informed by those who advocate formative assessment feedback (Horvath, 2000), in light of my review on assessment research (Murphy & Yancey, 2008; Faigley et al., 1985; Hillocks, 1986a; Hillocks, 1986b), I contend that by shifting our gaze from scores, we might yield better and more useful data about what students know and do not know about writing.

On that premise, I examined writing-knowledge data in an effort to explore the fundamental questions that ground teaching writing: What do students know about writing? What do students need to know about writing? How do students learn to write? How well do students perform in writing towards preparation for participation in the variety of academic discourse communities? That is, in this study, I examined data that participants produced in the midst of composing and analyzed it in its position before the score. My analysis of the data as data before the assessment score, posits evidence to warrant further exploration of data culled in the space between product and assessment. In short, this exploration is further supported by the other observations reported in this chapter.

Moreover, a central theme emerged after comparing the five observations: That the matters reviewers attend to always stem from and return to matters of correctness. To engage in that discussion, I adopted a narrative, personal, and reflective tone and approach in light of the central theme on correctness. In doing so, I reflect on the idea of the dissertation, profiling writing-knowledge, given my discovery of *whose* writing-knowledge was actually profiled throughout this research process. I save discussion of this discovery for the conclusion because, after all, coming to recognize whose knowledge of writing had been profiled was only possible at the end of the process.

At the conclusion of this exploration of peer review feedback as a source of writing-knowledge data, I have learned that the dominant profile of writing-knowledge, assembled in this dissertation by way of participants' feedback as the data source, was mine. I address this central theme in light of my discovery as both have informed and are informed by the other. Therefore, I explain this last observation as it is relevant to the

task of peer review and the work of profiling writing-knowledge in the final chapter of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

When I began this dissertation, I asked, "What institutionally defined knowledge of writing could be observed in the feedback data?" I followed this central research question with three ancillary questions. The first inquired about the kinds of claimed feedback participants said they had given peers in the past, the second focused on participants' actual feedback that they produced about four compositions, and the third looked at themes that emerged as a result of analysis performed on claimed and actual feedback data. While previous chapters have expounded on these questions and posited several observations toward profiling writing-knowledge, in this final chapter I discuss several other observations that could be grounds for further inquiry or cause for rethinking and reimagining the various components of this mixed-methods research design to be used for future studies.

To answer the research questions, I positioned peer review feedback as the central writing sample data source to replace the data set comprising "advice" and "descriptions" of good writing used in previous studies. I restricted essay-type writing samples from analysis in this study for two reasons. The first reason was in keeping to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie's (2004) mixed-methods' development rationale. As previously explained in Chapter 1, situating the research design as mixed-methods development required a two-study design wherein the method of the first study informed the method of the second study. As such, my conceptualized mixed-methods design in which Saddler and Graham's (2007) and Schoonen and de Glopper's (1996) studies served as the

conceptualized first study, this dissertation served as the second study prescribed by the two-study development rationale. My choice of the development rationale was aligned with my goal to forward development of writing-knowledge research methodology using a different data source from previous studies.

Positioning perceptions of good writing in the role of writing-knowledge data, Schoonen and de Glopper (1996) and Saddler and Graham (2007) collected writing samples to correlate writing performance and perceptions of good writing. Given my critique of their data's ecology in terms of validating perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge, I opted for a method that: (a) Eliminated the collection of writing samples that require external scorers/graders, (b) Replaced correlation with description, and (c) Used feedback data grounded in another's text meant for revision as the data source for writing-knowledge. These methodological choices were in response to Saddler and Graham's and Schoonen and de Glopper's methods. Thus removing the essay-length writing samples was, in part, indicative of my rejection of correlative measures to validate perceptions of good writing as writing-knowledge data.

The literature that attends to matters associated with ensuring successful peer review sessions suggests that teachers train students about how to articulate and deliver feedback. Specifically, students need training related to developing supportive attitudes and feedback as well as framing their feedback positively (Spear, 1988; Min, 2005). At the classroom level, their work attests to the importance of training students for classroom peer review. The necessity to train students before peer review is proactive, so students would not develop ill-feelings towards one another as a result of the classroom-level peer review.

Although those lines, the Institutional Review Board would be concerned about studies that use participant essays as the present text. I make mention of this because those who advocate student training in preparation to receive and give feedback recognize the value of using students' authentic texts. Convincing the institutional review board to approve a project where participants provide "live" feedback for one another's papers is a hard sell.

While teachers and researchers have worked to prevent peer to peer combat and attempted to encourage peer to peer review, the risks and dynamics that come with classroom peer review remain, challenging writing teachers who dare to implement it. Then there are others, like Graner (1987), who developed alternatives to that of using a present writer's text. The matter that Graner determined as critical to successful and beneficial revision workshop experiences was the selected text.

For Graner, using a present writer's text was linked to many of the limitations of peer review reported in the literature. Not linked, however, was the use of another's text, which still allowed students to do what they do when they review a present writer's text: They gain practice in critical evaluation, which Graner argued was the underlying source of students' improvement in writing over time. Graner also pointed out that by using an absent writer's present text, reviewers fears about hurting the writer's feelings (Spear, 1988) by critical comment or students unpreparedness to engage in peer review stemmed from awareness of and familiarity with the present writer.

Given Graner's review of the literature that inspired and informed his revision workshop model, I ultimately decided to use a non-present text especially because the methodological criteria, as I explained in Chapter 2, only necessitates "another's present

text meant for revision." By adapting Graner's revision workshop model, there was no need to use participant-generated writing samples as this study's composition instruments. Following Graner's lead, I instead selected composition instruments not written by participants of this study, which alleviated any fear of peer-writer backlash that may have otherwise been present. More importantly, the conditions of data collection, in the absence of the writer, lifted any self-imposed restrictions participants may have had on the volume of feedback generated. Ultimately, participants were not compelled to make decisions about what feedback to provide and which to withhold because the author of the writing exhibit was removed from the context. I raise this point because participants produced nearly 2,400 feedback items — the targeted data I contend is ripe to profile writing-knowledge.

The absence of the writer, it appears, was an appropriate methodological criteria given the range and accumulation of feedback data by participants, by data source, and by feedback code. While the removal of the writer appears to have been a variable for increasing the number of feedback data submitted for analysis, this is an observation that warrants further study. Because I did not include a study that seeks to answer the question, "What influence does the present writer have on the accumulation and range of participant feedback data?" I cannot ascertain the actual influence a present or absent writer has on the feedback produced, collected, and analyzed. Future research might investigate the influence a present and absent writer may have on the generation and accumulation of feedback generated by participants.

My decision not to use participant-generated writing samples as the composition instrument meant that I had to supply peer-equivalent texts to capture feedback data to

profile writing-knowledge. Although the "first study" informed my choice to forgo participants' writing samples, as permitted by the revision workshop model I adopted for this study, the composition instruments that I supplied are subject to critique. I recognize this limitation because the composition instrument's quality certainly influences the type of feedback reviewers provide. Thus, it is understood that the selection of the composition instruments – the writing exhibits that participants peer review – is a clear variable to test in future research.

To explain, my selection criteria for the composition instruments did not pertain to the quality of the composition. Instead, I selected composition instruments based on who wrote them. More specifically, the authors of these papers were my former students who volunteered their writing samples after inquiring on and expressing an interest in my research. While I did not actively solicit the use of these papers, I did welcome them once submitted. This selection method might be perceived by some as a matter of happenstance – a perception that I do not challenge, but instead embrace because I recognized this limitation in my selection criteria from the onset. Because of my observations of the absence of "purposeful" selection criteria, I was able to direct my attention towards future research in this regard.Moreover, because of the old-age perception about matters of correctness, I wondered if any participant would have ignored grammatical incorrectness on the short compositions. The data clearly shows that this was not the case for most participants. Many participants provided grammatical correctness, but their purpose for doing so was not consistent with preexisting perceptions. For example, several writing-knowledge studies reported that lesser-skilled writers tended to provide grammar feedback—surface feedback, superficial feedback.

For this study, however, I did not collect participant data about writing skill level. I opted not to collect this information in response to the "first-study" method in which writing samples collected were the basis of determining participants' writing skill-level.

As I reported in the previous chapter, my concern stems from the implications that that claim has of the participants of this study. Clearly, participants' view and use of grammar—making corrections on initial drafts for peer review—was about reading comprehension more than about pointing out every grammatical flaw of the text. In other words, for some participants, copyediting a peer's text was a matter of idea recognition, rather than an indication of a less-refined writing-knowledge base.

The research papers, on the other hand, did not display grammatical incorrectness. Perhaps this was due in part to the skill level of the authors; the authors of the research papers were more advanced, in terms of English course level, than the authors of the short compositions. In terms of future exploration, composition instruments of various quality and errors could be selected and tested for purposes that fit the research context. Perhaps future research will define selection criteria of composition instruments for profiling writing-knowledge.

While these ideas toward future inquiry are plausible, I am drawn to the consideration of utilizing selection criteria for practical classroom application. That is, how might establishing a standard set of criteria for composition-instrument selection benefit the classroom context? I pose this inquiry for the reason that writing teachers cannot predict the quality of student texts until they interact with them, and from experience, the classroom reality is one that is filled with disparate levels of writers with writer-specific issues that may not be reflective of all students. From that perspective, I

am inclined to consider that "random selection" of composition instruments might yield a "breadth and depth" range of feedback data that a purposefully selected composition instrument might not.

Given the concerns that I raised about two variables—present text, absent writer—I want to be clear that I did not reject controls without considering potential critique. That is, I do not deny the absence of certain controls; their absence was purposeful as it fit within my exploratory framework. In light of research on reviewer stances (Min, 2005; Mangelsdorf & Schlumberger, 1992) and on peer perceptions of sender's competence (Strijibos et al., 2010), I dismissed the present writer from the research context solely because requiring the presence of the writer meant establishing his context in this study. I posited instead that the "writer" did not have a defined presence in this study; his text did. The writer's text, however, was not the research subject; participants' responses to the writer's text were the subjects of inquiry. For these reasons, I did not allow admittance of the peer writer into this research context.

In terms of the peer writers' composition instruments, I chose not to employ selection criteria because I wanted to explore "emergent data," which I define as data that is not influenced by the researcher's manipulation of the instrument. For example, if for this study, I manipulated the composition instruments with the intent to narrow the range of feedback, then the data would not be emergent. Additionally, had I manipulated the composition instruments, I would have added another layer to an already complex variable. Had I manipulated the instruments, I imagine that the present methodological framework for this study might not have been an appropriate one. To manipulate the

instruments to elicit targeted data implies that a researcher has established a predetermined, perhaps narrowed, research scope.

Certainly, narrowing the scope of one's research and isolating specific variables to test is accepted research design. For this study, though, I chose the exploratory framework because I wanted to *explore* the use of feedback data as a data source for writing-knowledge research, to uncover potential variables to test in future research, and especially to consider how this research method as an instrument for writing-knowledge assessment might be useful for writing pedagogy. Thus, this is to say that I did not commence this research with a set of variables in mind; I had not an idea of what variables to test, nor variables to consider other than a present text and an absent writer. Based on my review of the literature, I came to recognize these research conditions as variables that may or may not influence the outcomes of participants' feedback data.

In keeping to the design of the exploratory framework, two other variables might draw the attention of critics of research methodology. These two variables include the following: (a) the design of the writing-knowledge matrix and (b) feedback data coding. Although through the course of the first four chapters I discussed my reasons for these design choices, I raise these issues here because they relate to the present discussion. That is, in choosing to design the writing-knowledge matrix coding scheme, I meant to demonstrate to other teacher-researchers my approach to designing a coding scheme that reflects the context of the research project and the context of the research site. I felt that a demonstration was important if teachers were to use a similar approach to code their data.

As for feedback coding, I chose to code my participants' data and not rely on an external coder, reader, grader, examiner. I made this decision based on two considerations. First, as an exploratory study, I believed that I, as researcher, should code the data because the subject of research, from a microethnographic perspective, is the feedback. Much like an ethnographer who interacts with her subjects and collects, codes, analyzes, and reports the design and outcomes of her ethnography, I chose to interact with my subject along those lines. If I invited an external coder, then I would have limited the time spent "in the field," which for this study is time spent "with the feedback." If an external coder was involved in data coding, the results would have been influenced by the external coder and would have limited, if not restricted, my interactions with feedback data. I liken this scenario to an ethnographer who sends other researchers into the ethnography's site, without the ethnographer, to do the ethnographer's work. If that were the case, the ethnography would not be ethnography.

Additionally, allowing an external reader to influence the coding is not reflective of the real classroom site. Because the classroom is the domain of the teacher, students' work produced by teacher's prompting requires the teacher to develop scores and responses for assignments. Teachers do not hire a grader to make critical pedagogical decisions that affect the students' advancement as writers or learners. Teachers, like ethnographers, spend time with the subject of the researcher—students' papers—and must be mindful of their own impact on the environment of their subjects. If teachers hire external graders, then the teacher limits and restricts his time with the subject in its environment. Because of these perspectives, informed by teacher lore and research paradigm (North, 1987), I opted for the risker responsibility of coding data on my own.

The activity of doing this has afforded me the much needed time to spend with my research subject in its environment.

The time spent in the research subject's environment reaffirms what I have know since I began tutoring students in 1998; that clearly, writing is not static. Writing is a complex activity that remains a subject of inquiry and debate. For example in his review, Graham (2006) identified and explained various writing models acknowledged by the field. These models focused on the acquisition and application of knowledge pertinent to composing. Following Hayes and Flower's (1980) model of writing, subsequent models incorporated components that had not been considered in earlier models. Graham's review reflects the dynamics of writing which I had observed in his review of the various models of writing.

Given the number of models that Graham reviewed, and the many that he had not, not because of an oversight, but because it is impossible to know all the models of writing, especially if many factors are at play during the act of composing, one matter is certain. Every subsequent model to emerge post cognitive process writing models, were built on the limitations of the previous. Thus, the constant revising of writing models, so as to redress the shortcomings or oversights of previous models, is indicative of writing's dynamism and expanse. That is to say, writing researchers' drive to know how people write for purposes like school and work, play and blog, so as to devise a writing model that captures how that writing is done best and worse, evidences "a need to create models that capture what the writing process looks like at different levels of development…[and] that such models would be useful in designing writing intervention, as they would provide both developmental and theoretical guidelines" (Graham, 2006, p. 462).

Through the experience of this dissertation, I consider the work of profiling writing-knowledge as a means in which to understand writing's complexity.

While the development of yet another model of writing was clearly beyond the scope of this dissertation, there exists a commonality between Graham's notion of newer models of writing and this exploratory study—the call for writing intervention. Identifying better writing intervention points and methods drives continued research on writing processes. At the heart of these writing models are knowledge recall, development, and application. These writing models focused on identifying what knowledge writers employed during the act of writing and how that knowledge affected textual production. Graham identified these types of knowledge as "knowledge about the writing topic, intended audience, genre, task schemas, and linguistic awareness" (p. 466). Graham described linguistic awareness "as grammar, sentence construction, and spelling" (p. 466). Concluding his chapter-article on *Writing,* Graham named three principles for "Teaching Writing":

1. Directly Teach Writing Strategies, Skills, and Knowledge;
2. Structure the Writing Environment to Maximize Students' Success and Learning; and
3. Facilitate Writing Development Through Peer Interactions.

Graham's treatment of the third principle is brief in comparison to his treatment of the first two principles. I recognized his brevity of the third principle because the literature on peer interaction is vast, yet research on writing development through peer interactions has not been among the field's center-stage discourse topics, like cognition, social context, new media, etc. In a sense, Graham's paragraph-long discussion on peer

interaction reflects for me the limited research on writing intervention through peer interaction for the purpose of writing development.

As a step towards understanding how peer review feedback can be used to know what writers know about writing so as to promote writing development, this dissertation explored peer review feedback for such purpose. I hypothesized that students' peer review feedback can form the basis of assessing writing to articulate prescriptions that forward students' writing skill and knowledge development.

Moreover, through the work of this dissertation and the exploration of peer review feedback towards profiling writing-knowledge, I have a newfound perspective on peer review and its product. The work of peer review, its place in modern composition classrooms, and the products generated all have positioned peer review to be a tool and activity beyond revising and editing. If framed as an alternative to and viable form of writing assessment, peer review would complement assessment methods currently in use. The process and product of peer review, in addition to the production and scoring of writing samples, would only develop a more precise profile of students' writing-knowledge for the purpose of writing intervention and determining course grades. The data and my experiences as a teacher-researcher support and inform my position on peer review's use to profile writing-knowledge.

Now at the conclusion of this exploratory study, I challenge practicing researchers, the teacher-researchers, and the researcher-scholars to profile writing-knowledge using peer review feedback data. I hope that further investigations by more teachers-researchers-scholars will continue on a path toward examining peer interaction beyond its current use for revision and editing. Beyond its obvious role as a mechanism

to facilitate writing development, I imagine peer review becoming the central method of formal writing instruction and the preferred assessment tool. Certainly, I consider peer interaction as central to any school-site writer's experiences. And for teachers whose students exhibit varying skill levels and depths of knowledge, writing-knowledge profiles might allow teachers to devise individualized writing-intervention that positions students on a trajectory toward developing mastery-levels of those things expected of school-site writers.

Perspective

In ethnography, the researcher is both participant and observer. In this study, a mixed-methods blend of descriptive research and microethnography, I adopted a dual role as well, but that of the teacher-researcher. In the context of this research, as the researcher, I tasked myself with the research design. As the teacher, I executed the various procedures toward this dissertation's conclusion. This role as teacher emerged when completing the various data tasks: extraction, transcription, reduction (coding), and analysis. As teacher-researcher, I was able to spend time with the data, just as a teacher would her students' work. As researcher, I confronted the grand challenge of determining how best to express the time spent with the data, the knowledge formed, and the experiences gained. But, alone in that role, I could not visualize a path towards, through, and beyond these later tasks. Through the dual role as a teacher-researcher, however, I imagined how I could treat the white page as a black board. With chalk in hand, I began to sketch a visual of the activities of this work—erasing, starting, restarting, and so forth. Eventually I settled, and the tasks began to coalesce as the white page resembled for me a table or figure that I could trace, and retrace, and trace once more.

The tables and figures presented throughout this dissertation do not necessarily reflect their many trial and error versions. These iterative drafts, while at first overwhelmingly confusing, became less so as I retraced and retraced and retraced the observations from participant feedback toward profiling writing-knowledge.

There were moments in the final days leading to the end of this dissertation that I struggled to put aside my *teacherly* urge to add yet another figure *and* table to the dissertation, but not for the purpose of displaying participants' data, but moreso to display my retracing, and tracing, and retracing—the raw data of dissertating. Often I look at my own feedback and attempt to profile writing-knowledge, but often I lose focus in the mess of producing text.

While this loss emerges in the midst of composing, writing itself is not the cause. Instead, it is the result of toggling between dissertation writing, rereading the literature, questioning my activity, questioning my choices, erasing some ideas, bringing back other ideas, and in between dissertation tasks, teaching writing to some nearly 80 undergraduate writers who are underprepared for college – not just in literacy skills, but in discipline. And in the midst of writing, this loss of focus emerges as I retrace my feedback to myself. I lose my place in writing and find only loss. Feelings of loss tend to shed quickly as I slowly, but steadily, return to the writing, hopeful that this project will find its end.

But my source of hope is always the same: recalling the writers who, for the time being, are learning writing alongside me. My return to writing, fueled with hope, happens at the point when I remember past students, consider the recent students, and imagine the potential students. I reenter the dissertation, heading towards defense, by

way of the data. No matter where the point of loss occurred during the act of writing, I begin with the data. I trace and retrace and start again, until I find focus and clarity. With each tracing and retracing, I imagine what the writing-knowledge profiles might have looked like for my past students, recent students, and potentials students. At times, I imagine how I could display my teacher's writing-knowledge profiles. And then, a present participant's profile will glisten and I draw my attention to it. And from that point, I lose myself in the writing.

There are other times when I break from writing and look at the text forming on the screen. I compare my handwritten illustrations about the direction of my discourse with the text on the screen, and reflect on several realities: Why have I taken up this task? Why am I still pushing through against the odds of time? Why must I pursue writing this dissertation?

In these moments, I recall the times I had forced my teachers to struggle through my writing, those who continued to teach me to write—regardless that my writing continued with consistent incorrectness wreaking havoc on the ideas of written thought. I did not succumb to the challenge brought by my written incorrectnesses. I pressed on, writing for the teachers who had not dismissed me so easily and quickly when I had given them many *incorrectnesses* to overwhelm them for papers. I write for them.

I also write for the struggling writers who are motivated, but not certain. The struggling writers whose writing I chose over mine, frequently sacrificing this dissertation towards defense, to do what the field has taught me to do and do well—talk about writing. Fundamentally, this dissertation attempted to document talk about writing

in order to profile writing-knowledge based on interlocutors' contributions. And in the end I discover that I too am an interlocutor in this dissertation's talk about writing.

And so, my interaction with the data reflects my lived-experience as a writing teacher-researcher-student. I treated participants' data as if they were my students' writing. I coded their feedback based on my knowledge of writing. And in this process as teacher-researcher-student I learned that my knowledge of writing is not static. In retrospect, feedback coding reminded me of what I had learned, helped me master what I was still learning, and revealed what I have yet to learn. Through this process, I was able to acknowledge that the dominant profile of writing-knowledge built in this dissertation was that of my own. And if teachers coded their students' feedback about another's present text meant for revision, teachers too would not only be profiling their students' writing-knowledge profiles; instead they would be profiling their own.

Now, at the end of this dissertation, while this conclusion is specific to the work of this dissertation, the work of profiling writing-knowledge is not yet conclusive. Here, I look to Graham (2006), rather than Schoonen and de Glopper (1996). Graham's proposal, it seems to me, is the next step toward developing the idea of this dissertation. Because models of writing situate classroom-level peer interaction within it, I wonder if a model of writing that is beyond revising and editing, beyond the act of composing an original draft but present in the writing classroom, is possible. And if it is, my question is this: "Where does profiling writing-knowledge using peer review feedback data situate itself in the talk about writing?"

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APPENDIX A

COURSE LEARNING OBJECTIVES

EN 085 Fundamentals of English

Students will:

1. Demonstrate knowledge of the conventions of Standard English. Among these conventions are those dealing with:
    a. Sentence boundaries
    b. Sentence combining
    c. Various verb tenses and their uses
    d. Verb and pronoun agreement
    e. Word affixes
    f. Word choice
    g. Idioms
    h. Punctuation
2. Write compositions that correctly employ the conventions of Standard English
3. Respond to in-class assignments employing the conventions of Standard English

EN 100 Fundamentals of College English

Upon completion of this course, students will demonstrate the ability to:

1. Write university-level compositions that incorporate narrative, descriptive, cause and effect, compare and contrast, persuasive, and argumentative rhetorical strategies.
2. Use each of the four basic English sentence patterns (simple, complex, compound, and compound-complex) in their compositions.
3. Employ appropriate English verb tenses, academic word choice, and correct punctuation, among other conventions of Standard English, in their compositions.
4. Interpret and explain various English idioms orally and in writing
5. Comprehend university-level readings by summarizing and analyzing these texts orally and in writing.

APPENDIX A (continued)

COURSE LEARNING OBJECTIVES

EN 110 Freshman Composition

By the completion of this course, students will demonstrate the ability to:

1. Achieve clarity and precision in writing, using standard mechanical and grammatical conventions of written English
2. Make a clear thesis statement, whether implicit or explicit, and support it cohesively with evidence, examples, and explanations
3. Think critically and articulate clearly their positions on issues, texts, and media, paraphrasing and summarizing where appropriate
4. Employ a variety of rhetorical approaches or strategies in English, including narration/description, classification/comparison-contrast, and argument/persuasion, in writing and speech
5. Draw on their own backgrounds and experience, as well as current authoritative and credible written or media materials, in the performance of writing tasks
6. Work with the instructor and peers to review, revise, and edit their writing effectively
7. Understand and practice the writing process from topic choice to final edit

EN 111 Writing for Research

By the completion of this course, students will demonstrate the ability to:

1. Research an intellectually provocative topic by limiting topic scope, developing specific research questions, and by formulating a precise thesis statement
2. Construct a persuasive academic argument by analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating the credibility of primary and secondary research sources, whether print or electronic
3. Distinguish reliable, valid, and scholarly evidence from unreliable, invalid, and non-scholarly evidence
4. Distinguish summary, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation
5. Distinguish exposition, argument, and personal narrative
6. Correctly incorporate quotations; in-text citations; and a bibliography, works-cited list, or reference page according to an appropriate documentation system
7. Produce multiple drafts of research assignments by incorporating constructive criticism
8. Understand and avoid all forms of plagiarism
9. [Deliver oral presentation grounded in research]

APPENDIX B

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX CODE DESCRIPTORS

Knowledge Area 0: Conventions of Standard English		Domain	subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
	01	Sentence structure	run-on	fragmented	comma spliced	subject-verb interrupted			
	02	Sentence boundaries	combine sentence structure:compound	combine sentence structure: complex	separate combined ideas into multiple sentences				
	03	Verb tense/usage	tense consistency	verb usage: transitive	verb usage: intransitive	verb usage: copulative	verb usage: linking	verb usage: participle	
	04	Agreement	subject-verb	pronoun-number					
	05	Pronoun usage	identifies incorrect usage	suggests modification of pronoun usage					
	06	Preposition usage	identifies incorrect preposition usage	suggests modification of preposition					
	07	Modifiers	suggests revision: adverb	suggests revision: adjective	identifies incorrect use				
	08	Word use and phrasing	spelling	diction	word form	wrong word	missing word	word overuse (repetitive)	
	09	Idioms	recognizes correct usage	recognizes incorrect usage					
	10	Punctuation	end punctuation	comma usage	colon/semi-colon usage	quotation marks	apostrophe usage		

Figure 1. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Code Descriptors for Knowledge Area 0.

APPENDIX B (continued)

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX CODE DESCRIPTORS

Knowledge Agrea 1 Idea Invention to Transcription (Writing Process)	Domain	subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
	01 Invention (creating)	creating new ideas	replacing existing ideas with new ideas	clarifying existing ideas				
	02 Idea transcription	idea development	text/idea placement	excess information included/ redundancies				
	03 Idea revisions	revise idea	sentence-level (re) phrasing/ awkward phrasing (part of sentence)	revise thesis	revise/ rephrase sentence (whole sentence)	revise point for clarity; state connection between ideas		
	04 Idea editing for publication/ presentation	general proofreading conventions	documentation systems (if required)	style-sheet format (e.g. numbers, headings, spacing, alignment, etc.)				

Figure 2. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Code Descriptors for Knowledge Aera 1.

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX CODE DESCRIPTORS

Knowledge Area 2 Conventions of Composition

Domain		subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
01	Rhetorical Form	narrative/ descriptive	classification/ compare and contrast	argument/ persuasion	expository			
02	Thesis statement	identified	unable to identify	rework thesis				
03	Support	examples	evidence	explanation				
04	Writing strategy	defining	illustrating					
05	Voice point-of-view	says to use 3rd person	says to not use "I"/first person	says to not use "you"/ second person				
06	Conclusion	summary	thought-provoking	under-developed	over-developed			
07	Organization*							
08	Paragraphing	suggests combing paragraphs	suggests separating ideas in a paragraph to create a new paragraph					

Figure 3. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Code Descriptors for Knowledge Aera 2.
Note: Because there were no subdomain descriptors included for "Organization" on the Writing-Knowledge Matrix, all feedback related to "Organization" was coded as "2.07z".

APPENDIX B (continued)

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX CODE DESCRIPTORS

Knowledge Area 3: Conventions of Research Writing		subdomain						
Domain		a	b	c	d	e	f	z
01	Construct persuasive academic argument	evaluates credible sources	analyzes credible sources	synthesizes credible sources				
02	Distinguish reliability of sources (scholarly/ non-scholarly)	recognizes scholarly sources	recognizes non-scholarly sources	recognizes the absence of a source (or that a source is necessary)	unable to determine if information is correctly credited	unable to identify if source is scholarly or not		
03	Forms of research writing	synthesis	analysis	summary	evaluative			
04	Publication style/ documentation systems	in-text citations (main text or parenthetical)	bibliography entries					
05	Quotations and paraphrases	frame/lead-in	in-text citation	bibliography cross-reference	placement in text			

Figure 4. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Code Descriptors for Knowledge Aera 3.

APPENDIX C

FEEDBACK QUALITY-LEVEL CODE DESCRIPTORS

Feedback Quality Descriptor	Level Descriptor
0 Ineffective Feedback	**a** Feedback without explanation
1 Neutral Feedback	**b** Feedback with inaccurate explanation
2 Effective Feedback	**c** Feedback with accurate explanation

Figure 5. Feedback Quality-Level Code Descriptors.

APPENDIX D

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #1: INTERVIEW GUIDE SHEET

At the start of the interviews, I will demonstrate how the PULSE pen by Livescribe will be used to record the audio and digital notes of the interview session. This is done to ensure that the participant is aware that s/he is being recorded. At the start of the interview, I will explicitly ask the participant for permission to record the interview using this recording device.

Interview Procedures and Questions

1. "Please describe your typical impressions or experiences when you have to talk about texts (books, short-writings, school assignments, non-school related materials—leisure reading materials, like magazines)"
2. "Have you been required to participant in peer review activities—to read your peers text?" ***If yes**, continue with the following questions beginning with "a". **If not**, skip the following questions and continue with #3.* Note: do not be too specific about the "format" of the peer review session. Some participants might have participated in blind peer review, and some might have participated in small-group, exchanging papers. Participants might consider that blind peer review isn't the same thing as "exchanging papers" with a partner.
    a. "Since you've been required to participate in peer review, please describe the kinds of peer review activities you're familiar with. How were these activities organized?"
    b. "When your teachers required you to review a peer's text, had your teachers provided a rubric or some kind of a guide? Please describe what topics were included in the guide or the rubric that specified what you had to look for in a peer's text."
    c. "Did you provide feedback that was not included in the rubric or guide?"
    d. "In the absence of a rubric or a guide, what kinds of feedback would you typically provide to your peers about their texts? In other words, what do you normally look for when you read a peer's text and are required to provide feedback specific to revising your peer's text."
    e. "Do you think that the peer review activities benefits you and/or your peers? Please explain."
    f. "Please describe the kinds of difficulties you've encountered (that you can recall) when you read a peer's text. If you do not find peer review difficult, please explain"
    g. "Are there any kinds of feedback that you purposely withhold from your peers? Please describe these kinds of feedback, and explain your reasons for withholding these kinds of feedback." At this point, skip Question #3 and continue with Question #4.

APPENDIX D (continued)

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #1: INTERVIEW GUIDE SHEET

3. "Since you have not participated in peer review activities, I would like you to imagine that one of your writing teachers required you to read a peer's text and provide feedback specific to that text."
    a. "Would you be comfortable providing revision feedback to your peers? Please explain why you would feel comfortable or not providing revision feedback."
    b. "If you were required, what kinds of feedback would you look for? Or imagine looking for. Please explain why you would look for these things in your peer's text." (does the participant consider these things "good writing"?)
    c. "Would there be any kinds of feedback that you might purposefully withhold? For example, if you had to read a friend's text, and you thought that the text was not well-written, would you tell your friend this?"
    d. "What are some reasons that you would without these kinds of feedback?" At this point, continue with Question #4.
4. To end the interview session, I will ask the participant to read two short-compositions (attached here). I will provide a copy of these short compositions and ask the participant to jot notes (feedback specific to revisions). I will record the total amount of time that the participant takes to read and respond. I will ask the participant to let me know when s/he is ready to discuss these short compositions. Then, I will ask the following questions:
    a. What do you think of this text? Do you have any immediate feedback you'd like to share about this text? (Be sure to encourage the participant to be as honest as possible and ask the participant to explain his/her feedback.)
    b. Did you encounter any difficulty reading this short composition? If so, what difficulties had you encountered?
    c. If you had to discuss in class the feedback you provided here for this student written composition, describe which feedback you would prefer not to mention, if any. Or describe which feedback you will insist on mentioning during a face to face discussion. Please explain.

APPENDIX E

COMPOSITION INSTRUMENTS

Short Composition #1

"iPad"

If I plan to be away from home for a year, and other than clothing and personal care items, I would take iPad with me. The reasons is that iPad can do anything, any time. When I have free time, I can play game applications or listen to music. iPad is also good to take a little notes when needed, or keep journal and keep update while I am away from home. There is one application called skype, I can use this program to call to someone or messenger to leave the messages

When I have free time while I am away from home, there is many things I could do with iPad such as game and music. There are many game applications, and people update or made new games everyday. There is also free games that is for poor guy like me. It seems like paying for those applications is a lot better than free games, because free games are usually trials. There is other thing I can do when I have free time, that is iPad application, this application allows me to listen to music or make my own remix. Another thing I could use is internet. There should some free wifi hot spot anywhere in this world. So that I can use internet as much as I can. I would pay if I need to use internet like an emergency or something.

I could do little business with iPad like take notes on it. I can save phone numbers, some stores operation time, or keep track with events that happened on the day. So that I can keep as a journal or memos to review.

There is few applications that help me a lot if I have internet is skype and messenger. Skype allows me call someone who have skype account and if I make a payment I can call to anyone from cell phones to house phones. The messenger allows me to chat with online friends or leave message if the person is offline. These programs helps a lot when I need to.

Those are reasons why I would take iPad with me other than clothing and personal care items, if I plan to be away from home for a year, because there are good applications to make life easier and better.

Short Composition #2

"Reading and writing are more important today"

In my opinion the ability to read and write are more important today. I think these abilities are more important today because many things have changed these past years. so many things requirs a person to opperate mechines. and I think the two top requirments would be reading and writing.

One reason that reading and writing is more important today than in the past would have to be information. Today a person must have the ability to read and writing just to obtain or give information. weither it is from the internet of television. In the internet there are millions of information that a person can obtain just be knowing how to read and sometimes a person can help another person just by knowing how to write.

One other reson would be that to day reading and writing is just the two main abilities a person may need to get a job. Most jobs requir employies to read and write. They must know how to read because they might have some equipments that the employies have to opperate and the employe must know how to read the instructions of that machine. Some machine in not opperated correctly may harm the person who is using the machine.

Lastly and probably the most important is just to learn. Without reading abilities a person will alway need someone else to help him/her how to do new things. That person can not just get a book of magazine and just read about the new sport he/she would like to try out. If he/she is trying out a new sport he/she can not read the rule all by him/her self.

In conclusion reading and writing is very important today because without the ability to read and write a person may not be able to obtain information without other people to help him/her. He/she may also have trouble finding jobs to support him/her self.

APPENDIX E (continued)

COMPOSITION INSTRUMENTS

Research Paper #1

"Civil Liberties"

Whenever the American people are coerced into surrendering certain liberties, a government agency has a lot to gain. Security remains the biggest issue in America, and the government is always there to remind us. The media constantly bombards viewers with the news that our nation is no longer safe. The United States is a country always on edge and while the public is vulnerable and worried, there are individuals who benefit from our situation. These people represent our nation and have a substantial amount of control over what we do and what we think. Michael Moore, in his film, *Fahrenheit 9/11*, recounted the brilliance of English author, George Orwell, who believed that when people are scared, they are vulnerable. The way to keep the public in line is to create an aura that exudes constant fear. War is used as a scare tactic, not to be won or lost, but to be perpetuated to maintain order (2004).

Many articles of safety legislation and the active military occupation of foreign nations have been geared toward establishing an illusion of safety. This illusion has altered and in many cases manipulated the American people into believing that they are being kept safe by surrendering certain freedoms. How much of our liberties are we willing to relinquish in order to be kept safe? Feingold (2006) cautions the American people in noting that, "Preserving our freedom is one of the main reasons that we are now engaged in this new war on terrorism. We will lose that war without firing a shot if we sacrifice the liberties of the American people" (p.164).

V (2006), the fictional character that terrorized London in the movie, V for Vendetta, expressed his views about governmental hierarchy in saying, "The people should not fear their government, its government who should fear its people." Ironically this statement is delivered by a supposed deranged maniac, but the message is resounding in truth disguised as madness. It is difficult to achieve full confidence in our United States government while it employs fear as tactic for compliance. Is it not a *healthy* fear of the people that should be the basis of a sound system of government? Fundamental freedoms are guaranteed but not necessarily respected or taken into consideration by our leaders. The fact is that restricting liberties and placing limitations on freedom have become such a prevalent practice, that society seldom questions these acts. However, when a democratic government limits its citizenry's civil liberties, such government not only violates the Constitutional contract with its populace, but clearly abuses powers vetted to it though the model of democracy and liberalism.

"Civil Liberties" (continued)

Certain liberties that Americans once possessed are no longer available to exercise and the reality is that these liberties have been buried in bureaucracy and a false sense of national security. When and how did the federal government gain the authority to prohibit the actions of sound minded adults, especially when these acts do not harm other citizens? To understand how Americans are being stripped of civil liberties, I will examine major legislation and industries to prove the perpetuation of government abuse and the monopolization of existing instrumentalities in control. Then a liberal government's function in a democratic society will be clarified. Lastly, an analysis on tactics used by large corporations and leading political bodies will demonstrate how our government still manages to pass legislation that compromise intrinsic freedoms.

On October 2001, the President signed the Patriot Act into law with substantial support from his colleagues both in the House and Senate. These new laws gave the federal government the power to access and monitor all phone calls and internet activity in the United States. It also stretched the definition of terrorism so that even questioning or protesting the war could be considered an act of terror (Northouse, 2006, p.15). This made terrorism a difficult concept to grasp under this new law. Traditionally, for a bill to be signed in to law, it must first be reviewed and revised rigorously. If this was so, then the Patriot Act's ambiguity had purpose.

Michael Moore's film depicted that most congressmen and congresswomen who supported the Patriot Act did not even read it. This information is so disturbing that Moore circled the capital with a megaphone and read the Patriot Act to law makers (2004). If this law had not been subjected to any type of debate or conference committee, why would anyone sign it? Perhaps the traumas of 9/11 beckoned the need for an immediate comfort. The Patriot Act seemed to be the answer. There was no doubt that this act was patriotic, it was called *Patriot* Act after all, but this law required Americans to surrender certain liberties. George W. Bush and his cabinet members were undoubtedly aware of the deliberate ambiguity of the bill and vulnerability of the American people and its leaders. The Bush Administration's best interests would only be preserved if the war in Iraq was not subject to any negative criticism. Individuals were now weary when expressing their opinions of the war in Iraq and the Bush Administration because there could be serious consequences.

"Civil Liberties" (continued)

Habeas corpus was put into practice to ensure justice and judicial oversight. However, lack of respect and recognition for this legal action has resulted in the imprisonment of suspected terrorists despite sufficient evidence. These individuals remain imprisoned in Guantanamo Bay, without any liberties or even the right to have their cases heard before a court. Londras (2008) states, "the importance of habeas corpus is repeatedly underscored by international institutions and courts and there is now an almost universal acceptance that the right to challenge the lawfulness of one's detention by habeas corpus (or adequate alternative) is nonderogable" (p.38).

From 1915 to1937, twenty-seven states had passed criminal laws against the use of cannabis (Barnes, 2000, p.7). After hundreds of years of hemp production and medical marijuana consumption, what agenda did our leaders have? Barnes (2000) explains that marijuana has proven its value medically, in the textile industry, and in the production of everyday household items (p.7). This has led me to the conclusion that these laws were motivated by our leaders' lack of effective regulations on immigration, the Food and Drug Administration, and safety.

Even though Tetrahydrocannabinol, the active ingredient in marijuana, was a key ingredient in common medicine at the time, it did not deter many people from using the herb raw (Barnes, 2000, p.7). While FDA finds it necessary to control all pharmaceuticals, they did not posses the authority to regulate a plant that grows from the earth. However, strong influence and large sums of money fueled the FDA's campaign to illegalize marijuana. Criminalizing marijuana would deter its use for medical value. This left the public to purchase only medication regulated by the Food and Drug Administration, vastly increasing the institution's profit margins.

Mathre (2007), in her book, *Cannabis in Medical Practice, explains that* during the prohibition era, a large portion of the country's cannabis was imported from Mexico. Many immigrants made their money trafficking marijuana across state lines (p. 46). It is my belief that in an attempt to deter Mexicans from crossing the border, the Southern states decided to cut off a primary source of income. However, many states such as New York and Connecticut that were not affected by the influx of immigrants also voted to pass legislation to ban the herb (Mathre, 1997, p.49). With propaganda flooding the media, some northern states felt pressure to contribute to the war on marijuana efforts. Laws were passed on the pretense that the substance could be used as a substitution drug for heroine and opiates.

"Civil Liberties" (continued)

We can see these actions by the FDA still in effect today. It is illegal for Americans to acquire cheaper prescription medications from Canada because most foreign pharmaceuticals have been deemed unsafe by the FDA. Schleiter (2009) discloses that, "On average, brand-name drug prices are approximately 70 percent higher in the United States than elsewhere. U.S. consumers would have saved an estimated $59.7 billion during 2004 had they purchased all brand-name drugs at Canadian prices" (p.523). Once again, the American people are to concede a certain liberty because of how a government institution stands to benefit.

These types of bills and policies conflict with the values the founders of the United States of America held to be most essential. Protecting individual liberty has been the goal of liberalism since the establishment of this ideology. In the United States, a country founded on democratic principles, liberalism is the prevailing ideology (Lawson, 2006, p.43). Thus, policy and legislation should reflect the best interest of the people. Although, satisfying the will of the majority while still respecting the rights of the minority has proven to be very difficult, it is the responsibility of leading political figures to satisfy society as a whole.

When legislation and governmental decisions fail to reflect the will of the people, is government still performing its' main function? What purpose does a democratic government have if it does not serve the people? Can society be truly satisfied with a regime that acts in self interest? Benjamin Franklin (1818) once said, "They who can give up essential liberty to obtain a little temporary safety, deserve neither liberty nor safety" (p.142). Achieving national security is meaningless if oppression occurs in the process. The United States, prior to the terrorist attacks of 9/11, was a model for democracy and freedom. Now, with every decision passed and law ratified that compromises liberty, contemporary society moves ever closer to life in a police state. Feingold (2006) offers insight on security matters when he wrote, "Of course, there is no doubt that if we lived in a police state, it would be easier to catch terrorists […] but that probably would not be a country in which we would want to live. And that would not be a country for which we could, in good conscience, ask our young people to fight and die. In short, that would not be America" (p.164).

"Civil Liberties" (continued)

Nevertheless, the United States is not what it used to be, but why? Soros (2003) offers his answer:

> It is generally agreed that September 11, 2001, changed the course of history, but we must ask ourselves why that should be so. How could a single event, even if it involved three thousand civilian casualties, have such a far-reaching effect? The answer lies not so much in the event itself but in the way the United States, under the leadership of President George W. Bush, responded to it. (p.2)

We live in time where trepidation has forced conformity. Fear, panic, and confusion have made society willing to allow unacceptable government behavior in the hopes that America will return to its pre-9/11 state. Bloom (2004) reveals that, "Unfortunately, the negative impact of exposure to trauma can severely impair individual and organizational skills necessary for the exercise of democratic processes. In the impossible, illusory search for absolute security we lose liberty while actually becoming less safe (p.79). When something traumatic occurs, ability to reason and make logical judgments and discern the line between good and evil is convoluted.

The United States of America has strayed from its values of liberalism and democracy. Policy and legislation exist that undermine our civil liberties and provide society with an illusion of safety. Scare tactics are often used by big corporations, policy makers, and figures in authority as a manipulative tool to keep the same people in power. V's vendetta for the restoration of respect, rights, and freedoms of the people resulted in his death, but birthed a renovation of government free from maltreatment of its people. This solidified that people should not in fact fear its government but it is government that must up hold and enhance quality of life. While government and business control may seem overwhelming, the ultimate power rests in the hands society. Everyday we make decisions that affect policy. Individuals cast a vote not only at elections, but every time a good is purchased or a service is used. Our most important civic duty is to be an educated participant in the political process.

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Research Paper #2

"Aspiring Airheads"

"Learning what it means to be a woman in today's society can be a challenging process," (Kim & Ward, 2004). Society's expectations about femininity, its barriers of sexism, and conflicting models of womanhood (ibid) have become stressful variables especially for adolescent females (Maltby et al., 2005). Previous research results have revealed that during adolescence, females lack an identity structure (Maltby et al., 2005). Thus, as these young females search for an identity niche, influences such as the media become important means of direction for growth. From television shows, to magazines, music videos and movies, the media offer messages as to how these young women can fulfill their expected roles (Kim & Ward, 2004).

Through the mediums previously mentioned, the media exploits celebrities who are role models for young women. In one particular study by Maltby and his colleagues, the results indicated that young females' behaviors are influenced by role models they encounter through the media. A role model can be anyone the young adult has direct or indirect contact with, and can potentially influence any decision made by the adolescent (Bush, Bush, & Martin, 2004). For example, the interaction or relationship an individual has with a teacher or a friend would be considered a direct contact. A character from a television show on the other hand, would be considered an indirect contact. Furthermore, Bush and his colleagues (2004) inform us that "individuals of outstanding achievements can serve as role models to others, motivating young adults to adopt certain self-images and lifestyle patterns."

Adolescent females tend to form "para-social" relationships (the development of an intense attachment) with their favorite media figures, and adopt the celebrity's values (Maltby et al., 2005). As the teenager matures into the stages where she desires to alleviate parental control, the media figure's influence assumes more control than a parent's (ibid). McCutcheon, Lange, and Houran (2002) proposed a model called 'Absorption-Addiction' to explain such cases of celebrity worship. This model states that a lack of identity structure in some individuals produces "psychological absorption" with a celebrity as the individual attempts to establish an identity or a sense of fulfillment.

"Aspiring Airheads" (continued)

Some role models that the media exposes to young women are celebrities who display airhead-like behaviors. A *celebrity airhead* is defined by celebrity blogger and critique Liz Jones (2008) as:

a needy creature with more money than sense, and she will therefore shore up her self-esteem by going shopping, and wearing the latest ridiculous fashion trend, […] they are easy game and rampant self-publicists therefore easy to persuade to disrobe, pose pregnant, or divulge their addictions. (2008)

But what is the outcome of these celebrity airheads' lifestyles being portrayed as role models to young women?

Several psychologist and professors have studied significant associations between adolescent media use and risky sexual attitudes and behaviors (Kim & Ward, 2004), negative health choices i.e. substance abuse (Villani, 2001) and body image disturbances (Maltby et al., 2004), and misguided priorities. These behavior patterns amongst young females are the fruits of the media's exploitation of celebrity airheads. With that stated, the purpose of this discussion is to explore the link between young women's negative behaviors, and the behaviors portrayed through the media by celebrity airheads. To do so, I will first discuss the airhead-like behaviors that are being demonstrated through the media. Second, I will discuss three factors (identity confusion, negative health choices, and misguided priorities) that contribute to young women's aspirations to behave like airheads. Third, I will suggest a way to counter the media's negative influence.

The lifestyles of celebrity airheads portrayed through the media as successful (e.g. partying every night, over drinking, illegal drug consumption, extreme dieting, excessive shopping, and dating one guy after another) are detrimental for young female audiences. This is an era when Paris Hilton, Britney Spears, and Jessica Simpson (just to name a few) virtually proliferate. These celebrities are paraded by the media as beacons of success (Jones, 2008). Paris Hilton was *The Simple Life* starlet and female artist who had her sex tape splashed all over the internet in 2005. She was also arrested various times for DUI. Britney Spears is a pop princess who underwent a meltdown in 2007. Throughout 2007, she checked in and out of rehab due to drug addictions and public drunken rages. Jessica Simpson is a female artist famous for making dumb comments e.g. "I've always acted dumb. I'm a Southern girl and that's how I got the boys." These are examples of airhead-like behaviors. According to Maltby et al. (2004), if an adolescent female developed a para-social relationship with one of these celebrities, chances of that she will be imitating these behaviors are extremely high. Adolescent females with high rates of media consumption are particularly vulnerable to the media's influence (Maltby et al., 2005).

"Aspiring Airheads" (continued)

The first factor that contributes to a young woman's aspiration to become an airhead is identity confusion. An adolescent female's self identity is based on her self-perception. But what is she learning about herself through the media? Content analysis of the media's portrayal of women is that "a woman's worth lies in her physical appearance and sexual appeal," (Gordon, 2008). Various clothing stores (e.g. Ross) are selling sparkly g-strings for ten years old girls at discounted prices. Encouraging adolescent females to wear sexually provocative underwear is disturbing. The cause of this should be attributed to the media. The media frequently portrays scantily clad female role models. Consequently, young girls want to imitate the celebrity's sex appeal.

Another example of young females becoming confused about their identities is through their sexual morals or ideals. Previous studies have shown an association between young women's conventional beliefs about sexual activities, and their television viewing frequency (Kim & Ward, 2004). The hip hop culture for instance is a sexually focused industry (Stephen & Phillips, 2003). Several hip hop music videos give young women the idea that women are sexual objects, men are sex-driven creatures, and that dating is a game (ibid). In their study in 2003, Stephens and Phillips found that when a female artist projects a non-sexual image, but wants to be "respectable", she risks marketing invisibility, and alienation in the hip hop industry. As a result, most images portrayed in this genre are of sexually promiscuous role models.

Another study by Kim and Ward (2004) was conducted to examine the effects on young women from reading contemporary women's magazines (e.g. Seventeen, and Cosmopolitan). The results revealed that exposure to teen focused magazines had a significant association with their sexual attitudes and femininity ideologies. These ideologies include teachings that perpetuate "physical beauty as the basis of a woman's worth," that young females should take on a "submissive and alluring sexual role," and that "men are deficient partners in relationships [hence assertiveness is required to maintain their attention]." These findings: 1) television viewing frequency affects morals regarding sex, 2) television-shows portray sexually promiscuous role models, 3) adolescent females learn to be sexually alluring from contemporary women's magazines, and that 4) men are sex driven creatures, are then manifested in Villani's (2001) research results where 76% of teenagers indicated that young people engage in sexual activities because it seems normal from the media.

The second factor that demonstrates young women's aspiration to behave like airheads is revealed in their negative health choices. These negative health choices include (but is not limited to) substance abuse Villani (2001), and eating disorders (Maltby et al., 2005). According to Villani (2001), substance abuse such as high level

of alcohol consumption prompts reckless behaviors amongst young women. In a poll on CNN Hannah Summers reports that "The number of boozed-up young women being arrested on the streets for drunk and disorderly behavior has soared by nearly a third in just three years." Figures show that the number of young women fined for being drunk and disorderly rose from 6,098 in 2005 to 7,930 in 2007. Paul Holmes, a Liberal Democrat justice spokesman, who unveiled the figures said, "As the number of drunken women on our streets has increased, so has the number of violent assaults being carried out by women." One can nonetheless speculate the relation of these airhead-like behavior patterns and the behaviors demonstrated by young women today. These drunken displays of reckless behaviors are reminiscent of drunken rages by various celebrities such as Ms. Spears, and Lindsay Lohan (Jones, 2008).

Another negative health behavior demonstrated by young women is body image disturbance. In 1999, 78% of the covers of the contemporary women's magazines made some reference to body appearances with over 60% explicitly mentioning diets, exercise, or cosmetic surgery in their headlines (Kim & Ward, 2004). The ideal female image portrayed in the media is of an underweight thin female figure (Maltby et al., 2005). The emphasis on body shape and weight has been theorized to be central to eating disorders (Beebe, 2000).

The desire to be thin is most problematic during adolescence (Maltby et al., 2005). Maltby and his colleagues report that at age 15 "crises of identity and anxieties about attractiveness [among adolescent females] are at their most acute." Ironically, that is also the period when girls' physiologies distribute fat around their hips and thighs (ibid). Heilman (1999) documents the case of Kara, a 14 year old girl who idolized Kate Moss. In her attempt to emulate the celebrity she went on an extreme diet. She was eventually diagnosed as anorexic due to her health's incompatibility with the diet. Kara demonstrated the airhead-like behavior pattern by purposely harming her body.

The airhead-like behaviors exposed to young women through the media also prompt misguided priorities. As previously mentioned, young women not only worship celebrities, they live out the lifestyles the airheads depict as well. Furthermore, as these adolescent females digest the teachings preached in the media, their priorities dwindle in value (Kim & Ward, 2004). The media's message that physical- appearance and sexual appeal are the center of a woman's identity misleads young women to focus on shallow factors in life (e.g. materialism, bodily appearances, or dating). With all the messages of how to maintain heterosexual relationships, how to stay slim, which colors are fashionably "in" this season, more meaningful subjects are neglected.

"Aspiring Airheads" (continued)

Discussions about education, careers, or their participation in athletics and politics are excluded (Kim & Ward, 2004), but these subjects are vital for young women's edification and growth.

The media serves as a social guide for young females. Due to adolescent females' undeveloped identity structures, they develop para-social relationships with media figures that they worship. Unfortunately, the lifestyles of celebrities (specifically celebrity airheads) exploited in the media are harmful for today's young women. The messages the media focuses to deliver to young women encourage risky sexual attitudes and health choices, and misguided priorities. The more young women are exposed to these messages, the more accepted these messages are.

But young women do not have to settle with this quality of education or direction. Society today also offers dramatic social, cultural, and political transition for young women (Harris, 2004). In her book Harris (2004) defines adolescence as "a social space in which to talk about the characteristics […] or possibilities of…social changes, and to establish policies and programs that would help create the modern social order and citizenry." Adolescence is a delicate and significant stage for development. Therefore, the need to counter the negative effects of the media on each individual young female is urgent.

Chambers and Alexander (2007) suggest media literacy as an educational method for addressing issues among young women. Increasing literacy among today's adolescent females is conducive to the development of their future. Previous studies have shown successful results when using the media to enhance student learning (Baker et al., 1997). Media literacy is the process where educators utilize the media to teach about the media's impact on individuals or groups (Chambers & Alexander, 2007). Educators can help students to interpret the meaning of messages encountered in the media. According to their study, Chambers and Alexander (2007) found that media literacy serves as an effective means of reducing or controlling media influence on a student's body image and self- perspective.

To steer young females from the tones or messages typically preached, educators can use the media to increase awareness and enthusiasm to more practical and responsible perception. For example, the issue of eating disorders among young women. To make eating disorder prevention programs more effective, efforts should be made to persuade the television, movie, and magazine industries to employ models and actresses whose weight could be described as healthy, not underweight.

"Aspiring Airheads" (continued)

Ideas of young women's roles in society are generally shaped by society's (peers and popular culture) expectations, but young women do not have to be restricted to those expectations about their femininity or identity. The media can also be used to portray models that would teach young women to realize their unique identities, and encourage young women to celebrate these identities.

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"Aspiring Airheads" (continued)

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APPENDIX F

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #2: PEER REVIEW WORKSHOP NOTES HANDOUT

Part 1: Preparing Written Feedback

Examine the illustration below. Study its features. Then continue reading the document.

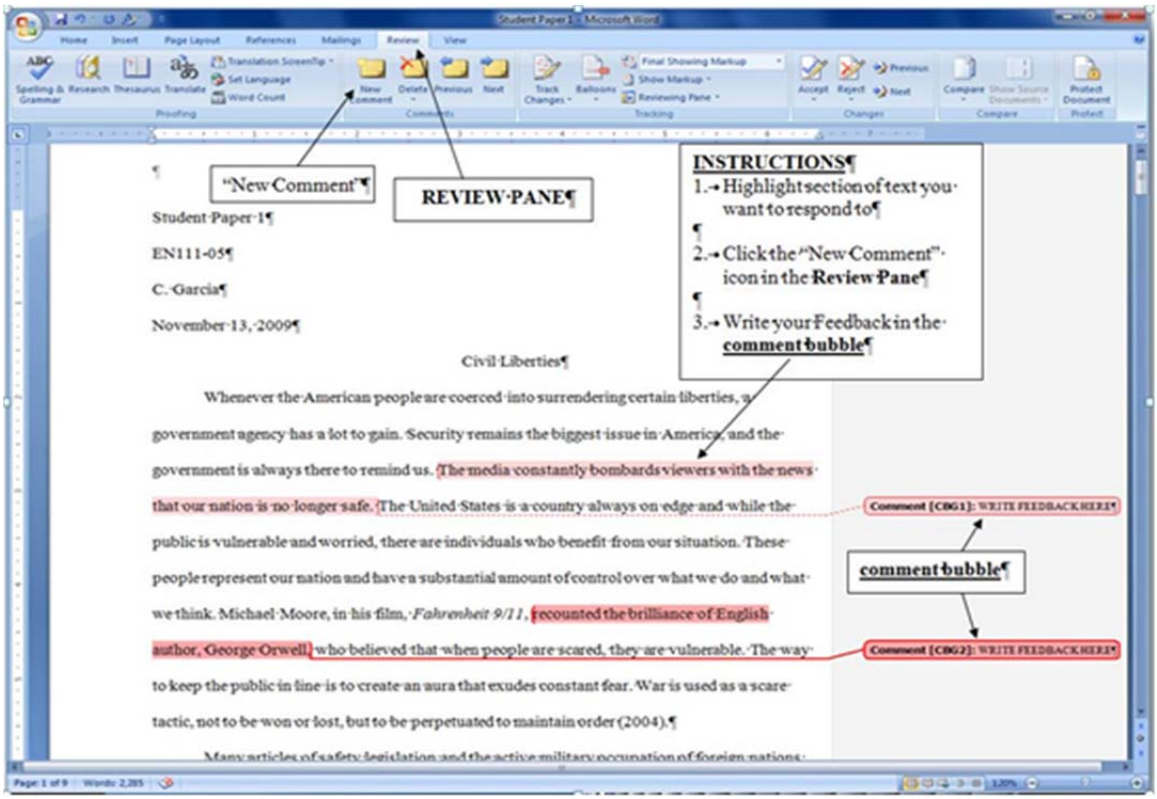

Figure 6. Using "New Comments" on Microsoft Word Track-Changes Feature.

The following information provides instructions to prepare written feedback for the two research papers:

1. Retrieve the two research papers (#1 Civil Liberties and #2 Aspiring Airheads) sent to your email address, sent from the email address: garciafeedbackproject@gmail.com
2. Download and Save Paper #1 as: **your first and last name initials** to Student 1 example: **CG to Student 1**

APPENDIX F (continued)

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #2: PEER REVIEW WORKSHOP NOTES HANDOUT

Part 1: Preparing Written Feedback (continued)

3. Download and Save Paper #2 as: **your first and last name initials** to Student 2 example: **CG to Student 2**
4. Read each paper and provide written feedback. To write your feedback in the electronic document, use Microsoft Office Word Program's "New Comment" feature of the REVIEW pane. The following figure, based on Office 2007, illustrates this:
5. Upon completion of your feedback for the two papers, save and send your prepared written feedback by attaching these two files in an email to garciafeedbackproject@gmail.com. I am requesting submission of your feedback by **Wednesday, June 15, 2011.**

Part 2: In-class Feedback-Response Workshop Session Notes

The following information is provided to foster encouraging, effective, efficient, and productive workshop sessions.

General Expectations

- *Prior to* the in-class feedback response workshop sessions (hereafter, in-class workshop session), participants should have prepared written feedback to both papers.
- When the in-class workshop sessions take place, participants who are present will have the opportunity to provide an "original feedback" about one of the two papers.
- Participants will have the opportunity to respond to other participants' "original feedback."
- When a participant is providing original feedback or a participant is responding to another's original feedback, all other participants should allow the participant speaking to complete his/her talk. In other words, out of courtesy, do not speak over another peer.
- All participants will have the opportunity to speak during the in-class workshop session as often as they want, so long as all participants have multiple opportunities to speak as well.
- Participants are encouraged to provide original feedback and/or responses to original feedback in which the participant feels pertinent to helping the writers of these texts improve the quality of the texts and the writers' writing skills.
- Feedback and Responses should be thoughtful and thought-through. Responses should be intelligent, creative, critical, and constructive.

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #2: PEER REVIEW WORKSHOP NOTES HANDOUT

General Expectations (continued)

- As with any classroom discussion, there exists a possibility that a few students might unintentionally (or intentionally) dominate classroom discussion. If such occurs, other participants, the instructor, or the researcher reserve the right to recognize the discussion dominator and ask him/her to yield the floor to another participant.
- Participants are encouraged to provide as much feedback as the participant considers sufficient. The more feedback a participant provides, a more informed profile of writing knowledge can be constructed.
- When providing feedback, there is no one formula to respond to a peer's paper. If it is difficult to think of responses, consider asking questions instead. Do not provide feedback that might be interpreted as personal attacks on the author or on other peers.

Feedback-Response Considerations

The following information is provided as some common topics to consider when reading the papers and providing feedback.

CONTENT

1. Did the writer "show" you the ideas or just "tell" you a bunch of things?
2. Did you see what the writer intended for you to see?
3. Was the information presented unclear?
4. What suggestions can you offer to improve the piece?
5. Importantly, did the writer cite appropriately?

ORGANIZATION

1. Was the information logically presented?
2. Did the composition have you go between ideas, back and forth, without warning about the deviation in progression of thought?
3. Did the writer say one thing in one paragraph and then in the next paragraph, discuss something else without adequate transition (and explicit saying so)?
4. Did the writer introduce a new topic entirely at some point in the composition? Was this purposeful? If so, was its purpose implicitly or explicitly stated? If implicitly stated, how do you know?
5. What suggestions can you offer to improve the way the research paper was organized?

APPENDIX F (continued)

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #2: PEER REVIEW WORKSHOP NOTES HANDOUT

Feedback Response Considerations (continued)

COHERENCE

1. Did each word, sentence, and paragraph work together coherently achieving unity of thought?
2. What can the writer do to ensure that the piece is cohesive?

GRAMMAR AND MECHANICS

1. Did the writer make "fatal mistakes"?
2. Did the writer use you, we, our, or any pronoun (personal or general) that causes confusion?
3. Do all the verbs agree with its subjects?
4. Are all the verbs in the same time tense?
5. Do pronouns have a reference and does the reference agree with its pronoun?
6. What other grammar errors did you come across?

STYLE SHEET FORMAT

1. What style sheet is the writer using?
2. Did the writer format the paper according to the stylesheet selected, applying the conventions of the stylesheet requirements? (Focus on Direct quotations, paraphrases, in-text citations, and the bibliography)
3. Is the bibliography written according to the stylesheet guidelines?

Templates for Framing Responses

The following templates can be used to assist participants in framing their feedback. These templates are borrowed from the researcher's graduate course in Teaching Writing to which the instructor of the course credits Anne Berthoff. I completed the course in Spring 2005, at Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

ASK QUESTIONS

1. How would it change your meaning if you _____?
2. How would it change your meaning if you combined _____ and _____?
3. How would it change your meaning if you moved _____ to _____?

DATA COLLECTION EVENT #2: PEER REVIEW WORKSHOP NOTES HANDOUT

Templates for Framing Responses (continued)

COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING PHRASES

1. I would like to know more about _____ because _____.
2. I like this _____ because _____.

Final Comments

When participants complete reading the research papers and finish providing written feedback to the papers using the New Comment feature, participants should write a final comment which is the participant's overall response to the paper. Participants' final comments to each of the papers should be treated as the final thoughts the participant would like to provide to the writers of the research papers.

APPENDIX G

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX NUMERICAL CODE KEY

Knowledge Area 0 Conventions of Standard English	Domain	subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
01	Sentence structure	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**			**90**
02	Sentence boundaries	**5**	**6**	**7**				**91**
03	Verb tense/usage	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**92**
04	Agreement	**14**	**15**					**93**
05	Pronoun usage	**16**	**17**					**94**
06	Preposition usage	**18**	**19**					**95**
07	Modifiers	**20**	**21**	**22**				**96**
08	Word use and phrasing	**23**	**24**	**25**	**26**	**27**	**28**	**97**
09	Idioms	**29**	**30**					**98**
10	Punctuation	**31**	**32**	**33**	**34**	**35**		**99**

Figure 7. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Code Key for Knowledge Area 0.

APPENDIX G (continued)

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX NUMERICAL CODE KEY

Knowledge Agrea 1 Idea Invention to Transcription (Writing Process)	Domain	subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
	01 Invention (creating)	**36**	**37**	**38**				**100**
	02 Idea transcription	**39**	**40**	**41**				**101**
	03 Idea revisions	**42**	**43**	**44**	**45**	**46**		**102**
	04 Idea editing for publication/ presentation	**47**	**48**	**49**				**103**

Figure 8. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Code Key for Knowledge Area 1.

APPENDIX G (continued)

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX NUMERICAL CODE KEY

Knowledge Area 2
Conventions of Composition

Domain		subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
01	Rhetorical Form	**50**	**51**	**52**	**53**			**104**
02	Thesis statement	**54**	**55**	**56**				**105**
03	Support	**57**	**58**	**59**				**106**
04	Writing strategy	**60**	**61**					**107**
05	Voice point-of-view	**62**	**63**	**64**				**108**
06	Conclusion	**65**	**66**	**67**	**68**			**109**
07	Organization*							**69***
08	Paragraphing	**70**	**71**					**110**

Figure 9. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Code Key for Knowledge Area 2.
*Note: Becasue there were no subdomain descriptors included for "Organization" on the Writing-Knowledge Matrix, all feedback related to "Organization" was coded as "2.07z".

APPENDIX G (continued)

WRITING-KNOWLEDGE MATRIX NUMERICAL CODE KEY

Knowledge Area 3: Conventions of Research Writing	Domain	subdomain a	b	c	d	e	f	z
01	Construct persuasive academic argument	**72**	**73**	**74**				**111**
02	Distinguish reliability of sources (scholarly/ non-scholarly)	**75**	**76**	**77**	**78**	**79**		**112**
03	Forms of research writing	**80**	**81**	**82**	**83**			**113**
04	Publication style/ documentation systems	**84**	**85**					**114**
05	Quotations and paraphrases	**86**	**87**	**88**	**89**			**115**

Figure 10. Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Code Key for Knowledge Area 3.

APPENDIX H

FEEDBACK QUALITY-LEVEL NUMERICAL CODES

Feedback Quality-Level Combination	Numeric Code
2c	**1**
2b	**2**
2a	**3**
1c	**4**
0c	**5**
1b	**6**
1a	**7**
0b	**8**
0a	**9**

Figure 11. Feedback Quality-Level Numerical Codes.

APPENDIX I

DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

Table 1

Data Analysis Results

Description of Feedback Type and Data Sources	Total Feedback Data Items	Distribution of Aggregated Data[#] (by Feedback Code Categories) WKM "z.zz"* (no code)	WKM "KA.Dz"* (partial code)	WKM "KA.Dsd"* (complete code)	Results of Descriptive Statistical Analysis[#] (using WKM numerical codes for "KA.Dsd"* descriptors) Central Tendency Median	Mode	Spread Minimum	Maximum
All Feedback Types	2,394	416	203	1,775	38	43	1	89
Claimed Feedback	178	33	52	93	47	47	21	89
Data Source								
2B.2 Recalled from Rubrics (used during past peer review activities)	58	8	20	30	47	39	23	69
2C.G1 In addition to Rubric (Group 1: included on 2B.2 data source)	16	2	5	9	47	47	23	69
2C.G2 In addition to Rubric (Group 2: not included on 2B.2)	22	10	0	12	47	47	38	47
2D No Rubric (used for peer review activities)	82	13	27	42	48	47	21	89
Actual Feedback	2,216	383	151	1,682				
Actual Feedback (Written)	2,009	323	129	1,557	38	43	1	89
Data Source								
SC1 Short Composition 1: iPad	682	101	29	552	31	43	2	71
SC2 Short Composition 2: Reading and writing are more important today	578	88	23	467	25	23	2	69
RP1 Research Paper 1: Civil liberties	398	68	34	296	46	38	1	87
RP2 Research Paper 2: Aspiring airheads	351	86	43	242	47	87	2	89
Actual Feedback (Verbal)	207	60	22	125	39	47	14	87
Data Source								
4A SC1 and SC2: Initial impressions	59	12	11	36	47	47	27	67
4B SC1 and SC2: Difficulties	67	18	3	46	38.5	23	14	69
PR1 RP1: In-class peer review session 1	50	17	4	29	38	38	24	87
PR2 RP2: In-class peer review session 2	31	13	4	14	38	36	36	79

*"KA.Dsd" refers to "Knowledge Area," "Domain," and "subdomain" descriptors on the writing-knowledge matrix. *"KA.Dz" refers to a Knowledge Area and Domain listed on the writing-knowledge matrix, but its subdomain cannot be classified according to the dimensions of the writing-knowledge matrix, and in such a case, "z" represents "unstated" or "not included" subdomain descriptors. *"z.zz" code was assigned to feedback data that could not be classified to any knowledge area or domain on the writing-knowledge matrix. #"Distribution of Aggregated Data" report the amount of feedback data collected for each feedback type from various data sources, and are sorted according to one of three feedback code categories: Feedback assigned a complete writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dsd" code, Feedback assigned a partial code in which "z" represents an unknown subdomain, and Feedback coded "z.zz" as the feedback did not correspond to any of the knowledge areas and domains on the writing-knowledge matrix. #"Results of Descriptive Statistical Analysis" report results of two measures of central tendency and two measures of spread, which are part of the measures associated with summary/descriptive statistics; these results reflect only those feedback data items assigned a complete writing-knowledge matrix "KA.Dsd" code and are reported by feedback type and data source.

APPENDIX J

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 2

Data Set 1 Talking About Texts

		Participants														
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
1	Provides main point by summarzing text									√	√	√	√	√		5
2	Gives input: if liked or disliked	√	√									√	√			4
3	No difficulties discussing text if interested; if not interested in the text, discussing it is difficult		√			√	√									3
4	Length of the text discussed influences comfort discussing the text				√	√			√							3
5	Will make connections, be more critical of text if "something personal" is going on or something "sticks out"										√	√	√			3
6	Will explain much of the text											√	√			2
7	Uncomfortable if talking with strangers(unfamiliar persons)							√							√	2
8	Prefers magazines to read		√			√										2
9	Discussing texts helps remember what the text was about; forgets the details				√				√							2
10	Lack of time to read text limits what can be said about text						√		√							2
11	Will try to withhold explaining much of the text													√		1
12	Likes to hear classmates' input		√													1
13	Pefers small groups if to present	√														1
14	Whole-class ok if seating in circle and not have to stand up in front of class	√														1
15	Intimatidating talking about texts when room is quiet			√												1
16	Comfortable if talking with someone, not presenting by oneself			√												1
17	Interested in books after watching the movie		√													1
18	Embarassed to admit that one reads														√	1
	Total	3	5	2	2	3	2	1	3	1	2	4	4	2	2	**36**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 3

Data Set 2 Peer Review Experiences

	Participants														
	P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
Peer Review Required?															
Yes	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	14
No															0

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 4

Data Set 2A Peer Review Designs

		Participants														
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	Models															
1	Partnered (pairs)	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	14
2	Small group (3-5 per group)		√		√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	11
3	Whole-class			√	√		√	√				√	√	√		7
4	Blind review	√	√	√	√							√	√			6
	Peer Writers															
1	Informal with friends			√												1
2	Formal with classmates (non-friends)	√		√		√		√	√			√		√	√	8
	Peer Review Activity															
1	Peer reviewed short texts (not entire essay)						√									1
2	Oral and written peer review	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	14
	Total	4	4	6	5	3	5	5	4	3	3	6	5	5	4	**62**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 5

Data Set 2B.1 Peer Review Rubrics

		Participants														
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	Rubrics Used															
	Yes	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	13
	No						√									1
	Types of Rubrics															
1	Peer review rubrics	√	√		√	√			√	√	√		√	√	√	10
2	Writing assignment rubric			√								√				2
3	Non-paper rubrics: Assignment or prompt directions			√								√				2
4	Non-Paper rubrics: Topics taken from textbook (editing symbols)			√				√		√					√	4
5	Non-paper rubrics: Topics written on board							√								1
	Total	2	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	**33**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 6

Data Set 2B.2 Content of Rubrics

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptor															
1	0.01z	Sentence structure			√							√	√	√			4
2	0.03z	Verbs												√			1
3	0.08a	Spelling			√	√											2
4	1.02a	Content: Ideas are relevant to paper/Supporting ideas				√	√			√	√	√	√	√	√	√	9
5	1.02c	Redundancy (ideas)								√							1
6	1.04a	Grammar mistakes/proofreading	√		√	√					√	√	√	√	√		8
7	1.04b	Cited correctly/formatting: APA/MLA/ etc.					√					√			√		3
8	2.02z	Content: Main idea (thesis/topic sentences)		√			√			√	√	√	√	√	√	√	9
9	2.03z	Content: Strong/weak points	√			√				√		√				√	5
10	2.05z	Active/passive voice			√												1
11	2.06z	Content: Conclusion-reinforced or restated the thesis										√					1
12	2.07z	Content: Organization, structure, "flow"		√	√	√	√					√				√	6
13	z.zz	Content: Opinions about eye-catching/interesting points liked and/or disliked	√				√			√		√		√		√	6
14	z.zz	Ranking the quality of the composition			√	√											2
		Total	3	2	6	6	5	0	0	5	3	9	4	6	4	5	**58**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 7

Data Set 2C Group 1 (2C.G1) Feedback Not On Rubric

	Descriptors from Data Set 2B.2		Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptor															
1	0.01z	Sentence structure											√			√	2
2	0.03z	Verbs															0
3	0.08a	Spelling								√							1
4	1.02a	Content: Ideas are relevant to paper/Supporting ideas															0
5	1.02c	Redundancy (ideas)															0
6	1.04a	Grammar mistakes/proofreading							√	√			√				3
7	1.04b	Cited correctly/formatting: APA/MLA/ etc.								√							1
8	2.02z	Content: Main idea (thesis/topic sentences)							√								1
9	2.03z	Content: Strong/weak points							√				√			√	3
10	2.05z	Active/passive voice															0
11	2.06z	Content: Conclusion-reinforced or restated the thesis							√								1
12	2.07z	Content: Organization, structure, "flow"					√						√				2
13	z.zz	Content: Opinions about eye-catching/interesting points liked and/or disliked	√													√	2
14	z.zz	Ranking the quality of the composition															0
		Data Set 2C.G1 Total	1	0	0	0	1	0	4	3	0	0	4	0	0	3	**16**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 8

Data Set 2C Group 2 (2C.G2) Feedback Not On Rubric

	Descriptors **not from** Data Set 2B.2		Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptor															
1	1.01c	Elaborate on points (supporting ideas)				√			√					√	√		4
2	1.04a	What sounds wrong or missing	√						√				√	√	√	√	6
3	1.04a	Revises/edits sentences (beyond rubric dimensions); not only identifies flaws, but corrects everything			√								√				2
4	z.zz	What sounds "cool" or interesting	√			√										√	3
5	z.zz	Acknowledge the writer's work/effort (or lack of)	√												√		2
6	z.zz	Side comments that are not relevant to idea development/paper (e.g. Good Job!)				√									√		2
7	z.zz	End-final comments			√												1
8	z.zz	Uses emoticons				√											1
9	z.zz	Tone										√					1
		Data Set 2C.G2 Total	3	0	2	4	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	2	4	2	**22**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 9

Data Set 2D Feedback; No Rubric

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptor															
1	0.01z	Sentence structure				√		√				√		√	√		5
2	0.07b	Adjective use						√									1
3	0.08a	Spelling						√		√	√	√					4
4	0.08b	Word choice										√					1
5	0.10z	Punctuation										√		√	√		3
6	1.01c	Elaborate on ideas									√						1
7	1.03e	Relevance/accuracy of information						√				√					2
8	1.04a	Grammar	√	√		√	√	√		√	√		√	√	√		10
9	1.04a	Common mistakes				√								√			2
10	1.04c	Stylesheet formatting/citations						√									1
11	2.01z	Assignment guidelines met						√									1
12	2.02a	Clarity of main idea (thesis)		√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√		√	11
13	2.03z	Points/supporting ideas/evidence		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	12
14	2.06z	Conclusions		√						√	√	√					4
15	2.07z	Transitions: structure organization "flow"				√			√	√		√	√		√		6
16	2.08z	Paragraph development							√					√			2
17	3.05d	Use of quotations			√								√	√			3
18	z.zz	Personal comments/opinions			√						√		√			√	4
19	z.zz	Meaningful/interesting ideas		√								√				√	3
20	z.zz	Introduction									√	√		√			3
21	z.zz	Topic sentences		√												√	2
22	z.zz	Noun use						√									1
		Total	1	6	4	6	3	10	4	6	7	11	6	9	4	5	**82**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 10

Data Set 2E Benefits of Peer Review

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
		Benefits Peer Writers															
1	1	Benefits writers; reviewers can point out what writers missed/need someone to comment--seing things about the text that writer didn't notice	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√	13
	2	Peers can catch what writers missed before the teacher catches it							√		√					√	3
	3	Peer audience helps make the paper better; others (other than the teacher) motivate the writer to improve the text					√							√		√	3
		Benefits Reviewer as Writer															
2	1	Benefits writers and reviewers	√				√	√					√		√	√	6
	2	Reviewing helps me become a better writer at the same time	√					√							√		3
3	1	Peers have some knowledge that writers don't have/can provide a different perspective/can debate topics		√			√			√	√		√	√	√	√	8
4	1	Compliments/critiques--teaches writers how to generate and accept criticism and recognize and receive compliments		√					√						√	√	4
5	1	Benefits yes; but doesn't benefit if reviewers aren't putting in the effort										√					1
6	1	If a better grade is earned peer review is worth it												√			1
		Total	3	3	1	1	4	3	3	2	3	1	3	4	5	6	**42**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 11

Data Set 2F Peer Review Difficulties

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
		Receiving Feedback															
1	1	Receiving many corrections		√			√										2
	2	Peer review confirms writer is not a good writer		√			√										2
	3	Receiving feedback that's opinionated		√													1
		Giving Feedback															
2	1.1	Uncertain about what to respond to; what feedback to provide	√								√			√	√	√	5
	1.2	Everyone has different writing styles	√						√								2
	1.3	Paper is well written that there's nothing to correct		√					√					√			3
	1.4	Motivation to peer review--workload a lot				√							√				2
	1.5	Motivation to peer review--not a strong writer	√				√										2
	1.6	not appearing to be "stupid"										√					1
	1.7	Determing the accuracy of information when reviewers lack necessary background knowledge/not relating to subject-matters													√		1
	2.1	Ideas are choppy or not well-developed at the sentence and paragraph level			√		√			√	√		√				5
	2.2	Writing that is not clear, no connection to thesis, rambling on of ideas without purpose or point/lack of organization	√							√	√		√				4
	3.1	Fancy words/diction doesn't fit the text/words "too up in the sky"	√		√	√			√								4
	3.2	Correcting others' grammar			√		√			√				√			4
	4.1	Peers don't want to be corrected										√					1
	4.2	Peer reviewing a stranger's paper (uncomfortable)										√					1
	4.3	Not offending peers/being polite/cordial														√	1
	5.1	Peers didn't listen to teacher's directions								√		√					2
	5.2	Lazy peers										√					1
	6.1	Doing the teacher's job		√												√	2
	6.2	Whole-class discussions						√									1
	6.3	ESL-type of writing/compositions											√				1
		Total	5	2	3	2	3	1	3	4	3	5	4	3	2	3	**43**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 12

Data Set 2G Feedback Withheld

		Participants														
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	Descriptor															
1	Generally would not withhold anything, but there may be a few exceptions	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√		11
2	Mean or unsupportive feedback: "paper sucks"			√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√	√		10
3	Withhold feedback that might cause the peer writer to "lash back" or feedback that might cause conflict between peers							√	√		√	√			√	5
4	Personal connections to peers' subject matter	√												√		2
5	If reviewer thinks peer writer is "sensitive" then wouldn't be critical										√				√	2
6	Withhold if reviewer is uncertain if reviewer feedback is correct--would advice writer to double-check with the teacher											√			√	2
7	Withhold feedback that has the potential to go off topic													√		1
8	No personal connection to peers' subject matter		√													1
9	Agreeing/disagreeing with senstive subject matters		√													1
10	Too much information regarding sensitive subject matters		√													1
11	Avoid writing a lot of feedback if the paper is very flawed; would perfer to verbally tell peer								√							1
12	Avoid feedback that might make reviewer look like a "know-it-all"								√							1
	Total	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	5	1	3	4	2	4	3	**38**

APPENDIX J (continued)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 13

Data Set 4 Short Composition Review Duration

	Participants														
	P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
Total Time	15:05	34:21	41:27	32:10	33:11	15:13	29:44	44:45	29:28	34:37	35:29	41:28	18:14	17:24	**30:11**

Table 14

Data Set 4A Initial Impressions of Short Compositions

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptor															
1	0.01z	Sentence structure											√				1
2	0.08e	Missing words	√														1
3	0.10z	Punctuation												√			1
4	1.01a	Should assert claims that are new, fresh-that no one really knows about; repeated many ideas			√						√			√			3
5	1.01c	Filling-in missing information	√							√							2
6	1.01c	Wasn't too sure what the essays were about					√										1
7	1.02a	Aside from grammar errors, ideas and content were clear				√											1
8	1.02a	Broad topics in five paragraphs?		√													1
9	1.02a	Choppy ideas/ ideas didn't develop thesis; ideas seemed random			√									√			2
10	1.03d	First sentence of SC #1 confusing						√									1
11	1.03e	No transitions								√				√			2
12	1.04a	Many errors: grammar (article usage, s-v agreement) and spelling	√				√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	10
13	1.04a	More concerned with making corrections than figuring out the ideas	√							√							2
14	1.04a	Title should be changed						√					√				2

(Continued on next page…)

Table 14 (continued)

Data Set 4A Initial Impressions of Short Compositions (continued)

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
15	1.04a	Can't ignore errors	√														1
16	1.04a	Proofreading is difficult								√							1
17	1.04a	Too many errors are overwhelming, wants to give up										√					1
18	1.04a	Wasn't sure if to continue reading--if the work was to "proofread"or to say to writer--rewrite before peer reviewing				√											1
19	2.01z	Not appropriate to give one's opinion about the topic						√		√							2
20	2.02c	Thesis not clear					√										1
21	2.02z	Thesis statement obvious, but shouldn't be			√									√			2
22	2.05b	Writer shouldn't use "I" (first person)								√							1
23	2.05z	Everyday voice/not formal voice-tone for academic writing/essays; too colloquial			√					√		√	√		√		5
24	2.06c	Conclusion is weak restatement of points made			√						√						2
25	z.zz	Thought text was "made up"; prepared by researcher							√	√		√	√				4
26	z.zz	writers sounded ESL						√	√		√		√				4
27	z.zz	Guessed the gender of the writers (boys)											√				1
28	z.zz	iPad essay better than R&W essay (length determines quality)							√								1
29	z.zz	iPad essay has to be rewritten entirely							√								1
30	z.zz	Short/boring		√													1
		Total	5	2	5	2	3	4	5	9	4	4	7	6	2	1	**59**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 15

Data Set 4B Difficulties Reviewing Short Compositions

			Participants													
			P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
	WKM	Descriptors															
1	0.04a	Subject-verb argeement										√					1
2	0.08a	Spelling	√	√	√	√				√		√		√	√	√	9
3	0.08e	Missing words	√											√			2
4	0.08f	Redundancy (word choice)			√					√		√		√			4
5	1.01c	Lack of elaboration of supporting evidence		√	√					√			√	√	√	√	7
6	1.02a	Paragraph/ idea development		√		√	√		√				√		√	√	7
7	1.03e	Lacking transitions/doesn't get to the point					√			√					√	√	4
8	1.04a	Grammar errors	√	√						√	√	√		√	√	√	8
9	2.04a	Key terms ideas not defined													√		1
10	2.06z	Conclusion							√	√					√		3
11	2.07z	Organization		√			√									√	3
12	z.zz	Not smooth writing (e.g. sentence structure) interrupts reading comprehension/had to reread text	√	√					√		√	√		√		√	7
13	z.zz	Conversational/informal tone of the writers			√								√		√		3
14	z.zz	Can infer what the ideas are, but couldn't figure out how to "term" what's wrong; could rewrite for writer, but can't use the English terms (vernacular) to explain what's wrong										√	√				2
15	z.zz	Don't start a sentence with coordinating conjunction										√			√		2
16	z.zz	Poorly written essays makes reviewer feel "stupid"; causes reviewer to question own knowledge				√											1
17	z.zz	Some sentences are difficult to comprehend which makes figuring out what and how to revise difficult												√			1
18	z.zz	Too many errors make it difficult to understand the text		√													1
19	z.zz	Uncertain of changing grammar or sentence structure because of risking changing the writer's intended meaning--difficult to ascertain writer's idea amid all of the grammatical flaws												√			1
		Total	4	7	4	3	3	0	3	6	2	7	4	8	9	7	**67**

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 16

Data Set 4C Reasons to Insist and Withhold Feedback on Short Compositions

		Participants													
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
1	Will insist on grammar feedback	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		13
2	Will insist on idea development feedback	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	13
3	Would not withhold because feedback is useful	√			√	√	√		√	√	√	√	√			9
4	Would not withhold because this feedback is the point of peer review	√			√	√	√		√			√	√			7
5	Withhold to avoid humiliating or offending peer		√					√	√				√	√	√	6
6	Would not withhold feedback, but if a stranger will "tone" down the critical feedback			√				√	√		√			√	√	6
7	Would insist on feedback that disrupted reviewer's reading because reviewers do not want other readers to experience the or similar difficulties that the reviewer experienced	√			√								√	√		4
8	Withhold to save (reviewer's) face; would not want to look "dumb" or incompetent		√						√						√	3
9	If writer was known and a stranger, would not write as much, but may verbally share ideas								√						√	2
10	If writer was known and not a stranger, would write down								√						√	2

(Continued on next page…)

INTERVIEW DATA SETS

Table 16 (continued)

Data Set 4C Reasons to Insist and Withhold Feedback on Short Compositions (continued)

		Participants													
		P01	P02	P03	P04	P05	P06	P07	P08	P09	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	
11	Withhold if uncertain about command of specific writing knowledge (grammar)		√												√	2
12	Withhold opinions about text/ if uncertain of what's professional or not, that feedback will be withheld						√								√	2
13	Would not "write down" ideas about how to improve sentences, but would talk to the writer						√		√							2
14	Would not withhold feedback just because peers might be embarassed; giving feedback helps peers save their own face				√						√					2
15	Would say peer needs tutoring							√			√					2
16	Will not withhold if peers are friends--would tell-all		√													1
17	Withhold asking writer if writer is ESL									√						1
18	Withhold critical feedback if peer is a stranger, but will not withhold if reviewer gets writer's permission to be tell-all		√													1
19	Withhold feedback if writer's first langauge is not English									√						1
20	Withhold feedback that is personal comments													√		1
	Total	5	7	3	6	4	6	5	10	5	6	4	6	5	8	**80**

APPENDIX K

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes

	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types				P01			P02			P03			P04			P05			P06			P07		
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF
1		3		3					1																
2		6		6		1									1									1	
3		2		2					1																
4																									
5		8		8					1			1			1			1			2				
6		21		21		1			2			1			3			2						3	
7		23		23		4			4															2	
8		9		9		2			1			1			1									2	
9																									
10																									
11		2		2								1									1				
12		12		12					1			1			1			1			1			3	
13																									
14		64	1	65		4			9			4			2			6			2			7	
15																									
16																									
17		25		25		4			8																

Participants	P08			P09			P10			P11			P12			P13			P14	
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
1											2									
2		1						2												
3																	1			
4																				
5					1															1
6					1			2			2			2						2
7		4						2			2			4			1			
8								1						1						
9																				
10																				
11																				
12		1												2						1
13																				
14		8						7	1		4			8						3
15																				
16																				
17											5			8						

(Continued next page)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types				Participants P01			P02			P03			P04			P05			P06			P07			P08			P09			P10			P11			P12			P13			P14	
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
18		18		18		4			4			1			1									4			1									1			2						
19		10		10		1			5						1									1												1			1						
20																																													
21	1			1																															1										
22																																													
23	7	141	9	157		9	1		12	1	1	15	1	1	8	1		13			10		1	9		1	15	1		12			9	1	1	6		1	9	1		12	1	1	2
24	1	64	1	66		2			7			6			10								1	9			14			2			2			4	1		7						1
25		64		64		2			8			1			2			5			4			10			7			2			1			12			8			2			
26		44		44		3			5			4			3			2			4			2			4			2			2			4			4			3			2
27		85	3	88		6	2		7			3			1			9			4			12			8			7			5			8			7	1		8			
28		10	4	14					2			2	1		1			1									3	1		1				1						1					
29																																													
30																																													
31		12		12		1			1									1			1			1			1			1			1						1			3			
32		64		64		2			13			4			3			2			2			14			3									2			15			4			
33		1		1														1																											
34		9		9		2			3																					3									1						
35		1		1					1																																				
KA 0 Total	9	698	18	725		48	3		96	1	1	45	2	1	39	1		44			31		2	80		1	70	2		32			34	3	2	53	1	1	80	3		34	1	1	12

(Continued next page)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

WKM CODE	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types CF	WF	VF	Total	P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF
36		17	10	27		1				1		2	1					1				1			
37		6		6		2																		2	
38	5	124	25	154		1	1		1	1		13	3	1	8			2	1		9	3	1	1	1
39	10	13	11	34						2		7	1	1	1	2	1		1				1	1	1
40		15		15		1						3			3			1			1				
41	1	27	1	29					1			6			3			1			2			1	
42																									
43		199		199		6			17			1			16			2			7			34	
44																									
45		28	1	29		2			5			3			6						1	1			
46	2	41	9	52		1	1		1			4			5			2	1				1		
47	31	100	27	158	2	5	4	2	11	2	3	3		1	8	1	1	10	1	1	5	1	2	8	1
48	4	6	1	11			1										1								
49	1	37	1	39		3			8			3			1			1			2			1	
KA 1 Total	54	613	86	753	2	22	7	2	44	6	3	45	5	3	51	3	3	20	4	1	27	6	5	48	3

WKM CODE	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF
36		2	2		2	1					6	3		1	1		2			
37											2									
38		7	6		5			10	2		14	4	1	3	1	1	8	1	1	42
39	1	2		1			1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	
40		1			1			1			1			1			1			
41	1	4						4			3	1		2						
42																				
43		24			9			13			45			25						
44																				
45		3			1			2			4						1			
46		8	2		1			4		1	7			4	2			2		4
47	3	10	4	1	11	2	2	1	3	5	9	2	3	13	2	3	4	2	2	2
48	1						1									1	6			
49		5	1							1	6			5			1			1
KA 1 Total	6	66	15	2	30	3	4	35	5	8	98	11	5	55	7	6	23	6	4	49

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APPENDIX K (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

Participants

WKM CODE	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types CF	WF	VF	Total	P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF
50																																													
51																																													
52																																													
53																																													
54	11	8		19	1			1			1	2		1			1	3		1			1	1		1	1		1						1	1		1							
55		9	1	10						1		1			1			2									2									1						2			
56		3	1	4								3							1																										
57		12	3	15						1		1																2		1						5			4			1			
58		7		7					2			3			1																														1
59		2		2								1																					1												
60		2	2	4								1																1								1							1		
61																																													

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APPENDIX K (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

	WKM "KA.Dsd"				Participants																																							
	Feedback Types				**P01**			**P02**			**P03**			**P04**			**P05**			**P06**			**P07**			**P08**			**P09**			**P10**			**P11**			**P12**			**P13**			**P14**	
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
62																																													
63		1	1	2																							1	1																	
64																																													
65	1	2		3											1																	1										1			
66		1		1								1																																	
67		7	2	9								2	1		1			1						1			1				1											1			
68																																													
69	15	11	3	29	1			1		1	1	2		1			1		1	1	1		2	1		1				1		1	2		1	1		1	3		1			2	
70		2		2								1																					1												
71		6		6								1															1									4									
KA 2 Total	27	73	13	113	2			2	2	3	2	19	1	2	4		2	6	2	2	1		3	3		2	6	4	1	2	1	2	4		2	13		2	7		1	5	1	2	1

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APPENDIX K (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

WKM CODE	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types CF	WF	VF	Total	Participants P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF
72		1		1								1																																	
73		4		4								1																		2						1									
74																																													
75		4		4																				2																					2
76																																													
77		10		10								2																								1			1						6
78		7		7																																									7
79		24	6	30					4	2		6													1								3			9	2						1		2
80																																													
81																																													
82																																													
83																																													
84		44	1	45					4	1					1						2			3			5			8			2			15			3						1
85		17		17																				1			6												5						5
86		5		5		1									1						2						1																		
87		51	1	52		4	1		1						1						3			2			8			16			8			1			4						3
88																																													
89	3	6		9		1		1												1				1					1	1						1			2						
KA 3 Total	3	173	8	184		6	1	1	9	3		10			3					1	7			9	1		20		1	27			13			28	2		15				1		26

(Continued next page)

APPENDIX K (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

	WKM "KA.Dz" Feedback Types				Participants																																																												
						P01			**P02**			**P03**			**P04**			**P05**			**P06**			**P07**			**P08**			**P09**			**P10**			**P11**			**P12**			**P13**			**P14**
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
90	11	2	1	14				1			1				1								1			1						1			3	1	1	1			1			1	
91		27		27		4			1			4			6			1						2			1			3			5												
92	1	3		4					1																													1	2						
93																																													
94		8		8					3						1																					1			2						1
95																																													
96		2		2																				2																					
97																																													
98																																													
99	3	3	1	7		1		1															1																	1	1	2			
"KA0.Dz" Total	15	45	2	62		5		2	5		1	4			8			1					2	4		1	1			3		1	5		3	2	1	2	4	1	2	2		1	1
100																																													
101		1		1														1																											
102		3		3																																2			1						
103		1		1																																1									
"KA1.Dz" Total		5		5														1																		3			1						

(Continued next page)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

	WKM "KA.Dz" Feedback Types				Participants P01			P02			P03			P04			P05			P06			P07			P08			P09			P10			P11			P12			P13			P14	
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
104	1	1	2	4																		1						1				1			1										
105	11	4	3	18				1					1				2	2	1							1			1	1		1			2	1		1		1	1			1	
106	18	19		37	2			1			1	4		2	1		1	1		1			2			2	4		1	3		1	2		1			1	2					2	2
107		1		1																							1																	
108	1	6	7	14							1	1	3	1										2				1				1	1			1			1			1			
109	4	5	3	12		2						1						1					1		1		1	1							1				1	1	1			
110	2	3		5	1			1															1							1						1								1
"KA2.Dz" Total	37	39	15	91	3	2		3		1	3	7	2	2	1		3	4	1	1		1	3	2	1	3	6	3	2	5		2	4	1	4	1	1	3	3	2	1	1	2	4	3
111		9	2	11								4			2												1		1				2										1
112		4	2	6											1																					1	2						2
113																																												
114		1		1																																							1
115		26	1	27			1					1			3									1			1			10			1				6			2			1
"KA3.Dz" Total		40	5	45			1					5			6									1			1	1		10	1		1			2			7	2		2			5

(Continued next page)

APPENDIX K (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY WKM NUMERICAL CODE

Table 17 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Writing-Knowledge Matrix Numerical Codes (continued)

					Participants																																							
					P01			**P02**			**P03**			**P04**			**P05**			**P06**			**P07**			**P08**			**P09**			**P10**			**P11**			**P12**			**P13**			**P14**	
	Feedback Types				CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**																																									
"KA.Dsd" Total	93	1557	125	1775	4	76	11	5	151	13	6	119	8	6	97	4	5	70	6	4	66	6	10	140	4	9	162	21	4	91	4	6	86	8	12	192	14	8	157	10	7	62	9	7	88
"KA.Dz" Total	52	129	22	203	3	7	1	5	5	1	4	16	2	2	15		3	6	1	1		1	5	7	1	4	8	4	2	18	1	3	10	1	7	8	2	5	15	5	3	5	2	5	9
WKM "z.zz" Total	33	323	60	416	4	25	3	1	34	8	4	31	1	7	22	3	1	8	3	1	10	2	2	34	8	1	29	8	1	9	2	2	18	6	1	30	7	1	16	6	2	22	2	5	35
All WKM Total	178	2009	207	2394	11	108	15	11	190	22	14	166	11	15	134	7	9	84	10	6	76	9	17	181	13	14	199	33	7	118	7	11	114	15	20	230	23	14	188	21	12	89	13	17	132

APPENDIX L

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY DATA TOTAL

Table 18

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Data Total

					Participants																																									
	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types					**P01**			**P02**			**P03**			**P04**			**P05**			**P06**			**P07**			**P08**			**P09**			**P10**			**P11**			**P12**			**P13**			**P14**	
					CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**																																										
43		199		199		6			17			1			16			2			7			34			24			9			13			45			25							
47	31	100	27	158	2	5	4	2	11	2	3	3		1	8	1	1	10	1	1	5	1	2	8	1	3	10	4	1	11	2	2	1	3	5	9	2	3	13	2	3	4	2	2	2	2
23	7	141	9	157		9	1		12	1	1	15	1	1	8	1		13			10		1	9		1	15	1		12			9	1	1	6		1	9	1		12	1	1	2	1
38	5	124	25	154		1	1		1	1		13	3	1	8			2	1		9	3	1	1	1		7	6		5			10	2		14	4	1	3	1	1	8	1	1	42	1
27		85	3	88		6	2		7			3			1			9			4			12			8			7			5			8			7	1		8				
24	1	64	1	66		2			7			6			10								1	9			14			2			2			4	1		7						1	
14		64	1	65		4			9			4			2			6			2			7			8						7	1		4			8						3	
25		64		64		2			8			1			2			5			4			10			7			2			1			12			8			2				
32		64		64		2			13			4			3			2			2			14			3									2			15			4				
87		51	1	52		4	1		1						1						3			2			8			16			8			1			4						3	
46	2	41	9	52		1	1		1			4			5			2	1				1				8	2		1			4		1	7			4	2			2		4	1
84		44	1	45					4	1					1						2			3			5			8			2			15			3						1	
26		44		44		3			5			4			3			2			4			2			4			2			2			4			4			3			2	
49	1	37	1	39		3			8			3			1			1			2			1			5	1							1	6			5			1			1	
39	10	13	11	34						2		7	1	1	1	2	1		1				1	1	1	1	2		1			1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1		1
79		24	6	30					4	2		6													1								3			9	2						1		2	
45		28	1	29		2			5			3			6						1	1					3			1			2			4						1				
41	1	27	1	29					1			6			3			1			2			1		1	4						4			3	1		2							
69	15	11	3	29	1			1		1	1	2		1			1		1	1	1		2	1		1				1		1	2		1	1		1	3		1			2		1
36		17	10	27		1				1		2	1					1				1					2	2		2	1					6	3		1	1		2				
17		25		25		4			8																											5			8							
7		23		23		4			4															2			4						2			2			4			1				
6		21		21		1			2			1			3			2						3						1			2			2			2						2	
54	11	8		19	1			1			1	2		1			1	3		1			1	1		1	1		1						1	1		1								
18		18		18		4			4			1			1									4			1									1			2							
85		17		17																				1			6												5						5	
40		15		15		1						3			3			1			1						1			1			1			1			1			1				
57		12	3	15						1		1																2		1						5			4			1				
28		10	4	14					2			2	1		1			1									3	1		1				1						1						
12		12		12					1			1			1			1			1			3			1												2						1	
31		12		12		1			1									1			1			1			1			1			1						1			3				

(Continued next page)

APPENDIX L (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY DATA TOTAL

Table 18 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Data Total *(continued)*

WKM CODE	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types CF	WF	VF	Total	P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF	P14 VF
48	4	6	1	11			1										1									1						1									1	6				
19		10		10		1			5						1									1												1			1							
77		10		10								2																								1			1						6	
55		9	1	10						1		1			1			2									2									1						2				
8		9		9		2			1			1			1									2									1						1							
34		9		9		2			3																					3									1							
67		7	2	9								2	1		1			1						1			1				1											1				
89	3	6		9		1		1												1				1					1	1						1			2							
5		8		8					1			1			1			1			2									1															1	
58		7		7					2			3			1																														1	
78		7		7																																									7	
2		6		6		1									1									1			1						2													
37		6		6		2																		2												2										
71		6		6								1															1									4										
86		5		5		1									1						2						1																			
73		4		4								1																		2						1										
75		4		4																				2																					2	
56		3	1	4								3							1																											
60		2	2	4								1																1								1							1			
1		3		3					1																											2										
65	1	2		3											1																	1										1				
3		2		2					1																																	1				
11		2		2								1									1																									
59		2		2								1																					1													
70		2		2								1																					1													
63		1	1	2																							1	1																		
33		1		1														1																												
35		1		1					1																																					
66		1		1								1																																		
72		1		1								1																																		
21	1			1																															1											
"KA.Dsd"	93	1557	125	1775	4	76	11	5	151	13	6	119	8	6	97	4	5	70	6	4	66	6	10	140	4	9	162	21	4	91	4	6	86	8	12	192	14	8	157	10	7	62	9	7	88	7
Total	93	1682				91			169			133			107			81			76			154			192			99			100			218			175			78			102	

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AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY DATA TOTAL

Table 18 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Data Total *(continued)*

					Participants																																									
	WKM "KA.Dsd"				**P01**			**P02**			**P03**			**P04**			**P05**			**P06**			**P07**			**P08**			**P09**			**P10**			**P11**			**P12**			**P13**			**P14**		
	Feedback Types				CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF	CF	WF	VF
WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	**Total**																																										
4																																														
9																																														
10																																														
13																																														
15																																														
16																																														
20																																														
22																																														
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44																																														
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51																																														
52																																														
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61																																														
62																																														
64																																														
68																																														
74																																														
76																																														
80																																														
81																																														
82																																														
83																																														
88																																														
"KA.Dsd" Total																																														

(Continued next page)

APPENDIX L (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY DATA TOTAL

Table 18 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Data Total *(continued)*

WKM CODE	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types CF	WF	VF	Total	Participants P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF
106	18	19		37	2			1			1	4		2	1		1	1		1			2		
91		27		27		4			1			4			6			1						2	
115		26	1	27			1					1			3									1	
105	11	4	3	18				1					1				2	2	1						
108	1	6	7	14						1	1	3	1											2	
90	11	2	1	14				1			1				1								1		
109	4	5	3	12		2					1							1					1		1
111		9	2	11								4			2										
94		8		8					3						1										
99	3	3	1	7		1		1															1		
112		4	2	6											1										
110	2	3		5	1			1																	
92	1	3		4					1																
104	1	1	2	4																		1			
102		3		3																					
96		2		2																				2	
101		1		1														1							
103		1		1																					
107		1		1																					
114		1		1																					
"KA.Dz" Total	52	129	22	203	3	7	1	5	5	1	4	16	2	2	15		3	6	1	1		1	5	7	1
	52	151				11			11			22			17			10			2			13	

WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	Total	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF	P14 VF
106	18	19		37	2	4		1	3		1	2		1			1	2					2	2	
91		27		27		1			3			5													
115		26	1	27		1			10			1						6			2			1	
105	11	4	3	18	1			1	1		1			2	1		1		1	1			1		
108	1	6	7	14			1					1	1			1			1			1			
90	11	2	1	14	1						1			3	1	1	1			1			1		
109	4	5	3	12		1	1										1				1	1	1		
111		9	2	11			1			1					2									1	
94		8		8											1			2						1	
99	3	3	1	7															1	1	2				
112		4	2	6														1	2					2	
110	2	3		5					1									1						1	
92	1	3		4													1	2							
104	1	1	2	4			1					1		1											
102		3		3											2			1							
96		2		2																					
101		1		1																					
103		1		1											1										
107		1		1		1																			
114		1		1																				1	
"KA.Dz" Total	52	129	22	203	4	8	4	2	18	1	3	10	1	7	8	2	5	15	5	3	5	2	5	9	
	52	151				16			21			14			17			25			10			14	

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APPENDIX L (continued)

AGGREGATED DATA DISTRIBUTION RESULTS BY DATA TOTAL

Table 18 (continued)

Aggregated Data Distribution Results by Data Total *(continued)*

WKM CODE	CF	WF	VF	Total
	WKM "KA.Dsd" Feedback Types			
93				
95				
97				
98				
100				
113				
"KA.Dz" SUM				
WKM **"z.zz"**	33	323	60	416
Total	33	383		
All WKM	178	2009	207	2394
Total	178	2216		

Participants

WKM CODE	P01 CF	P01 WF	P01 VF	P02 CF	P02 WF	P02 VF	P03 CF	P03 WF	P03 VF	P04 CF	P04 WF	P04 VF	P05 CF	P05 WF	P05 VF	P06 CF	P06 WF	P06 VF	P07 CF	P07 WF	P07 VF
93																					
95																					
97																					
98																					
100																					
113																					
"KA.Dz" SUM																					
WKM **"z.zz"**	4	25	3	1	34	8	4	31	1	7	22	3	1	8	3	1	10	2	2	34	8
Total		32			43			36			32			12			13			44	
All WKM	11	108	15	11	190	22	14	166	11	15	134	7	9	84	10	6	76	9	17	181	13
Total		134			223			191			156			103			91			211	

WKM CODE	P08 CF	P08 WF	P08 VF	P09 CF	P09 WF	P09 VF	P10 CF	P10 WF	P10 VF	P11 CF	P11 WF	P11 VF	P12 CF	P12 WF	P12 VF	P13 CF	P13 WF	P13 VF	P14 CF	P14 WF	P14 VF
93																					
95																					
97																					
98																					
100																					
113																					
"KA.Dz" SUM																					
WKM **"z.zz"**	1	29	8	1	9	2	2	18	6	1	30	7	1	16	6	2	22	2	5	35	
Total		38			12			26			38			23			26			40	
All WKM	14	199	33	7	118	7	11	114	15	20	230	23	14	188	21	12	89	13	17	132	7
Total		246			132			140			273			223			114			156	

APPENDIX M

REPORT ON PRIMARY DATA CONCENTRATIONS

Table 19

Report on Primary Data Concentrations

Writing-Knowledge Matrix Descriptors

"KA.D" Domain Numerical code subdomain	Total Data Items	Claimed Feedback	Actual Written Feedback	Actual Verbal Feedback
0.08 Word use and phrasing	433	8	408	17
23 spelling	157	7	141	9
24 diction	66	1	64	1
25 word form	64		64	
26 wrong word	44		44	
27 missing word	88		85	3
28 word overuse (repetitive)	14		10	4
1.04 Idea editing for publication/presentation	208	36	143	29
47 general proofreading conventions	158	31	100	27
48 documentation systems (if required)	11	4	6	1
49 style-sheet formats (e.g., numbers, headings, spacing, alignment, etc.)	39	1	37	1
1.01 Invention (creating)	187	5	147	35
36 creating new ideas	27		17	10
37 replacing existing ideas with new ideas	6		6	
38 clarifying existing ideas	154	5	124	25
0.10 Punctuation	87	0	87	0
31 end punctuation	12		12	
32 comma usage	64		64	
33 colon/semicolon usage	1		1	
34 quotation marks	9		9	
35 apostrophe usage	1		1	
1.02 Idea transcription	78	11	55	12
39 idea development	34	10	13	11
40 text/idea placement	15		15	
41 excess information included/redundancies	29	1	27	1
0.02 Sentence boundaries	52	0	52	0
5 combine sentence structure: compound	8		8	
6 combined sentence: complex	21		21	
7 separate combined ideas into multiple sentences	23		23	
2.02 Thesis statement	33	11	20	2
54 identified	19	11	8	
55 unable to identify	10		9	1
56 rework thesis	4		3	1
2.03 Support	24	0	21	3
57 examples	15		12	3
58 evidence	7		7	
59 explanation	2		2	

APPENDIX N

REPORT ON SECONDARY DATA CONCENTRATIONS

Table 20

Report on Secondary Data Concentrations

Writing-Knowledge Matrix Descriptors

"KA.D" Domain Numerical code subdomain	Total Data Items	Claimed Feedback	Actual Written Feedback	Actual Verbal Feedback
3.05 Quotations and phrases	66	3	62	1
86 frame/lead in	5		5	
87 in-text citation	52		51	1
88 bibliography cross-reference				
89 placement in text	9	3	6	
3.02 Distinguish reliabilty of sources (scholarly and nonscholarly)	51		45	6
75 recognizes scholarly sources	4		4	
76 recognizes non-scholarly sources				
77 recognizes the absence of a source (or that a source is necessary)	10		10	
78 unable to determine if information is correctly credited	7		7	
79 unable to identify if source is scholarly or not	30		24	6
2.06 Conclusions	13	1	10	2
65 summary	3	1	2	
66 throught-provoking	1		1	
67 under-developed	9		7	2
68 over-developed				
0.01 Sentence structure	11		11	
1 run-on	3		3	
2 fragmented	6		6	
3 comma spliced	2		2	
4 subject-verb interupted				
3.01 Construct persuasive academic argument	5		5	
72 evaluates credible sources	1		1	
73 analyzes credible sources	4		4	
74 synthesizes credible sources				