



The Effect of Corrective Feedback on the Writing Accuracy of Feedback Givers and Receivers

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Abstract

This quasi-experimental study set out to examine the effect of peer corrective feedback on feedback givers and receivers in L2 writing. The forms in focus were *a/an*, *the*, and the past tense. The study was conducted in an EFL classroom setting with 45 learners of English in three writing classes which served as the feedback givers, receivers, and the control group. Over four sessions of treatment, the givers reviewed the writing of the receivers with two functions of English articles (*a/an* as the first mention and *the* as the anaphoric reference) and simple past tense (regular and irregular) as the features in focus without receiving any comments from others on their writing. The receivers received feedback from peers, but were excluded from giving any feedback to others. The control group neither gave nor received any peer feedback. The study followed a pretest, immediate post-test, delayed post-test design. Statistical analyses run on the data obtained from a picture description task and a grammaticality judgment task indicated that the givers group improved significantly more than the receivers group and the receivers group, in turn, improved significantly more than the control group in terms of the forms targeted. The results obtained imply that learners' involvement in peer writing correction can result in significant L2 writing accuracy.

Keywords: peer review, feedback givers, feedback receivers, L2 writing

Introduction

The arguments made against written corrective feedback (WCF) in language practices have not prevented practitioners from employing it in their language classes, the theoreticians from hypothesizing for the beneficial effects of error correction, and the researchers from exploring different dimensions of it under various experimental conditions with varying research designs. Although the controversy about the effectiveness of WCF does not seem to be settled yet (Ferris, 2006; Truscott, 2007), research studies continue to investigate the potentiality of WCF in empowering language learners to enhance the quality of their writing.

One of the key tenets addressed in a substantial body of research studies conducted recently has been the source of corrective feedback (CF) in classroom settings (Russell & Spada, 2006). In traditional studies the main source of correction was assumed to be the teacher since learners were thought to lack the capacity to provide CF “accurate and reliable” (Long & Porter, 1985) enough to serve as ample input to peer CF receivers. As a new trend in the field of second language writing, peer review has generated increasing research interest over the last two decades (e.g., Cho & MacArthur, 2010; Diab, 2010; Hansen & Liu, 2005; Hu, 2005; Hu & Lam, 2010; Lundstorm & Baker, 2009; Mangelsdorf, 1992; Min, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2008; Zhu, 2001).

Studies conducted on the impact of peer feedback on L2 writing have offered insights into the nature of feedback types provided and their effects on enhancing the writing quality of feedback receivers. This study, however, intends to investigate the benefits of giving corrective feedback over receiving it on the writing accuracy. Furthermore, this study concentrates on focused corrective feedback.

Teacher feedback has been reported to play a dominant role in writing pedagogy (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2003; Sheen, 2007; Zacharias, 2007). Peer feedback also appears to serve as a useful source of feedback complementing teacher feedback (e.g., Hu, 2005; Rahimi, 2013; Rollinson, 2005; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1998). There now exist a large number of studies which have compared teacher feedback with peer feedback (e.g., Berg, 1999; Cho & MacArthur, 2010; Paulus, 1999; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; Zhang, 1995; Zhao, 2010), and in the majority of them, learners have expressed their preference for and appreciation of receiving feedback from teachers than receiving it from peers. Nevertheless, there are a good number of studies which have reported the beneficial effects of peer feedback on L2 improvement (e.g., Allison & Ng, 1994; Min, 2006; Peterson, 2003; Rahimi, 2013). There are times when peer feedback may serve better than teacher feedback (Caulk, 1994). Yang, Badger, and Yu (2006)

demonstrated that peer feedback induced a higher percentage of meaning-change revision while teacher-led revisions were limited to surface level; moreover, peer feedback correlated positively with student autonomy. In Tsui and Ng's (2000) study, participants expressed more confidence in the teacher comments due to their authority and experience, and judged the teacher comments to be more valid. Zhao (2010) found that in their redrafts, participants relied more on teacher feedback than peer feedback (74% against 46%).

Peer feedback appears to possess the potentiality to offer more autonomy to language learners (Yang et al., 2006). Autonomy is intimately associated with the view that language learning calls for the active involvement of learners. Placing emphasis on autonomy, Littlewood (1996) states that "since the overarching goal of *all* teaching is to help learners act more independently within a chosen range of domains, an appropriate methodology in language teaching is also, by definition, a methodology of furthering autonomy" (p. 428). The present study is an attempt to explore the potentiality of peer feedback in developing students' ability to become more "self-reliant" writers (Rollinson, 2005).

Collaborative peer review is an endeavor whereby students give comments on each other's writing in order to improve writing accuracy and quality through mutual scaffolding (Tsui & Ng, 2000; Zhu, 2001). Peer review is rooted in process writing theory which highlights multiple drafting, extensive revision, and pair work (e.g., Hu, 2005), collaborative learning theory which takes learning as a social activity taking place through interaction with peers (Bruffee, 1984); Vygotsky's (1978, as cited in Hanson & Liu, 2005) zone of proximal development also attaches importance to social interaction whereby individuals may enhance their competence by being scaffolded by a more capable individual.

A number of criticisms have been leveled at peer review; the first criticism refers to the fact that students have limited knowledge of the language rules, preventing them from offering straightforward and useful feedback, and also differentiating valid and invalid peer feedback (Leki, 1990; Tsui & Ng, 2000). The second problem is that when assigned to comment on their peers' writings, learners tend to deal primarily with surface errors and mistakes (Leki, 1990; Nelson & Murphy, 1992). Even when they are assigned to deal with some global aspects (e.g., content, organization, and idea development), L2 learners appear to give rather unclear comments (Liu & Sadler, 2003). Hostile view of reviewers towards their peers and giving over-critical comments on their writings can be labeled as the third set of problems associated with peer review

(Nelson & Murphy, 1992). Some may act negatively to their peers' comments (Villamil&DeGuerrero, 1994) and become over-defensive. Students hailing from varying cultural backgrounds might have different beliefs about what is good writing and accordingly they provide deviant comments in mixed groups (Nelson & Murphy, 1992).

Despite the concerns raised, peer review is argued to enhance a sense of audience (Keh, 1990; Mendonça& Johnson, 1994; Tsui& Ng, 2000), to make students understand their own writing ability better, to foster collaborative learning and "the ownership of text" (Tsui& Ng, 2000), to enhance self- and peer-assessment and relieve teachers' workload (Patri, 2002), to build writer confidence (Leki, 1990), and to help students read and redraft their own writings as a result of critical review (Rollinson, 2005).

Another set of studies have investigated the role of training students in practicing peer review (Berg, 1999; Hansen & Liu, 2005; Hu, 2005; Liou&Peng, 2009; Min, 2005, 2006) to account for some of the problems associated with peer review with overwhelmingly positive results. Berg (1999) explored the effects of trained peer comments through comparing a group of trained students as to giving feedback to their peers with a second group having no such training. Trained students were reported to show better skills in giving comments. Min (2005) also demonstrated that training learners as to giving comments led to significantly more comments which included more acceptable comments on global aspects of the language. In a follow-up study, Min (2006) focused on the effect of trained reviewers' comments on the types and quality of their peers' revised writings. Comments resulted in revisions which changed EFL students' writings for better.

In light of the findings of the studies reviewed above, we can argue that the capacity of training learners for bearing part of responsibility in giving comments on their peers' writings and also in rereading their own writings in their capacity as reviewers have to be realized and pursued more than ever.

The effectiveness of commenting on peers' papers on the reviewer's own writing ability has been addressed by a small number of research studies (e.g., Hu, 2005; Min, 2005; Lundstorm& Baker, 2009; Rollinson, 2005; Tsui& Ng, 2000).The majority of these studies have just addressed self-reported beliefs of the learners about the effects of peer review on their own writing ability (e.g., Hu, 2005; Min, 2005; Tsui& Ng, 2000). Tsui and Ng (2000), for instance, based on the data obtained from a questionnaire reported that reading the writings of peers benefited learners' writings better than the written comments did. In conferences with students, Hu (2005) asked the participants to explain why they judged peer review to be useful, and one of the common answers given was that "they learned much about writing by reading each other's writing

and by giving each other advice" (p. 339). Lundstorm and Baker (2009), however, explored the issue empirically; they indicated that "givers", i.e., the students who were assigned to review the peers' writings, showed significant improvements in their writing at the end of the semester compared to the "receivers", i.e., the students who were asked to revise their writings using the comments they received from their peers. Their finding also indicated that givers made more gains in global aspects of writing than receivers.

Focused CF has been reported to be far more influential than the unfocused type of CF (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Sheen, 2009; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). In the former, the teacher or researcher chooses to provide corrections to a limited set of error types which appear to haunt the writings of L2 learners involved. In the latter, however, attempts are made to address all errors comprehensively.

The superiority of focused CF over unfocused CF can be explained by the fact that when learners are corrected for a limited number of forms rather than for a wide variety of forms their attentional resources are channeled to those limited forms which can make the form-meaning connections more relevant (Pawlak, 2014). It is also more likely for learners to understand the gap between their current interlanguage and the target form (Swain, 1995) and make more efforts to fill in such a gap. When exposed to a limited set of errors, learners are offered a chance to understand the nature of errors committed and the corrections provided (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008) which can lead to better revisions by learners and subsequent L2 development.

The effect of focused written CF on learners' writing accuracy has already been examined by a good number of studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008a, 2008b, 2010a, 2010b; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007, 2010; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009), Ellis et al. (2008), for instance, found no significant difference between the students who received focused and those who received unfocused CF in terms of their writing accuracy. In Sheen et al.'s (2009) study, however, the group who received focused CF outperformed those who received unfocused CF. Their empirical evidence demonstrated that focused CF led to improved grammatical accuracy compared with unfocused CF which turned out to be of limited pedagogical value. These studies addressed the effect of teacher feedback on students' writing. In some peer review studies comments have primarily been focused on meaning or surface level (e.g., Berg, 1999; Leki, 1990; Liu & Sadler, 2003; Lundstorm & Baker, 2009; Paulus, 1999; Yang et al., 2006), or on global or local aspects of writing (Lundstorm & Baker, 2009). This study, however, examines the differing

effects of giving and receiving WCF on learners' accurate use of the definite and indefinite articles and the past tense.

Globally viewed, English articles have appeared to be among the troublesome structures for the English learners of various proficiency levels (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Butler, 2002; Liu & Gleason, 2002; Sheen, 2007; Shintani & Ellis, 2013). Considered as grammatical structures that convey extremely abstract notions which are difficult to infer from the input (DeKeyser, 2005), English articles seem to be ideal target forms for the purpose of examining the effect of instruction (Akakura, 2011). More specifically, they are one of the problematic areas for the learners whose first language article system does not have any common ground with the English articles system (Ansarin, 2004), and Persian is among the languages, which do not have any article system equivalent to English one (Faghih, 1997). As Faghih claims to be the case, acquisition of the English definite article *the* would be difficult for Iranian students, due to the simple fact that there is no single word in Persian corresponding completely to the English definite article *the*. Furthermore, in examining the effect of corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy, and the role of their mother tongue, Rahimi (2009) found that 59% of the learners' article errors resulted from the article exclusion. He related this phenomenon to the absence of explicit definite and indefinite articles in Persian. Rahimian (1995, as cited in Rahimi, 2009) noted that Persian speakers frequently drop the definite as well as indefinite articles before a noun when making English sentence, because, in most cases, the context is the element that makes the noun definite in Persian. Geranpayeh (2000) also pointed out the problematic nature of the English articles system for L2 learners of English, particularly for the native speakers of Persian; as he stated, errors in using the articles continue even to exist in the production of advanced learners and it might be subject to fossilization. Geranpayeh identified errors in using the articles as one of the most noticeable indicators of "foreigner language". By conducting contrastive analysis of English and Persian, he discovered that in English, the definite markers are used, whereas in Persian some specific marker is employed, and in English, definiteness/indefiniteness is governed by syntax, while in Persian, specific marker is governed by semantics. All these accounts serve as our justification for opting for the English articles in the current study.

The past tense is also judged to be challenging for learners of English (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998). Although it is presented early in textbooks (elementary or lower-intermediate), the past tense is not acquired early enough (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Makino, 1980); it is usually acquired after morphemes like articles, plural *-s*, and progressive *-ing*, and difficulties in gaining full control of this structure are demonstrated by learners, even at higher levels

(Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). For instance, the past tense marking is frequently omitted by them, or is used in inappropriate contexts (e.g., Johnson & Newport, 1989; Lardier, 1998; Pienemann & Johnson, 1987, as cited in Adams, Maria Nuevo, & Egi, 2011). Moreover, since the use of the regular past tense is associated with that of the irregular past tense, in interlanguage output, it seems rational to examine the two expressions of temporality in conjunction with each other (Adams et al., 2011).

Drawing upon Lundstorm and Baker's (2009) work, the current study aims at examining the effect of giving feedback to peers on the givers' own writing. Unlike their study, that focused on global aspects of writing, this study investigates the benefits of giving to versus receiving feedback from peers on the students' accuracy in using the English articles and simple past tense (regular and irregular forms).

The following research question was addressed in the current study:
Do the learners who give focused peer feedback improve their accuracy in using *a/an* for the first mention and *the* for the anaphoric reference and the simple past tense (regular and irregular forms) more than those who receive focused peer feedback on these forms?

Method

Participants

This study was conducted in three EFL intact classes selected from two English institutes in Ardabil, Iran. The classes comprised 52 pre-intermediate learners (32 male and 20 female), aged between 16 and 27. Azari-Turkish was their mother tongue, and Persian was their second and formal language. Seven learners were excluded from the present study due to their failure to participate in the treatment sessions. Consequently, the scores of 45 out of 52 participants were analyzed. The selected classes were labeled as focused feedback givers ($n = 15$), focused feedback receivers ($n = 12$), and the control group ($n = 18$). To get assurance as to the homogeneity of the groups, the students in the three classes were given a placement test.

Instructors

The current study involved two EFL teachers; one with seven and the other with five years of teaching experience. Both teachers were female and native speakers of Azari-Turkish, who were completing their MA degree in TEFL. They were selected due to their academic background as well as their willingness to participate. As with many other EFL teachers in Iran, the

teachers' existing feedback practice was collecting the students' compositions, correcting their errors, and returning them in the following sessions. We asked the teachers to introduce peer review to the experimental groups a few sessions prior to giving the pre-test by giving a brief explanation about how peer review is usually conducted, its different forms, and its goals and benefits, and presenting a summary of recent studies' findings about peer review that have revealed positive results for using peer review in L2 writing classes. Furthermore, they were asked to convince the students that, by practice, they could give appropriate feedback to their peers, and to make use of their peers' feedback too.

Instruments and Materials

Three testing instruments were employed in the present study including a placement test, a picture description task, and a grammaticality judgment task which are elaborated on below.

Placement test

The test which was administered to examine the participants' global proficiency (Solutions Placement Test, 2007) contained 50 multiple choice items.

Picture description test

The picture description task, which was employed as the pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test, contained eight sheets; each sheet included four sequential pictures with the prompt words written next to each picture. The picture description task was chosen as one of the measurement tools for this research, because it involves considerable number of occasions of using the English articles in the description of people, animals, or objects illustrated in each picture. Additionally, the participants were asked to use the past tense in describing the pictures, so we were able to measure their accuracy in terms of the past tense, too.

Grammaticality judgment task

To reduce the practice effect, two parallel tests were provided for the grammaticality judgment task as the pre-test and post-tests. The grammaticality judgment tasks contained 38 underlined noun phrases and verb phrases each. The participants were directed to decide whether the underlined parts of each sentence were grammatical or ungrammatical. They were also asked to correct all the ungrammatical parts. The underlined phrases were relevant to the use of

the two functions of the English articles and the regular and irregular forms of the simple past tense.

Additionally, the compositions which participants had to write during the term, and editing forms were used during treatment sessions. The editing forms prepared for the givers, included a table in which students were required to write the errors relevant to the use of the two functions of the English articles and the regular and irregular forms of simple past tense they found in the writings, specify their places, and make corrections required.

Procedure

This study followed a quasi-experimental design. As demonstrated in Figure 1, the current study took place over 11 weeks.

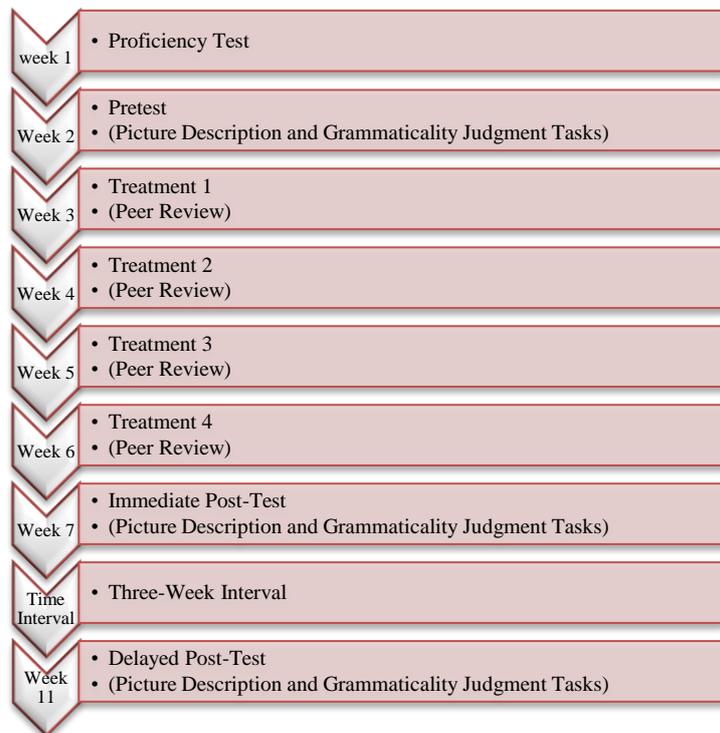


Figure 1. The design of the study

After the participants were given the placement test (week 1), the pre-test, which included the picture description task and grammaticality judgment task, was administered to the groups involved (week 2). In the picture description task, the participants were required to write the description of the sequential pictures of eight sheets in the past tense in 20 minutes. In the grammaticality

judgment task, they were directed to decide whether the underlined parts of each sentence were grammatical or ungrammatical, and make corrections to all of the ungrammatical ones. They were supposed to complete this test in 10 minutes. In week 3, the treatment sessions began.

Both the giver and receiver groups had four treatment sessions; that is, during four weeks, the givers edited the papers written by the receivers during the term, for four times (each time they were given different papers). They edited only the errors associated with the use of the English articles and the simple past tense. Before the givers began to edit the papers, copies of a sample paper corrected by the teachers were given to them as a model showing them how to make corrections to the papers. The participants were required to make direct correction. Direct correction, as explained by Ellis et al. (2008), involves indicating and correcting errors.

This group did not receive any feedback on their own writings. For four sessions, the receivers received the papers edited by the givers and revised them according to the corrections provided by the givers. This group did not give any feedback on their peers' writings, during the treatment period. Both groups completed the above tasks as the normal class requirement. The control group, however, had only their own regular classes.

In week 7, the immediate post-test, which included the picture description task and the grammaticality judgment task, parallel to the one used in the pre-test, was administered to all the three groups. After three weeks, the delayed post-test containing the same tests used in the immediate post-test was given to the participants.

Results

For scoring the students' completed picture description tasks, we provided an error-free story for each picture description sheet, then the total number of obligatory uses of the targeted forms in the sheets was determined. Each participant's accuracy was then computed by dividing the total number of correct uses of the target forms by the total number of target structures' obligatory uses in the task. The results were multiplied by 100. Scoring the grammaticality judgment tasks was simply done by dividing the correct answers by the total number of the underlined parts. For checking the inter-rater reliability on the scores, a second rater scored a sample of 20% of the total data coming equally from the pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test. The inter-rater reliability computed for the picture description task was .98.

Picture Description Task

Table 2 indicates the descriptive statistics for the picture description task.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Picture Description Task

Treatment	n	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
FG	15	45.46	14.20	81.00	14.38	85.07	14.10
FR	12	43.67	16.44	61.17	16.84	62.83	15.73
Cont.	18	44.17	10.06	47.83	10.63	48.78	10.51

FG = feedback givers; FR = feedback receivers; Cont. = control group

Figure 2 provides visual representations of the groups' means from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, and from the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test on the picture description task. As it is evident in Table 2, the givers (M = 81.00, M = 85.07) outperformed the receivers (M = 61.17, M = 62.83) and the receivers, in turn, made a better performance than the control group (M = 47.83, M = 48.78) across the immediate and delayed post-tests. The difference among the means of the three participating groups of the study across the immediate and delayed post-tests can be visually observed in Figure 2.

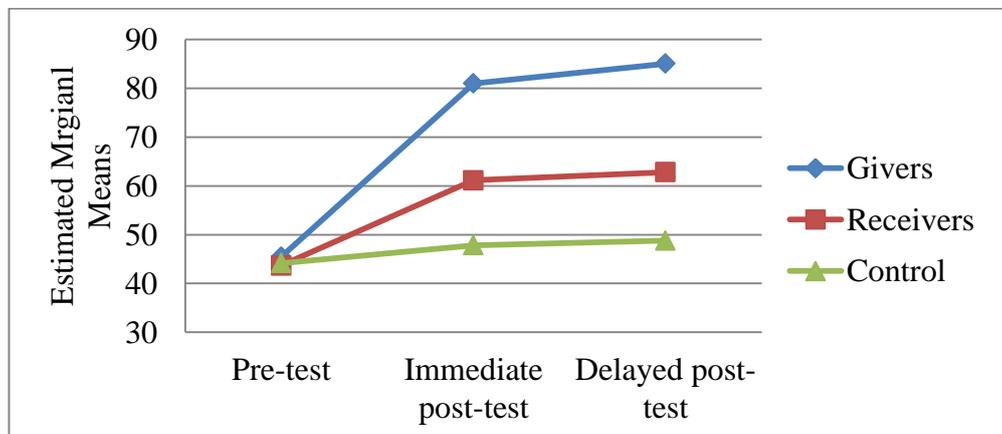


Figure 2. Means of the three groups on the picture description task

A split-plot ANOVA was run on the scores obtained from the three testing occasions for the picture description task. The results from the analysis yielded a significant main effect for time with a large effect size, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .88$,

and a significant interaction effect with a large effect size, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .63$ (Table3).

Table 3
Multivariate Tests for the Picture Description Task

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	η^2
Time	Wilks' Lambda	.118	1.759E2	2.000	47.000	.000	.882
Timex	Wilks' Lambda	.374	39.261	2.000	47.000	.000	.626
Group							

GR = give/receive

Moreover, the results indicated a significant main effect for the Groups, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .10$ (Table 4).

Table 4
Tests of Between-subject Effects for the Picture Description Task

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	η^2
Group	2743.047	1	2743.047	5.151	.028	.097

The post-ANOVA analysis (Bonferonni correction) coupled with the pairwise mean comparisons in the immediate and delayed post-tests (shown in Table 5) demonstrated a statistically significant difference among the giver, receiver, and control groups in the immediate and delayed post-tests, $p < .01$.

Table 5
Output for the Post-ANOVA Analysis (Picture Description Task)

Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
givers > receivers**	givers > receivers**
givers > control group**	givers > control group**
receivers > control group**	receivers > control group**

As indicated in Table 5, the givers were better than the receivers in the immediate and delayed post-tests, and the receivers, in turn, did better than the control group.

Grammaticality Judgment Task

As mentioned before, two parallel grammaticality judgment tasks were employed as the pre- and post-tests.

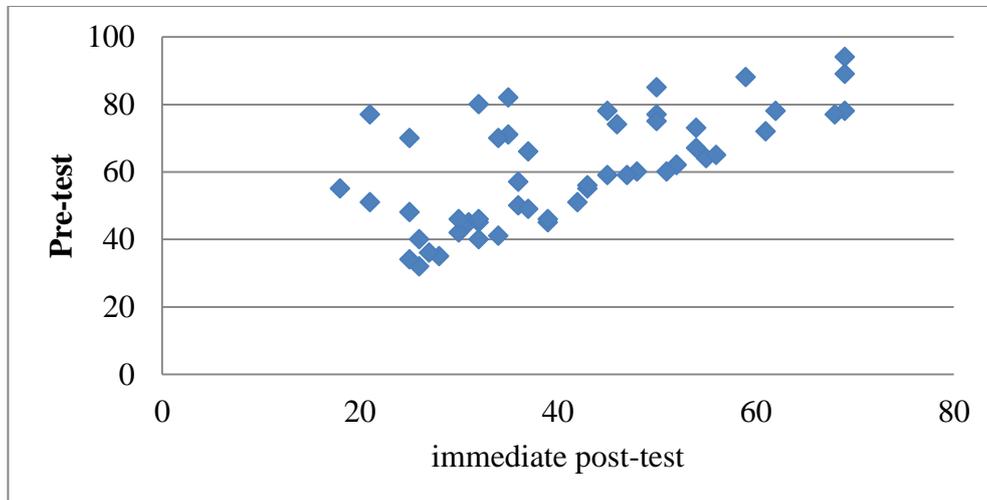


Figure 3. Scatter plot of the relationship between the scores obtained from the parallel tests

The scatter plot displayed in Figure 3 indicated that the scores obtained from the parallel grammaticality judgment tasks were related in a linear fashion. Further, more positive and strong relationship was evident in the figure.

Consequently, the relationship between the two sets of scores was examined using Pearson product-moment correlation. Table 6 shows the result of correlation for the parallel tests.

Table 6
Correlation for the Parallel Tests

		Pre-test	Post-test1
Pre-test	Pearson Correlation	1	.659
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Post-test	Pearson Correlation	.659	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

As indicated in Table 6, the strong and positive relationship between the scores of the two tests was confirmed statistically, $r = .659$. The correlation value was considered as strong with regard to Cohen's (1988) guideline, suggesting that $r = .5$ to 1.0 or $r = -.5$ to -1.0 is large enough in terms of a correlation's strength.

For the analysis of the data collected from the grammaticality judgment task, they were submitted to a split-plot repeated measures ANOVA.

Table 7
Descriptive Statistics for the Grammaticality Judgment Task

Treatment	Peer review	n	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
FG		15	42.47	15.79	76.47	10.70	77.13	12.08
FR		12	38.25	14.61	53.17	14.02	55.17	15.41
Cont.		18	41.67	12.22	45.72	13.06	48.61	12.61

FG = feedback givers; FR = feedback receivers; Cont. = control group

Table 7 presents the summary of descriptive statistics for the test.

Figure 4 represents the groups' means from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, and also from the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test on the grammaticality judgment task. As is obvious in Table 7, the givers ($M = 76.47$, $M = 77.13$) outperformed the receivers ($M = 53.17$, $M = 55.17$), and the receivers, in turn, made a better performance than the control group ($M = 45.72$, $M = 48.61$) across the immediate and delayed post-tests.

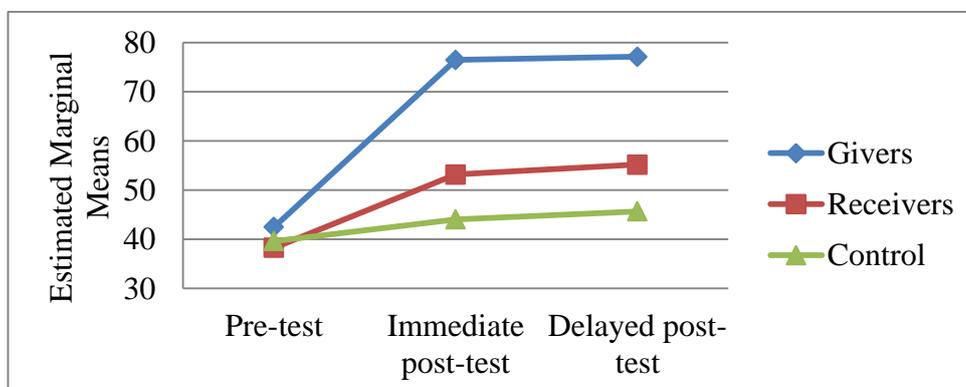


Figure 4. Means of the three groups on the grammaticality judgment test

The results obtained from the analysis revealed a significant main effect for time with a large effect size, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .85$ and a significant interaction effect, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .33$ (Table 8).

Table 8
Multivariate Tests for the Grammaticality Judgment Task

Effect	Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	η^2
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Time	Wilks' Lambda	.153	1.302E2	2.000	47.000	.000	.847
Time x Group	Wilks' Lambda	.673	11.396	2.000	47.000	.000	.327

Furthermore, the results indicated a significant main effect for group, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .09$ (Table 9).

Table 9
Tests of Between-subject Effects for the Grammaticality Judgment Task

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	η^2
Group	2346.712	1	2346.712	4.662	.036	.089

The results pertaining to the post-ANOVA (Bonferonni correction) merged with the pairwise mean comparisons in the immediate and displayed post-tests (shown in Table 10).

Table 10
The post-ANOVA Analysis (Grammaticality Judgment Task)

Post-test 1	Post-test 2
givers > receivers**	givers > receivers**
givers > control group**	givers > control group**
receivers > control group*	receivers > control group*

indicated that the difference among the groups involved appeared to be significant in the immediate and delayed post-tests, $p < .01$. Additionally, it was shown that the givers performed better than the receivers, and the receivers, in turn, performed better than the control group.

Discussion

The research question in this study asked whether the givers of focused peer feedback improve their accuracy in using the forms in focus more than the receivers of focused peer feedback. In light of the results obtained from the picture description task and grammaticality judgment tasks, it can be mentioned that students who gave focused peer feedback outperformed the students who received it in the immediate and delayed post-tests. The finding accords with that of Lundstorm and Baker (2009), suggesting that giving feedback to peers has the potentiality to be more effective than receiving it in improving students'

writing, and the findings of some other studies (e.g., Hu, 2005; Min, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000) pertaining to the effectiveness of reviewing peers' papers on the reviewer's writing improvement. This finding may be justified by the point that the students trained to be critical readers during peer review move towards being more self-reliant writers, who are able to self-criticize, and self-edit their own writings (Rollinson, 2005), and getting involved in providing peer feedback could lead students to be focused on some aspects of the language and develop some new structures (Diab, 2010).

Furthermore, givers' outperformance in the post-tests may be accounted for by their engagement in thinking more deeply during editing their peers' papers compared to the receivers. The reason behind this assumption is that the givers, who were required to give comments on their peers' papers, were assigned greater responsibility than the receivers were. The givers had to concentrate on the whole texts, and find erroneous use of English articles and the simple past tense. Thinking deeply during editing might trigger the editors to reflect on their own texts in the process of writing which could be referred to as reflection-in-action, what Schon (1987) identifies as monitoring and modification of actions in the process of learning.

In general terms, reflection can be regarded as a mental process of an individual's internal problem-solving activity (Yang, 2010). Learners are likely to reflect on their writing as they are assigned to revise their writings. This conscious reflection might change learners' texts for better (e.g., Denny, 2008; Storch, 2005). Another explanation for the finding could be what Knowles (1975) claimed about "proactive" and "reactive" learners; he asserted that the pro-active learners that take the initiative in learning learn more things and learn better than the reactive ones that sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught. This finding can also be linked to the positive relationship that is argued to exist between conscious knowledge and language learning (Ridley, 1997); Ridley takes conscious knowledge as "instances where learners cite a rule or deliberately apply their knowledge of the target language linguistic system as they try to solve a lexical or grammatical problem" (p. 225). Accordingly, in the current study, the givers deliberately applied their knowledge about English articles and simple past tense while editing their peers' papers. As mentioned above, due to the responsibility given to them, they had to stay fully conscious of the possible errors on the use of target forms in the whole process of reading the texts.

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Biodata

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