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Investigating the Role of Peer Feedback in Overcoming Grammatical Deficiencies in Writing

The Case of First Year Students at the Department of English at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of LMD Doctorate in Didactics of English Language

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Declaration

I, Sara BENMADANI, hereby certify that the present thesis entitled: “Investigating the Role of PF in Overcoming Grammatical Deficiencies in Writing: The Case of First Year Students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M’sila”, and supervised by Pr. Leila Djafri from Batna 2 University is my own work and that, it contains no material that has been previously submitted. I also declare that the present work is the result of my own investigation except where otherwise stated is cited and acknowledged by a full reference.

Mrs. Sara BENMADANI Date: December 15th, 2023.



Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

My dear parents,

My husband ***Ilyas*** *and my lovely children:* ***Amir***, ***Israa***, *and* ***Walaa***,

My brothers and sisters,

My nephews and niece,

All my colleagues and friends who are always by my side.

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Abstract

This study attempts to investigate the role of peer feedback (PF) in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing to first year students at the Department of English at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. In order to attain this aim, a mixed-methods approach was adopted to collect and analyse data. In effect, the study was carried out following three phases; pre-experimental phase, experimental phase, and post experimental phase. In the pre-experimental phase, preliminary data were collected to set the ground the for the experiment using two questionnaires administered to first year EFL students and Written Expression teachers at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. In the experimental phase, two intact groups (control group and experimental group) undertook a pre-test, progress tests, and a post-test in order to confirm or reject the stated hypothesis. That is, to test the effect of peer feedback in improving grammatical accuracy in writing. In the post experimental phase, to better explain the results obtained in the experiment, an interaction analysis method was carried out to analyse students' interactions during PF. Further, Focus Group Discussions were conducted to gain qualitative insights and attitudes from the participants of the experimental group about the efficacy of peer feedback and its potential outcomes on students. The results obtained have revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the level of grammatical accuracy they achieved in writing due to the implementation of PF. Besides, results have also indicated that incorporating grammar instruction in writing classes through peer feedback yields positive outcomes on students' writing accuracy. Based on these findings, a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations were suggested.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language; grammatical deficiencies; interaction; peer feedback; writing.

List of Abbreviations

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

BIAS: Brown Interaction Analysis System

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CC: Communicative Competence

CF: Corrective Feedback

CG: Control Group

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DM: Direct Method

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EG: Experimental Group

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

FoF: Focus on Forms

FonF: Focus on Form

GC: Grammatical Competence

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

IH: Interaction Hypothesis

L1: First Language

L2: Second/ Foreign Language

Ls: Learners

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

PF: Peer Feedback

PI: Peer Interaction

SCT: Socio-Cultural Theory

SD: Standard Deviation

Sig: Significance

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

t: T-test Value

TF: Teacher Feedback

TL: Target Language

UG: Universal Grammar

WCF: Written Corrective Feedback

$\bar{x}$: Mean Value

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

Σ: The Sum

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Resumé

الملخص

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Throughout the history of second/ foreign language (L2) instruction, the effective teaching and mastery of language four skills has long been the primary concern of researchers and instructors alike. Writing is mostly perceived the most difficult language skills. The ability to write effectively becomes increasingly a challenging task for students as the writing skill is considered not only a standardized communication system, but also an essential tool of learning and expressing thoughts, and ideas (Weigle, 2002).

The most debated issue in L2 writing instruction concerns much the role of grammar in writing. Students' lack of control of language forms is likely to be a major inhibitor of their writing effectiveness. The significance of grammar and error treatments in writing has undergone remarkable shifts. Suryani, et al., (2019) highlight the multiple practices accompanied with the shift in the teaching paradigms. Traditionally, students receive comments on their final products without being informed which parts are right or wrong. In this regard, the product approach to teaching writing focused on the structure and form of the final written output that the student produces. Yet, the process approach shifted from focusing on language to focusing on the learner who is assumed to exert a great control over their written performance, the way they perform it, and the way they evaluate it. Hence, the advent of the recently applied process approach to teaching writing extends beyond to focus on what instructors should do to boost learners' performance in a writing task.

Addressing the issue of correcting errors in L2 writing classroom has long been debated. Truscott (1996) considers that correction cannot decrease students' errors and that grammar correction ought to be abandoned. Similarly, Krashen (1982) asserts that the correction of errors hinders the acquisition in that it leads learners to focus solely on form rather than on meaning by avoiding the use of difficult structures. Therefore, correction is

likely to inhibit classroom communication. Conversely, Long (1990) contends that corrective feedback (CF henceforth) promotes L2 learning as he considers the treatment of errors an essential component in L2 writing (cited in Akbarzadeh, et, al., 2014).

To date, numerous investigators have largely confirmed the effectiveness of CF in improving language accuracy and development (Chaudron, 1988; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Saito, and Sato, 2013). According to Chaudron (1988), providing CF is an effective strategy to raise learners' awareness of the accuracy level of the target language (TL); eventually, learners will be able to correct their future structures. Additionally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) contend that consistent and useful CF makes language forms more salient to learners. Therefore, their attention is more likely to be directed to these forms which enable them to produce correct and accurate output. Furthermore, Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) argue that CF role is pivotal in promoting L2 growth and development. They claim that CF is pivotal in the kind of scaffolding that teachers need to provide to learners to promote on-going L2 growth. However, the question being asked is that: Does CF serve long-term or short-term effects on learners' ability to produce accurate and effective language?

The provision of CF has two major functions. Feedback can either be formative focussing on learners' learning, or summative focusing on learners' outcomes or their production of language by merely pointing at their areas of weaknesses. As far as writing is considered, teachers' feedback is thought of to serve summative purposes, while its formative potentials are still under-utilized (Campell and Fauster, 2013). Hence, in order to shift from the summative practices which have short-term outcomes (Ferris, 2012) towards the more formative ones, peer feedback in writing classes is judged potential for it engages students in meaningful negotiations of language forms which are more likely to be internalized in students' language system.

According to Ellis (1994), language is an outcome of negotiations of meaning and social interactions. In the same vein, Mackey and Goo (2010) contend that when CF is provided in an interactive environment is truly an effective strategy. It is extensively claimed that interactional feedback (IF) drives L2 development. In this respect, it is argued that most of the grammatical repairs result mainly from negotiation, and that negotiation is the essential promoter of grammatical repairs (Akbarzadeh, 2014). According to Long (1996), negotiation of meaning triggers interactional feedback (IF) which in turn leads to acquisition. It works as a coordinator between input and learner's cognitive capacities namely attention, and output.

As far as negotiation on the errors made by learners is concerned, Nassaji (2007) argues that IF is more successful than the non- interactional. It boosts students to know and then be able to correct their L2 writing errors. He concluded that IF is more effective in promoting L2 accuracy in writing performance in as much as students become engaged in feedback processes. Hence, the gist of the current study is built upon the arguments stated above which clearly state that IF be it provided by a peer or a tutor is very effective in promoting L2 writing accuracy (Akbarzadeh, 2014). Therefore, it attempts to investigate the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing.

2. Statement of the Problem

Writing is the most challenging language skill that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students are required to master effectively by the end of their academic instruction. Typically, success in writing requires the involvement and manipulation of various fundamental factors including the correct and accurate use of language forms. That is, the ability to use grammatical structures accurately and appropriately in a written production is one of the exigencies of an effective writing. Nonetheless, one of the main hindrances behind students' writing accuracy is the poor mastery of language forms in the context of writing. In the meantime, presenting grammatical forms in isolation does not improve the accuracy and

effectiveness of students' writing. In this regard, it is important to integrate grammar instruction within the teaching of writing in order to promote students' writing accuracy.

In the Algerian EFL context, particularly at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila, students manifest major deficiencies when they come to express themselves through writing. Hence, WE teachers should find the optimal ways to pursue students with formative feedback on their grammatical errors which guides them all over the steps of the writing process. This feedback is likely to incorporate grammar instruction in its tenors. To realise this end, this study seeks to investigate the potentials of PF in overcoming students' grammatical deficiencies in writing.

3. Aims of the Study

In this study, the researcher attempts to illuminate the role of PF in overcoming students' grammatical deficiencies in writing. On this basis, some specific objectives have been set in the following way. First, the study seeks to determine the extent to which PF is considered in WE classes. Second, it aims to determine the extent to which PF can reduce students' grammatical deficiencies in writing. Third, it aims at testing the impact of PF on students' grammatical accuracy in writing. Fourth, it also seeks to find out how PF fosters grammatical accuracy in writing.

4. Research Questions

This study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent is PF implemented in WE classes?
2. To what extent can PF overcome students' grammatical deficiencies in writing?
3. What is the impact of PF on students' grammatical accuracy in writing?
4. How can PF contribute in reducing grammatical errors in writing?

5. Research Hypotheses

On the basis of the aforementioned questions, the following hypotheses are drawn:

H_0: PF cannot help EFL students overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing.

H_1: If PF is used in WE classes, EFL students will overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing.

6. Research Methodology

6.1. Research Approach, Design, and Data Gathering Tools

The ultimate aim of the present study is to probe the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Hence, in order to reach answers to the research inquiries, the appropriate approach is followed. In research methodology, there are two fundamental approaches; qualitative approach and quantitative approach. As for the current study, it opts for a mixed-methods approach which incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to obtain data that is likely to worthen the results of the study, widen its scope, and increase its validity and credibility.

Initially, quantitative data are gathered by means of two questionnaires oriented to First Year EFL students as well as EFL teachers at English Department at Mohammed Boudiaf University of M'sila. Besides, an experiment is conducted involving pre-, progress, and post- tests conducted before, during, and after the treatment respectively. The qualitative data, on the other side, are gathered through analysing students discourse (interaction) that goes on in PF. In addition, Focus Group Discussions (FGD) are held to support the interaction analysis data and to gain further views, opinions and attitudes that students are likely to hold on the adoption of PF in writing. By doing so, the role of PF in overcoming grammatical

deficiencies in writing will be investigated thoroughly relying on various forms and sources of data.

As for the research design, the current study falls into the explanatory sequential design. First, quantitative data are collected to investigate the impact of PF on students' grammar accuracy in writing. Then, on the basis of the results obtained, a qualitative explanation is needed to further elucidate how PF contributes in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. The qualitative results yielded from the analysis of students' interaction serve in explaining the quantitative results; that is, how PF contributes in enhancing students' writing accuracy.

6.2. Population and Sampling Techniques

The population of students in the present study encompasses first year students of English at the University of M'sila. In the academic year 2022 – 2023, the total number of first year students was 237 students assigned by the administration into eight (08) groups. The sample that has been selected for the current study consists of sixty (60) first-year students allotted into two (02) groups. The number of students is thirty (30) in each group. One group forms the experimental group (EG) and the other forms the control group (CG). As far as sampling procedure is concerned, the study followed a non-probability sample design where convenience selection of participants is done. In fact, the researcher decided to carry out the study with the available groups (intact groups) already pre-selected by the administration, and assigned to the researcher.

As for teachers' sample, the teachers targeted in this study are teachers of Written Expression (WE) course at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The researcher followed non-probability sampling in terms of purposive sampling to target

only this category of teachers from among all EFL teachers at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The number of WE teachers involved in the present study is nine (09) teachers.

7. Significance of the Study

This study is notably significant in that it benefits not only first year students at the University of M'sila, but rather the Algerian EFL learners from taking an advantage of PF in writing classes. Given the critical role of PF in writing instruction, students increased involvement in feedback practices is of dual significance. Firstly, because most of feedback that students receive is teacher-centered, a growing interest is thus directed toward learner-centered feedback. Secondly, the key point in PF is students' interaction. In addition to indulging students in the learning act and maximizing their TL use, interaction allows students to benefit from grammar instruction within the writing course through negotiating form which eventually increases their writing accuracy. That is, PF is significant in that it allows for the incorporation of explicit grammar instruction in writing classes. This incorporation is likely to result in a more accurate writing.

8. Thesis Presentation

This thesis falls into four chapters:

The first chapter is concerned with a review of the related literature to the current study. It is sectioned into five sections displayed consecutively as follow: The first section introduces the writing as an important skill to be perfectly mastered adequately and effectively by students by the end of their academic instruction. First of all, it provides an overall picture about the writing skill and its nature. It also provides an overview of the influential approaches dealing with the teaching of writing. Further, the chapter presents the stages elaborated in writing. It also discusses theoretically the importance of writing in EFL

classroom, and the difficulties encountered in L2 writing. Along with this chapter, an exclusive emphasis is placed on assessing and responding to students' writing.

The second section delves into the importance of interaction in EFL classroom. First, it expounds the concept of interaction. Then, it gives an account to the theoretical perspectives that support its contributive role in EFL classroom. Further, the chapter displays the key constructs of interaction namely comprehensible input, negotiation for meaning, negotiation of form, interactional feedback, and modified output. It also tackles the different types of interaction that are likely to take place in an EFL classroom including teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, and small group interaction.

Section three comprehensively deals with the importance of grammar instruction in L2 classrooms. Firstly, the concept of grammar is discussed with reference to the way various scholars conceive it. It also demonstrates the place that grammar holds in a number of teaching approaches and exposes instructional methods to teaching grammar. The value of grammar instruction in L2 teaching and learning is also highlighted. As grammar is not restricted to a mere collection of rules related to static structures in the language, it rather involves an interaction and complementarity with meaning and function. In that, the grammar dimensions; form, meaning, and use are displayed in this chapter. Further, the chapter tackles sources of the grammatical errors encountered in communication namely in writing.

Section four is built upon the main variable in the current study. First, it addresses the notions of feedback and CF in the context of second/foreign language classroom. Then, it highlights the theoretical underpinnings of the process of feedback. Following this subsection, the chapter displays types of feedback and the role it plays to enhance second/foreign language learning. Finally, the chapter spots the light on PF as a currently implemented

practice, its advantages, and how it can enhance L2 learning in general with a particular reference to L2 writing.

The last section in this chapter aims at shedding the light on the research studies related to the current study. Therefore, it seeks to: first, provide an overview of the studies that contributed in shaping the overall framework and delineating the problematic of this study; second, identify the research gap and what does the current study try to add to the existing body of literature.

Chapter two introduces the methodological aspects involved in this study. That is, how the research is conducted. First of all, it discusses the various research paradigms, approaches, and designs that suit the current study. This chapter also describes the target population and the suitable technique followed in determining sample. Further, the data gathering tools and analyses procedures used are all introduced and explained.

Chapter three presents and analyses the data gathered throughout all the phases of the presents study. In this respect, the data obtained from both teachers' and students' questionnaires will be displayed in details. Furthermore, the chapter also presents the findings the researcher has yielded from the experiment and the interaction analysis method. Data are displayed sequentially with regard to the design that the researcher followed.

The fourth and last chapter in this thesis is dedicated to a general discussion of the results yielded from the different data gathering tools used in this study. It also provides answers to the research questions raised in the forefront of the stydy and verifies the research hypothesis. Finally, it ends with implications, recommendations, limitations, and suggestions for further research.

9. Operational Definitions

- **Grammar**: Grammar is the conventional system that governs language and language use. It refers to the way words and sentences are put together in a correct way to form larger stretches of language.
- **Grammatical Accuracy**: Students' ability to use correct and accurate language forms in writing to fulfil communicative goals.
- **Interaction:** Interaction means the conversations that students take part in in the classroom for learning purposes.
- **Writing:** Writing is the representation of one's thoughts and ideas through the production of correct and accurate sentences to form larger stretches of discourse. It involves the manipulation of one's cognitive processes in order to exert control over structure, organisation, content, coherence, and cohesion.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Section One: The Writing Skill

Introduction

1.1. Definition of Writing

1.2. Nature of the Writing Skill

1.3.Approaches to Teaching Writing

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1.5.The Writing Process

- 1.5.1. Planning
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1.9. Assessing Writing

Conclusion

Introduction

The overall aim of L2 instruction is to enable students to communicate effectively in oral or in written forms alike. Writing is one the four skills that students are required to master effectively at the end of their L2 instruction. It is one of the pillars that students, teachers, and researchers alike have to pay much consideration.

Attaining a proficient level in writing is a universal goal. However, this requirement is highly challenging particularly for L2 learners who constantly encounter difficulties in major areas namely grammar, spelling, punctuation, etc. when attempting to produce effective, well-thought, accurate piece of writing.

This section, therefore, attempts to provide a comprehensive picture about the writing skill and its nature. It also sheds the light on influential approaches to teaching writing. Besides, the section deals with the stages elaborated when writing is processed. It also discusses theoretically the importance of writing in EFL classroom, and the difficulties encountered in L2 writing. Along with this section, an exclusive emphasis is placed on assessing and responding to students' writing.

1.1.Definition of Writing

The miscellaneous definitions of writing ability established in literature are stated differently by different people in different situations. For some researchers, writing is no more than the graphic representation of the spoken discourse. Others view writing from a deeper point of view referring to the cognitive system involved during the process of composing. Others simply consider writing as a way of communicating ideas and expressing oneself.

One definition which is stated by Flower and Hayes (1981), considers writing as a process which typically involves the incorporation of various thinking processes which are later on organized and orchestrated by the students during the act of writing (p. 366). In this sense, writing involves cognition which clearly requires thinking processes, in addition to the appropriate language needed in composing a text. Similarly, Bell and Burnaby (1984, as cited in Nunan, 1989).), note that the act of writing is cognitively a very complex manner of expressing thoughts and ideas because the writer has to exert control over a number of variables simultaneously. Obviously, in the process of writing, the writer manipulates his cognition in order to demonstrate control a set of variables including content, structure, vocabulary, mechanics, in addition to coherence and cohesion of the produced text.

Another definition which is set by Byrne (1988) asserts that writing is more than producing a set of the graphic representations, like where speakers produce sounds. It involves arranging the symbols in a particular way following a set of regularities to form words which will be later on arranged to sentences. Such sentences need to be, further, linked and arranged following a specific organisation and joined together in a particular ways in order to form a coherent whole, forming what is called “a text”. (p. 1).

Witte (1992) thoroughly suggests a comprehensive understanding of what writing is. He points out at the problems teachers as well as researchers are likely to encounter. He also

emphasizes on engaging learners in writing tasks which are meaningful, and social in nature, with the intent of provoking interactions among learners during their performance of tasks (cited in Tribble, 1999).

According to Widdowson (1978), writing is the representation of the graphological and grammatical mechanism of the language in a visual way. That is to say, writing is the generation of sentences to be read and understood. However, the act of writing extends beyond producing correct sentences. It involves transforming them via the visual medium to create larger discourse where each of sentences holds on a particular status as a part of the whole discourse.

Considering the above stated definitions, writing involves more than placing words together, it also involves the manipulation of the individual's cognitive functions in order to exert control over structure, organisation, content, coherence, and cohesion.

1.2. Nature of the Writing Skill

Writing skill is one of the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is considered as an outcome of the cognitive efforts of the writer. Yet, it is not a mere product of an individual; in the sense that writing is an act that is culturally and socially affected (Weigle, 2002). In this regard, Hamp-Lyons and Kroll (1997, as cited in Weigle, 2002) point out that writing occurs principally within a context which aims to fulfil a particular aim, and that is appropriately directed to a particular audience (p. 8). Similarly, Hayes (1996, p.5) considers writing social in nature. It is a social activity that occurs within a social context which involves what is to be written, how it should be written, and to whom it is intended. These intentions are followed by a set of social conventions which direct individuals' social interaction (cited in Weigle, 2002)

It is necessary to identify the social context for any written task since any written genre is primarily affected by the context and other notable factors. So, Writing cannot be divorced from its social and cultural vacuum in which it occurs and used (ibid).

Hyland (2003) looks at writing to be the outcome of grammatical and lexical knowledge that the writer has acquired. The manipulation of this knowledge is likely to result in modals of writing similar to the modals provided by the instructor. Accordingly, advocates of this view grammar as the power which reinforces to produce correct and well-formed patterns of sentences. That is to say, achieving a good level in grammar will likely result is the production of well-structured texts.

Mustada and Silva (2010) regard writing as a way of expressing oneself and communicating ideas in addition to signing and speaking. Substantially, writing extends beyond being a simple depiction of speech as it was believed. Writing involves the manipulation of complex cognitive processes that work together for the purpose of reaching a full accurate and appropriate text (Bitzer, 1986, as cited in Mustada and Silva, 2010). On the other side, Silve (2010) views that writing in a complex system of relationships wherein the writer, the reader, and the text are closely interrelated.

Writing entails the application and manipulation of certain strategies and relations that cover the discursive system of the writer to achieve an acceptable level of idea development (Mustada and Silva, 2010).

Hyland (2009) points out that writing encompasses both cognitive functions and personal expressions. Typically, writing does not mean correct grammar solely, but it extends to reach creativity, as well as discovery. Teachers occupy a crucial role in facilitating the writing process by providing support and encouragement

Weigle (2014) views writing ability from two distinctive perspectives: as a cognitive ability, that is a set of competences and understandings that the individual possesses, and as a means of communication within a particular setting to achieve a set of goals. Both perspectives are important to be treated when teaching writing.

The first perspective holds that L2 writing is regarded as some combinations of the ability to write and the ability to master L2 proficiently. For an effective mastery of the writing ability, it is necessary for writers to plan, monitor, and revise their products. Writers need to bare in their minds to fully control language structures to reach a clear and accurate texts.

The alternative perspective holds that writing is socially and culturally embedded. It involves a number of literacy practices commonly dealt with in a specific. From this perspective, good writing does not focus only on improving language proficiency or manipulating various techniques for composing and revising. It also takes into consideration the larger context where it will be used. This implies that written productions do not exist in isolation; rather, they are shaped and produced in response to other pre-existing texts.

In summary, both the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives show that writing instruction should incorporate knowledge of lexis and grammar along with the knowledge of the social and cultural settings in which the text is to be delivered.

1.3.Approaches to Teaching Writing

Throughout the history of teaching writing, various approaches have been adopted. Different scholars have energetically favoured one approach over the other, while in fact the successful methodology of writing needs to integrate insights of different approaches to meet the requirements and demands of teachers, learners, and class settings as well.

1.3.1. The Product Approach

The product approach to teaching writing has been described straightforwardly by Picas (1982a as cited in Badger and White, 2000). Accordingly, writing is typically related to knowledge about language with greater focus placed on the accurate choice of vocabulary, grammar, as well as cohesive devices.

Following the product approach, the act of writing is achieved through familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. In the familiarization stage, learners are intended to be made cognizant of particular features of the text. In the controlled as well as guided writing, the learners with constant practise of the skills tend to achieve an increasing level of freedom until they get ready for free writing (Badger and White, 2000). In this regard, writing under the product-based approaches is regarded as essentially focusing on language structure which is principally an outcome of replication of model texts introduced by the teacher.

Traditionally, in ESL/ EFL programs, instructing L2 writing has typically been equated with the teaching of grammar and sentence structure. That is, learners will write accurately if they quintessentially master grammatical patterns. This view on writing stems from the audiolingual theory principles which consider writing as the written manifestation of the spoken form of language. In the audiolingual approach, speech is considered primary, while writing acts to reinforce speech (Raimes, 19983, as cited in Richards, 1990); writing is thus the groundwork for oral fluency.

Hence, the primary focus of the product approach be it in L1 or in L2 is on the form and structure of the final written product rather than on the way of individual's writing. According to this viewpoint, the learner becomes more proficient in dealing with complex writing tasks as a result of getting a more proficient L2 level. In this regard, students exert a

greater control over discourse and rhetorical modes (Richards, 1990). A distinguishing feature of the product approach is its stress on accuracy. Nunan (1989) points out that teachers who adopt the product approach seek to obtain a correct end product. In the same respect, McDonough and Shaw (1993) argue that product approach can be considered as traditional way of teaching writing wherein the main focus is on corrections and reinforcement of grammar (cited in Mohhamad Nadeem and Nazir, 2016).

1.3.2. The Process Approach

While the product approach treats the ends rather than the means, and focuses on the language used in writing instead of the way by which writers perform writing, the way students come to compose their texts is relatively neglected (Richards, 1990). Writing classrooms under the process approach shift their focus from aiming at producing correct language writing to focus more on learners and the way they proceed writing. Learners' writing becomes thus more meaningful. Students build up a sense of independence as they work collaboratively with their fellows. Writing can now be understood and regarded from a distinct angle other than from the way that the product orientation allowed for.

The focus of the process approach in writing instruction becomes on the writer as an autonomous text creator. Further, it tackles the issue of the role of educators should to assist learners in their writing assignments. This viewpoint highlights the contribution of mental capacities as essential components in writing, in addition to the emphasis on developing the ways of students' planning, defining rhetoric related problems, and finding solutions to the problems (Hyland, 2003).

Recently, the teaching of writing has witnessed a shift towards the process of writing in itself where fundamental questions were raised. These questions dealt fundamentally not only with purpose and audience, but outstripped to how learners write, how to start. What

students actually write may not the end product, but rather it may be the realisation of the first ideas which come to their minds; this is, their first drafts. What students write on papers is not necessarily the ideal realisation of their thoughts. As students write, they are given opportunities to review, receive feedback, and find out new ideas and patterns throughout the different stages of building a text; while planning, drafting, and revising. Teachers who favour the process perspective focus on two key elements; time to experiment evolving ideas and the feedback necessary for both form and content (Raimes, 1983).

According to Weigle (2014) the process approach to writing instruction is currently dominating. It tends to pursue students throughout the multiple writing phases encompassing pre-writing, drafting, and revising. In the classroom, the realisation of the process paradigm is manifested in the teacher's as well as peers' intervention during the construction of texts (Susser, 1994, as cited in Polio and Williams, 2009).

According to Tribble (1996), process approach to writing instruction emphasises creativity and unpredictability of writing. In their writing, students do not have to follow model texts to be copied. Rather, students plan for their own writing, use their own structures, and develop an ability to evaluate their own texts. By the end, students get their unique versions. In this approach to writing, heavy emphasis is placed on linguistic abilities like planning and drafting. On the contrary, little attention is directed to linguistic knowledge like grammar and structural patterns.

In the same line of thought, Flower and Hayes (1981) and Bayat (2014) note down that the writing process is quintessentially built upon the realisation of the writer's cognitive processes. In this regard, they contend on certain key points that shape the process orientation of writing. One main issue is that writing as a process is not a linear. Besides, the cognitive processes involved when writing are interrelated. Further, the developing system of the

writer's mental activities is goal-oriented which guides the writer all over the process of composing.

Despite that this methodical approach to writing instruction has many positive points, it is limited in that it does not cater students' needs who must write for readers which are likely to be unfamiliar to him/ her, Particularly for those who hold certain expectations about the text, and what is intended for (Tribble, 1996).

1.3.3. The Genre Approach

In literature, genre is used to refer different meanings (Martin, 1996). Globally, it is regarded as the recurrent or distinctive written or spoken features that fulfil the demands of the context. Arguably, genre pioneers accord that genres are goal-directed and socially-driven. Written genres cannot be identified unless they occur within a particular setting in addition to being outputted for particular socially determined goals. Accordingly, genre-based instruction assumes both linguistic and rhetorical underpinning of various annals in order to make the process of writing easier and more facilitated.

This approach has recently been accredited in the pedagogy of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) wherein students are being explicitly provided with explicit instruction concerning both discursive and linguistic requirements of various disciplines in terms of forms of writing specified (Polio and Williams, 2019).

Hyland (2004) posits that genre-based pedagogy' main interest is put on what learners do when they generate ideas. Knowledge of certain concepts allows writing teachers to recognise the categories of texts that students are to generate in their L2.

Genre-based pedagogy was responsively emerged partly as reaction to process pedagogy that often views writing as an isolated system that occurs within the individual

learners' brains, and also as outcome of the new beliefs of literacy which consider writing not just as a cognitive ability, but rather a social and purposeful process. That is, the emergence of genre-based policies was one of the outcomes of communicative trends. Hyland (2004) displays a number of merits of genre-based pedagogy when compared to process pedagogies. Most importantly, genre-based instruction is favoured for its explicitness and systematicity; what students are to acquire and how to get them achieve their goals are quite determined from the outset. That is, student writers are likely to clearly know from the beginning what are they going to learn and how are they going to achieve this purpose. Besides, the genres chosen to be instructed are needs-based. Genre scholars, namely Hyland (1990, 2004), Christie (1989) and Feez (2002) assume that incorporating genre-besed explicit instruction is likely to result in a more powerful written products (Cited in Hyland, 2004). The most significant advantages of genre teaching are summarised in the following way:

- **Explicitness:** Teaching genres clearly identifies what to be learned, provides an understanding of how to structure texts with a justification on the way they are structured with.
- **Systematicity:** Another advantage is that a genre teaching offers an understanding of both organisational and lexicogrammatical patterns which lead to the creation of well-formed and effective texts.
- **Needs-based:** Typically, genre based instruction is grounded on the writer' needs.
- **Supportive:** Genre based instruction supports teachers and assists them to scaffold students' learning with knowledge which helps them to be skilful with various genres.
- **Empowering:** Leads students to powerfully manage various rhetorical as well as linguistic devices to get access to the most robust genres.

- **Critical:** Knowledge of different genres provides students with the ability to reflect on the different ways of processing and constructing written texts.
- **Consciousness' raising:** Genre pedagogies contribute in raising teachers' awareness of the importance of professional development as students' needs are constantly growing and evolving.

Dudley-Evans (1977) determines three steps that genre based writing has to be processed accordingly. Firstly, introduce and analyse the target genre. Secondly, set learners to carry out tasks which in which they manipulate related forms of language. Finally, set learners to produce a parallel text on the basis of what has been presented and identified (cited in Badger and White, 2000).

Teaching writing following the lens of genre theory has also been challenged. Many think that genres cannot be divorced from their social context and introduced in classroom settings (Freedman and Adam, 2000; Adams and Artemeva, 2002, as cited in Polio and Williams, 2009). Arguably, genres should be firmly rooted in their in-born contexts to ensure their successful learning and manipulation.

Another criticism posits that genres are mere language containers. Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) agree with this view. They contend that a number educators regard that genre instruction is likely to provide learners with ready-made genres to be followed and imitated. Therefore, it symbolises traditional approaches in nature. Also, genre theorists consider the fact that genres do in fact constrain learners' choices (cited in Polio and William, 2009).

On the basis of what has been mentioned, it can be summed up that the successful writing methodology needs to integrate insights from product, process, and genre approaches. That is to say, these three approaches are complementary in a way that each approach seeks to potentially fill in the gaps of another. In this regard, White and Arndt (1991) suggest some techniques in this regard. They propose pedagogical techniques like group activities, where

input is provided by the teacher in classroom settings. Also, adopting a writing material may work in some process-based classes (cited in Badger and White, 2000). What is worthy to state is that the effective teaching of writing can never be restricted to the implementation of only one approach.

1.4. Key Issues in Writing

Language does not function in isolation. By virtue of that, it functions as a text, in actual situations of use. Genuinely, writers are constantly looking at making their writings seem meaningful and unified for readers.

1.4.1. Coherence

The concept of "coherence" is used to refer to the total semantic structure and unity of a text. Coherence is an essential requirement of a written text. To achieve coherence in writing, it is necessary to sentences to be held together, in the sense that moving from one sentence to the next must be smooth and logical. That is each sentence should flow smoothly into the following one (Oshima and Hogue, 2006). Coherence is an essential construct in writing texts. According to Canale (1982), in order to get coherent texts, some underlined conditions need be met:

- **Directiveness:** This can be achieved through the development of ideas in an order.
- **Incessancy:** Through the continuity in stating ideas.
- **Balance:** Emphasis should be provided in a balanced manner to each idea.
- **Completeness:** Present ideas that sufficiently contribute in completing the reader's thought.

The notion of coherence is embedded in the structural organization of the text, known as the schema that the text represents. Various forms of writing, such as narratives, instructions, reports, and business letters, exhibit distinct text structures. The assessment of their appropriateness and coherence is determined by the degree of alignment between the genre and the expected text structure for that particular genre (Richards, 1990).

According to Oshima and Hogue (2006), coherence is best achieved through repetition of the key terms; consistency in using pronouns; the use of transitions to join ideas, and link ideas logically.

1.4.2. Cohesion

Cohesion means the liking relationships that are directly displayed in the surface structure of the construct. These relations of meanings existing within a construct are likely to define it as a text. Accordingly, Halliday and Hasan (1976) posit that cohesion is established when a particular element in the discourse is understood on the basis of another element. Each presupposes the other, to the extent that effective decoding is only possible by referring to it. In such instances, a cohesive relationship is established (p. 4). That is to say, cohesion happens when the interpretation of one element is dependent on the other or when one element presupposes the other. Within the same regard, the text is considered cohesive when elements of the text are linked together appearing in a meaningful way for the reader.

Cohesion can be lexical and grammatical. It is attained by employing diverse lexical and grammatical connections among elements within sentences in the text. Five classes of cohesive clues are distinguished: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

- **Reference:** By reference items can be interpreted by making reference to something else to indicate that the information is to be retrieved from elsewhere. These items are

personals, demonstratives, or comparatives. Reference items may be exophoric or endophoric. The latter may further be anaphoric or cataphoric.

- **Substitution:** It involves the replacement of one item by another. A distinctive feature which distinguishes substitution from reference is that in the former the relation is on the wording rather than in the meaning. That is, the relations between the items are defined grammatically rather than semantically.
- **Ellipsis:** This process involves the omission of an item. Ellipsis is frequently considered as a form of substitution wherein the item is substituted by nothing as Halliday and Hasan quote "ellipsis is simply substitution by zero" (p.142).
- **Conjunction:** This type of cohesive devices highlights certain meanings which presuppose the existence of other elements in the discourse. Unlike the other grammatical relations, conjunctions express the logical-semantic between sentences rather than between words and structures so that the text is structured in a logical order to appear meaningful to the reader.
- **Lexical Cohesion:** This type embodies the cohesive relations attained by the selection of vocabulary. That is, relationships which exist between the lexical elements in a particular text. Lexical cohesion includes collocation and reiteration.

1.5. The Writing Process

The writing process involves multiple activities (Hedge, 2005). It is more accurate to regard writing as a non-linear, recursive process. During the writing process, the writer engages in a dynamic interplay of drafting, revising, and intermittent stages of replanning, moving back and forth between these activities. In that, writers mostly do not know what exactly they want their texts to look like because some ideas are provoked during the process of composing. Hence, according to Zamel (1983, as cited in Hyland, 2009), writing is recurring in nature. It is a non-linear, cyclic process wherein writers find out and generate new

ideas when they are building meaning. In the process of construction, writers move forward, and backward in order refine, reformulate their ideas or even generate new ideas. The writing process is therefore approached through the following stages:

1.5.1. Planning

According to Harmer (2004), planning is an essential step before starting writing. It may be restricted to making detailed notes or even few jotted words. This step involves setting the purpose of writing by which accordingly the type of the construct is identified, the language and the information included. Further, when planning to write, writers think of an audience their writing is directed for in order to make decisions regarding the shape of the writing and the choices of language, for instance in terms of formality and informality. Finally, while planning, writers need to account the content structure to think of the optimal way to order the facts, and assertions which they intended to insert (ibid).

Williams (2003) states that, the way writers plan for their writing varies from one writer to another. Some writers tend to make an outline, others may prefer to discuss their ideas with their classmates, and still other may quietly rely on a mental plan.

According to Hedge (2005), skilful writers in real life focus on two main points: The purpose of the piece of writing, and the audience to whom the text is intended. Knowledge of these points equips the writer with a clear vision of what is the purpose of the text and to whom it is addressed. Almost similarly, Williams (2003) affirms that a useful planning is a one which considers a variety of questions. Providing answers to these inquiries will relatively affect the content of the written productions.

For Seow (2002), all the activities in the classroom which encourage and lead students to write are considered as pre-writing / planning. It stimulates thoughts for getting started. Some activities which are done in the classroom are typical at this stage:

- Group brainstorming wherein group members freely generate ideas about the topic in a spontaneous manner, without adhering to a strict notion of right or wrong.

- Clustering: clustering, although a simple, but an effective technique for learners who are already aware of what they want to express but do not know how to say it (Proett and Gill, 1986, as cited in Seow, 2002).

- Rapid free writing: in short time of only few minutes, students quickly and freely list down single words and phrases concerning the topic. This technique is used when group brainstorming cannot be applied due to the nature of some topics who necessarily require a different strategy.

- Wh-Questions are also used to elicit information about the topic.

This step of planning is followed by making the first draft.

1.5.2. Drafting

After gathering sufficient ideas about the topic at the stage of planning, students arrive at the next stage in which they start combining ideas and write their first drafts. Here the main focus of writers is the content and not the grammatical accuracy (Seow, 2002). Consistent with this position, Hedge (2005) states that the ultimate aim of writers in drafting is trying to fix their contents first, and ignore details such as spelling correction, punctuation, and structure until later stages. Harmer (2004) considers the first version of the piece of writing as a draft. This latter will further be adjusted until producing the final version.

Williams (2003) outlines several factors which may influence the success and failure of the drafting process. Accordingly, discipline is very crucial in the sense that students need to manage their time and plan. Additionally, flexibility is another important factor. Some

student writers, in fact, believe that the first draft should be perfect. Therefore, much time is spent on correcting the sentences and punctuation rather than on trying to get ideas on paper. It is critical for student writers to be aware that the first drafts do not need to be shapely and well organized. The first draft is, in essence, a scheme of what is to be written. In this regard, Williams (2003) states that the first draft "should be like a road map, marking the general direction the paper will take" (p. 116).

1.5.3. Editing/ Revision

The editing process involves the reading of the draft being produced to see where it works and where it does not. Editing is intended to remove or correct what appears ambiguous or confusing for the reader. Some other times, the order of the ideas in itself may not be clear.

Editing in most cases entails reflecting and revising by an external reader for the sake of commenting and making suggestions about the produced text. Readers' responses and comments are likely to help the writer to make appropriate revisions and the necessary changes. In this stage, students tend to tidy up their written products in order to make the final draft ready to be evaluated by the reader. Students edit their own or their peers' work in terms of all respects such as grammar, spelling, and the like (Seow, 2002). The editing process produces latest readjustment and verifies accuracy so that the text is to the fullest extent accessible to the reader (Hedge, 2005).

According to Williams (2003), the editing process is the hardest step in writing. This belief suggests that students are shown how to edit due to some left mistaken beliefs that errors of form do not affect the writing quality. Additionally, editing requires conscious efforts from the students. This reason stems from the fact that most students view writing the way they view speaking to which they bare little consideration in terms of form and

expression. Furthermore, considerations of punctuation, sentence structure, and word choice are also hard to be performed by students. Besides, in attempting to edit their texts, writers frequently tend to read for the content rather than for the form. Consequently, they will not pay attention the errors committed.

As for the strategies of editing students' works, Williams (2003) considers peer editing an effective way to improve the writing quality.

1.5.4. Final Version

After the editing process, which involves making the necessary changes on the first draft, writers produce the final version. The final version may, to a larger extent, look different from both the initial plan and the first draft since things change and become clearer in the editing stage. The figure bellow shows how the writing process is cyclic, and not linear.

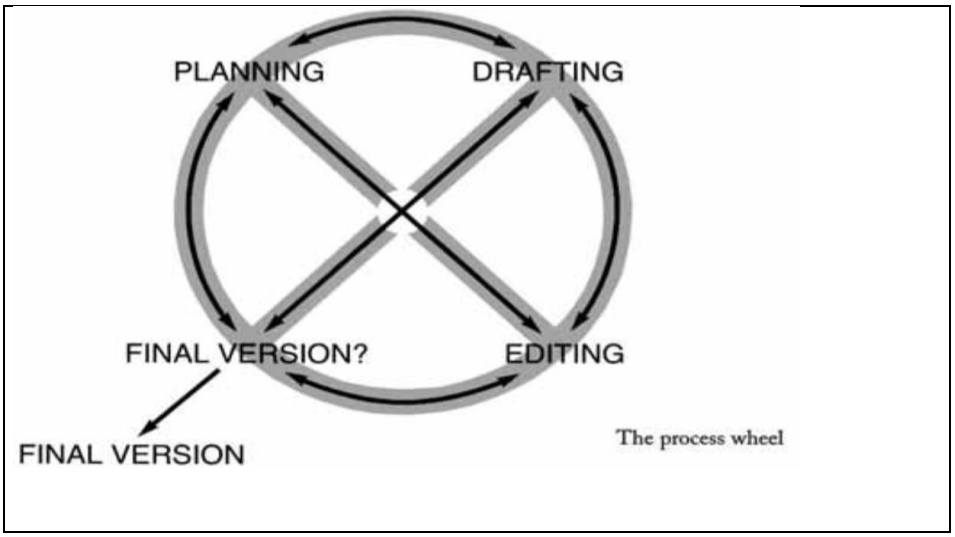


Figure 01. The Writing Process (Harmer, 2004, p. 6)

1.6. Difficulties Encountered in L2 Writing

In L2, the language proficiency level of students affects relatively the level of writing. That is, the written competence is highly affected by the proficiency level of L2 students. Ultimately, limited L2 knowledge will certainly result in constrained writing. Besides, L2

writers may not be aware of the social conventions and cultural guidelines of writing in the language they are writing in, that is L2. This lack of awareness is likely to result in inappropriate texts. L2 students' unawareness of cultural conventions restricted them to create effective content with thoughtful arguments. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to evaluate the reading and writing tasks given to students to anticipate possible gaps in cultural knowledge and provide instructional support. Further, motivational and affective attributes play a pivotal role to the quality of writing as well (Weigle, 2002).

Writing in L2 is challenging in the sense that L2 students are likely to grapple with "contrastive rhetoric issues" which implies that students may fall in trap of using organizational patterns of their L1 in L2 context. The former are relatively distinct. In this regard, L2 student writers need to be well enlightened of rhetorical expectations of their target audience so that they can adjust their writing strategies accordingly.

Another issue that L2 learners may face is having gaps in their language abilities which negatively impact the accuracy and effectiveness of their writings (Ferris, 2012).

1.7. The Importance of Writing in the Learning Process

In discussing the importance of writing in EFL classrooms, Suleiman (2000) as cited in Hasseini, et al., (2013) considers writing the cornerstone of the language when he points out that writing is the essential manifestation of acquiring language. Its multifaceted nature in instructional settings and assessment practices leads it to become the central part in language development (p. 155).

Writing effectively is the ultimate aim behind any writing course, not only to convey information and transform knowledge, but also to allow individuals from different cultures to communicate (Weigle, 2002). Writing is thus a way of expressing oneself and communicating ideas. Since the advent of the Communicative language Teaching (CLT), writing has been

widely acknowledged and grows in importance as a system of communicating not as a subject of study in itself.

According to Harmer (2004), regardless speaking, students boost their language system. Genuinely, writing pushes students to concentrate more on correct language use and therefore it leads to language development.

Writing is a way of reinforcing language that has been learnt. Writing is therefore a way of approaching grammar. In this regard, Teacher tends to ask students to produce sentences where the recently studied structures have to be reinvested. According to Raimes (1983), through writing learners can better reinforce the grammatical, structural, idioms use and vocabulary that students have already dealt with. In this respect, writing is a way through which learners are provided with an opportunity to follow their language progress, to get feedback from the instructor, and it helps teachers to monitor and diagnose students' language problems. Additionally, writing makes students more adventurous and risk takers. Moreover, while writing, students exert control over mental processes and become more involved in the TL. Hence, the close relationship between writing and thinking gives writing a valuable status in any language curriculum.

L2 writing is undoubtedly one of the most feasible fields of inquiry in both L2 studies and composition researches (Mustada and Silva, 2005). It is highly valued in L2 classes for it helps students master the system of language, a way of establishing learners' progress and proficiency. A goal for learning where students' needs are met and probably realised, to allow shy students to show their potential efforts, to develop students expression of themselves and to intellectually boost students' self-esteem and confidence (Hedge, 2005).

According to Weigle (2002), writing is widely recognized in academic and L2 programs. It allows individuals from various cultural backgrounds to communicate. It also contributes to conveying knowledge.

1.8.Responding to Students' Writing

The way students receive feedback on their written productions is very crucial to be considered by teachers. Response is very important as it allows student-writers to know how their texts are regarded by readers (Seow, 2002). This procedure helps students to diagnose the strengths, and the clarity of their arguments, in addition to the accuracy and effectiveness of their language choices (Ferris, 2012). Responding is typically an essential part in the process of teaching writing (Raimes, 1983).

It is critical for writing instructors to consider that response is different from grading. Responding to students writing aims primarily to contribute to students' long term development. Besides, teachers should not be the only respondents in the sense that various respondents (teachers and peers) broaden the audience and develop students' critical thinking skills. Feedback should tackle an area that students already know be it grammatical or rhetorical (Ferris, 2012).

There are two major issues to consider when responding to students' writings; rules or structures that students demonstrate problems with, and rules and structures that students need mastery of in order to accomplish specific writing task in the course (Ferris, 2012).

Harmer (2004) considers the best way of responding to students' writings is through responding to a work-in-process, rather than making corrections to the finished version. This way is intended to the process approach to work well. He also considers the significance of the response processed by students for their peer. Such peer response is a highly welcomed alternative to the teachers' feedback as it provides a very fresh perspective on the writing.

Responding to students' written work cannot be limited to accuracy solely, but also to the content and design of their writing. Teachers tend to create a kind of affective dialogues when responding to students' writing through discussing their writing rather than judging it

Harmer (2004) points out that in process writing, responding is more appreciated than correcting. The latter involves indicating what is not right. In this regard, Harmer (2004) suggests a number of more effective ways of making correction positive and useful.

- Selective correction: It involves teachers correcting only one area such as verb tenses or word order for instance. It is judged to be a good learning tool particularly when the teacher discusses with students what should be looking out.

- Using marking scales for each category: It involves teachers a range of different marking scales when dealing with written works. This method is likely to help students focus on the particular areas they need to work at.

- Using correction symbols: This strategy is also advantageous in the sense that it encourages students to recognize the nature of their mistakes, so that they can refine them themselves. The table below shows the most frequently used symbols:

Symbol	Meaning	Example error
S	A spelling error	*The asnwer is obvius.*
WO	A mistake in word order	*I like very much it.*
G	A grammar mistake	*I am going to buy some furnitures.*
T	Wrong verb tense	*I have seen him yesterday.*
C	Concord mistake (e.g. subject and verb agreement)	*People is angry.*
^	Something has been left out.	*He told ^ that he was sorry.*
WW	Wrong word	*I am interested on jazz music.*
{ }	Something is not necessary.	*He was not {too} strong enough.*
?M	The meaning is unclear.	*That is a very excited photograph.*
P	A punctuation mistake	*Do you like London.*
F/I	Too formal or informal	*Hi Mr Franklin, Thank you for your letter …*

Figure 02. Correction Symbols (Harmer, 2004, p. 111)

- Reformulation: This way tends to indicate to students that they could write something more correctly. It is extremely useful during the drafting phase.

- Referring students to a dictionary or a grammar book: After indicating what is wrong, teachers may ask students to go and check the problem up in a grammar book or a dictionary. This way is advantageous in the sense that it encourages students to purposefully look at the required information. So, as they correct, they will learn.

- Remedial teaching: It takes place when teachers come across mistakes when correcting students' written works. These mistakes are made by many students in the class. This case entails a remedial teaching.

In the meantime, Harmer (2004) suggests other ways which involve responding to students' written works.

- Responding to work in progress: Teachers get involved in the work in progress in order to give advice or make suggestions.
- Responding by a written comment: when students had their drafts, they may receive response delivered in a written form. Written may also include positive comment and encouragement when teachers appreciate what is written. Such an encouragement is extremely beneficial in this stage.
- Post-task statements: This method occurs at the end of writing sequence. It is beneficial for forthcoming writing tasks and can improve future writing assessments.
- Electronic comments: A lot of feedback can be delivered electronically. Feedback of this kind is useful particularly with the wide access to electronic devices.
- Peer review: This way is a valuable strategy in the process of writing. It encourages students to work collaboratively. It also helps students to enhance their ability to edit and revise on their own.

Responding occurs between the drafting and revising stages. It can take both the oral and the written forms (Seow, 2002).

Responding to students' writing has been largely investigated in L1 writing theory and since the 1970's (Ferris, 2003) as a reaction to previous paradigms where teachers responded to a completed piece of writing purposefully to set a final score. Similarly, scholars strongly assumed that teachers' permit students to finish multiple drafts of their papers, encourage them to revise, and give them feedback when they are in the course of writing rather than when they finish.

According to Hyland (2003), the primary intention of writers is getting their papers being read. When student-writers receive feedback from readers, they get opportunities to observe how others react to their work and to get insights from these responses. This formative feedback is likely to foster the evolution of students' writing skills and is considered crucial for enhancing and consolidating the learning process.

1.9. Assessing Writing

Though assessing students writing ability is a requisite, it is problematic due to the vast diversity of writing objectives, genres, styles, and the subjectivity of judgements involved in the process of assessment (Weigle, 2002). Hughes (1989, as cited in Weigle, 2002) asserts that the best way to test individuals' writing ability is to set them write. That is, the test of writing is made up of two fundamental elements: a writing task, or an instruction informing learners what to write, in addition to a tool for evaluating the produced written material.

In assessing written productions, certain issues need to be considered before designing a writing test. First, test designers should consider their aim behind testing writing ability. That is, the purpose of the writing tests. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996, as cited in Weigle, 2002), the primary purpose behind testing writing is to assess students' language ability which is likely to be not directly observed otherwise. The process will pave the way for teachers to make decisions at an individual level, classroom instruction, or program level.

Another fundamental criterion in designing a writing test is its usefulness. Batchman and Palmer (1996) define test usefulness in terms of six criteria: reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact, and practicality. In a writing test reliability can be influenced by different factors including variables in relation with the writing task (such as the topic) and other variables related to the scoring process. Construct validity is demonstrated in terms of the text type, the scoring criteria, and the readers' expectations.

As for authenticity, the writing task must correspond with the type of writing that test takers are likely to meet in the outside world of the test. Another criterion of usefulness involves interactiveness wherein a writing task involves not only the linguistic competence but also the strategic competence as well.

According to Ferris (2012), assessing L2 writing is a complex topic for writing teachers. She insists on two basic elements for writing assessment which are likely to be salient for L2 students: First, determine rationales for assessment, and second assure the usefulness and fairness of assessment tasks to learners

Conclusion

Writing is a complex, challenging activity that involves the mastery of a number of variables simultaneously. It is, thus, a skill that learners need to be offered sufficient time, adequate instruction, frequent opportunities to practice, and appropriate feedback on their performance. This section shed the light on writing as an important account of this study. It attempted to figure out a comprehensive image of the writing skill, its nature, and the various approaches adopted in teaching writing from the product approach to the process, and genre approaches and their valuable contribution in solving the problems encountered in teaching the writing skill. This section also discussed the stages of the writing process highlighting the idea that writing is not one-time, straightforward process. It also discusses the importance of writing in EFL classroom, explains the difficulties EFL learners face in writing, with a significant reference to the importance of assessment and responding in writing instruction.

Section Two: The Importance of Interaction in Foreign Language Classroom

Introduction

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2.2.Theoretical Underpinnings of Interaction

- 2.2.1. Interaction Hypothesis
- 2.2.2. Socio-cultural Theory
  - 2.2.2.1. Zone of Proximal Development
  - 2.2.2.2.Mediation
  - 2.2.2.3.Internalization
- 2.2.3. Input Hypothesis
- 2.2.4. Output Hypothesis

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- 2.3.5. Modified output

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Conclusion

Introduction

Recent approaches to teaching L2 have brought up a massive change in the way language learning is delivered. In this regard, the advent of CLT caused a transformation in the teaching beliefs from grammar-based classrooms to a more dynamic, learner-centred and interactive classrooms. Hence, the role of EFL classrooms has gradually changed from passively providing students with knowledge to actively engage them in the construction of their knowledge through meaningful interactions.

Interaction is a crucial feature of communicative classrooms. It complements teacher-fronted classrooms by providing the suitable context for practice and meaningful use of L2. This section, therefore, delves into the importance of interaction in EFL classroom. First, it introduces the concept of interaction and the theoretical perspectives that support its contributive role in EFL classroom. Further, the section displays the key constructs of interaction. It also tackles the different types of interaction that are likely to take place in an EFL classroom including teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction, and small group interaction.

2.1.Meaning of Interaction

In literature, the definition of interaction is stated differently by various researchers and scholars. This variation is due to the different contexts in which it occurs as well as the purposes for which it is used. One definition states that interaction refers the way in which language is used by interlocutors (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). That is, it indicates how language should be utilized by individuals and the factors that may interfere when engaging in a conversation. In this regard, interaction involves the use of language as a means of communication

According to Robinson (2005) Interaction means the dual face-to-face interactions. The latter may be spoken, written, or non-verbal. Hence, when dealing with classroom context, interaction refers to reciprocal behaviour that occurs in classroom, or the dialogues which are used to deliver information between interlocutors. Similarly, Brown and Lee (2015) consider interaction the exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more individuals. In this respect, the process of interaction entails the presence of two or more language users to take part in a shared communicative action. In classroom context, these language users may be teacher-student or student-student. This process will ultimately result in learning. Interaction is, thus, what leads learning to get enhanced. Within the same line of thought, Hall and Walsh (2002) state that interaction is among the essential factors without which learning cannot be achieved in the classroom (cited in Tiwari, 2021). That is, interaction is requisitely an integral component of the learning process.

In language learning, interaction is straightforward defined as the dialogues that learners engaged in. Be they between teacher-student or between student-student (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.178).

As far as peer interaction (PI) is concerned, It is referred to by Philp, Adams, & Iwashita (2014) as the activities taken by the learners which involve communication between them with less or no intervention from the tutor. When learners engage in communicative activities, they, by no means, contribute in building the knowledge of other learner and therefore contribute to the learning of others (Philp et al., 2014). Okyar and Ekşi (2019) state that the attitudes that students developed towards this process are more supportive and motivational

The aforementioned definitions clearly indicate that interaction is the cornstone of the teaching learning process. It represents an activity that necessitates the involvement of two or more participants with mutual effect. In classroom context, interaction means the exchange of information, thoughts, and ideas between teacher-students or between students themselves. This exchange may be oral or written.

2.2.Theoretical Underpinnings of Interaction

The theoretical perspectives that support the contributive role of interaction in SLA are displayed in several influential theories that call for the importance of social interaction in language learning. These theories are: Interaction Hypothesis (IH), Socio-cultural Theory (SCT), Input Hypothesis, and Output Hypothesis.

2.2.1. Interaction Hypothesis

The interaction that occurs between individuals (learners) was highly investigated and researched. Dekeyser (2007) discusses the interaction hypothesis (IH) with relation to learning. Accordingly, IH assumes that taking part in conversational interactions facilitates L2 learning and that input, interaction, and output together along with learners' cognitive processes shape the L2 learning process

According to Ellis (1991) the IH is based on two major claims: the first claim posits that comprehensible input is a key for L2 acquisition, and modifications that go on in conversations particularly when a communication problem is negotiated contribute to the comprehensibility of an L2 input to the learner and therefore promote learning. This hypothesis is quintessentially linked to the work of Long Michael (1980).

Ellis (1991) proposes three main points to highlight the contribution of interaction to L2 learning:

- Comprehensible input is requisite for L2 acquisition.
- Modifications of the structural patterns of conversations, which occur during the negotiation of a communicative problem makes input comprehensible to an L2 learner;
- Tasks which allow participants to exchange information and knowledge promote more interactional reconstructing.

According to Brown and Lee (2015), Long's IH has driven L2 practices to be viewed in a distinctive way. Language classroom is no longer viewed as a place where learners of various differences meet to pick up knowledge, but as a place that is carefully designed for interactional purposes. Teachers are therefore required to create optimal environments and activities which call for collaboration and negotiation. In this respect, learners are more stimulated to act in their own community of practice in a socially constructed way.

According to Long (2015) IH holds that negotiation for meaning allows for attention to linguistic constructs of language which in turn leads to implicit learning, and therefore improving the implicit input processing. During that activity, the positive and negative feedback about non-target-like structures and problematic learner output in addition to some kinds of communication problems play a crucial role for acquisition.

Advocates of IH, (Long, 1983, 1996; Pica, 1994; and Gass, 1997) consider the vital role of conversational interactions in SLA. They assert that interaction is an essential condition for SLA. For them modifying speech and interaction patterns by speakers allows learners to better participate in conversations and comprehend some information. Despite the fact that comprehensible input is necessary for L2 acquisition, Long's main concern was how input is made comprehensible. He, thus, argued that modifications and adjustments of interaction behaviours are essential to make language seem comprehensible. That is, what learners crucially need, is not a mere simplification of language forms, but rather an opportunity to interact with others to achieve mutual objectives. These interactions allow interlocutors to make the input comprehensible (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

Long (1983) with reference to modified interactions, formulates the IH in in the following way:

- Comprehensible input resulted from modified interaction.
- Acquisition is promoted by comprehensible input.
- Acquisition is therefore promoted by modified interaction.

In Long's modified version of IH (1996), a heavy emphasis is put on the role of CF during interaction where negotiation for meaning leads to language development (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Hence, according to IH, negotiation during conversational interactions enhances language development. This is justified by the fact that interaction motivates learners to clarify misunderstandings that occur during communication and therefore increases their attention towards both form and meaning which promote language acquisition.

2.2.2. Sociocultural Theory

The sociocultural perspective (SCT) assumes that language does not consist of inner structures and patterns inside the individual's mind. Rather, it is viewed to be basically social; consisted of linguistic elements whose meanings are both constitutive of and incarnated in everyday language use and communicative practices. Further, language learning extends beyond the internal absorption of language structures. It is essentially a social phenomenon (Hall, 2003).

SCT was founded on the belief of the social individual. This fact does not disregard the role of mental processes. Rather, for a sociocultural perspective, language and, then, L2 acquisition, in addition to being related to internal processes, are also regarded as context-sensitive (Gass and Selinker, 2008). That is, how L2 learners grasp language when they interact and cooperate with their interlocutors.

Sociocultural perspective considers human learning as a dynamic social process where both physical and social contexts are involved. As opposed to behavioural and cognitive perspectives of human learning, the sociocultural perspective contends that higher level human cognition in the individual is principally originated in social life. That is to say, universal features of human cognition cannot be separated from the social and cultural contexts in which they previously grew and are currently used. In this regard, the sociocultural perspective tends find explanations to the relationship existing between individual's cognition, on the one side, and the social, cultural, and historical states in which they function (Johnson, 2009).

A sociocultural perspective also asserts that learning does not necessarily involve equipping learners with knowledge and skills in a straightforward manner. It is rather a dynamic process which involves obtaining resources from the outside world. The obtained

knowledge by means of social interactions is therefore transferred to the learners internal language system by the cognitive processes (Johnson, 2009). Hence, for SCT both learning and mental progress through which language develops are due to social interactions (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007).

2.2.2.1. Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) typically refers to the differences that exist between a learners' current level of development (that is, what he already knows, or what he can already master) and the desired level that he/ she is thought to achieve when offered an external support be it from the teacher or a peer (that is, the potential level of development). The introduction of this concept was endeavoured by Lev Vygotsky in 1978 who reacted to two main dilemmas which arose in the developmental and educational psychology. The first dealt with the way to assess learners' intellectual abilities are assessed, and the second with the way instructional practices are evaluated (Podolskiy, 2012).

Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2007) regards ZPD as the gap that exists between the students' actual developmental level that is identified during a problem solving task, and the probable level of development that can be identified when a problem is solved with the guidance of a teacher or in collaboration with more knowledgeable peer. This definition indicates that learning occurs in response to interaction that took place between a knowledgeable individual with a less knowledgeable one; it is communicative activity that involves an interpersonal interaction. For Gass and Selinker (2008), this fact clearly embodies the social nature of learning and confirms the necessity to work on activities collaboratively

Vygotsky (1978) posits that ZPD is quintessentially concerned with learning and development. He considers the key feature of leaming in the creation of ZPD. Learning provokes various internal developmental functions that are able to act only when the learner is

interacting with a teacher or a peer. When these processes get internalized, they become part of the learner's independent developmental system (p.90). So, for SCT, learning would better take place in ZPD in the sense that interaction with more proficient language users such as teachers, or peers gives an opportunity to learners to engage in meaningful communication and practise (new) language forms that would be later internalized and automatized.

2.2.2.2.Mediation

The concept of mediation is critical in SCT. In essence, the term mediation is clearly understood as the intervention of a tool to facilitate achieving a specific purpose. As far classroom context is concerned, mediation refers to the involvement of a third factor (mediator) between two participants in the interaction process (Kozulin, 2018).

SCT is premised on the assumption that the activities undertaken by individuals (including cognitive undertakings) are achieved by means of symbolic assistance namely language and other assisting materials. Each of these act as mediators that serve in building the knowledge of the individual from the external world (ibid).

2.2.2.3.Internalization

Another important concept which is central to SCT is indicated as internalization. The latter refers to act of embodying the relation existing between individuals and the environments in actual performances. A particular way through which internalization occurs is through imitation, which can occur promptly, intentionally or in delayed manner. Internalization is pedagogically implemented when interaction occurs not only between instructors and learners but also between learners themselves (Kozulin, 2018).

2.2.3. Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis that was introduced by Stephen Krashen supposes that language acquisition takes place when learners are confronted with a material referred to as input that somewhat surpasses their actual level of proficiency. According to Krashen (1985), learners' language development occurs when they can manage a comprehensible input which constitutes i+1 (that is one level more than their current competence). Input can be made comprehensible input when it is adjusted and made simplified through interaction and negotiation. According to his theory, language acquisition is achieved when input becomes intake (Mahrasi, 2011).

Krashen (1985, p.2) underscores the benefits of a two-way interaction and contends that it is quintessentially good to offer comprehensible input which in turn is critical to grasp language and achieve learning. In his view the latter cannot be occurred in the absence of input. It is evident that the language produced by the learners is affected by the language that is used by the surrounding context which is mostly represented by classroom context where the teacher occupies a chief role. Acquisition, thus, happens when learners can access to the input made comprehensible which is an important factor of SLA (cited in Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

Pica and Doughty (1985) point out that teachers play a significant role in the creation of input. In classroom settings, the teacher is the unique source of input that is provided to learners. Importantly, teachers have to make the language they use comprehensible to the learners to facilitate learners' access and manipulation. In the L2 classroom, learners' output is driven by intakes through teachers' questioning. The language that the teacher uses when introducing a target structure or when asking questions is the input. Conversely, what learners produce or say, that is the answers they respond with are thus the outputs. Notwithstanding,

Pica and Doughty (1985) consider that student-student interaction is likely to provide more input for students when compared to teacher-student interaction. This evidence is justified by two main reasons. First, in teacher-student context, most of the grammatical input is triggered by the instructor. Second, students tend to take fewer opportunities to produce language (Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

Input-driven research has long been concerned with the question of how input is made comprehensible. Early studies evidenced that teacher talk including CF, error correction, and use of questions serve crucially in lowering the syntactic complexity of input, and therefore it contributes to making input comprehensible (Chaudron, 1988). More recently, SLA research has suggested that students' noticing of linguistic forms along with comprehensible input facilitated L2 acquisition of L2 structures. In order to enhance students' intake of L2 forms, some instructional techniques such as FonF, and input-enhancement contribute effectively in raising students' consciousness about the syntactic aspects of L2 as they work on making the linguistic forms more salient for learners (cited in Hall, 2003).

Interaction, therefore, plays a significant role as it provides Ls with comprehensible input. The latter is adjusted and modified according to Ls needs as well as their proficiency level.

2.2.4. Output Hypothesis

Output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) is considered complementary to Input Hypothesis proposed by Krashen which asserts the necessity of comprehensible input for learning or acquiring language. On his part, Swain (1985) considers the ability to produce comprehensible output a crucial sign to acquiring language. By virtue of that, when learners engage in meaningful interactions, they will get better opportunities to generate output and

receive feedback. The latter provides them an opportunity to notice the gaps in their output and work on to enhance their production.

The theoretical underpinnings which support the value of interaction in SLA highlight that language learning is a social, interactive process through which learners engage in communicative activities. When learners are involved in such activities, they tend to exchange information, negotiate meanings, receive feedback, and have opportunities to learn and produce new language forms.

2.3. Key Components of Interaction

The process of interaction is accomplished by means of certain components namely input, negotiation, feedback, and output. In the absence of these components partly or globally, the process of interaction is not accomplished.

2.3.1. Comprehensible Input

In language acquisition theories, including the interactionist theory, input is one of the necessary components of interaction (Gass and Mackey, 2015 as cited in Loewen and Sato, 2018). Interactionists were constantly interested with input that L2 learners receive whether it is naturalistic or modified. It is evidenced that interactionally modified input is beneficial for both L2 comprehension and internalization to the developmental system. In terms of language development, Ellis and He (1999) claim that interactionally modified input is judged more advantageous than input that is not yet modified or totally unmodified (cited in Loewen and Sato, 2018).

The importance of input is well documented in literature. Krashen (2004) introduced an important hypothesis which is known as Input Hypothesis. The latter claims that being exposed to input which is made comprehensible is not only requisite but also adequate for L2

learning to occur (p. 165). For Krashen, simplifications and modifications during a language lesson that presents an input that is somehow beyond the learners' competence lead to comprehension and processing of knowledge. What is more, when input is adequately processed it becomes intake. Besides, when Ls find that input is not comprehensible and very far beyond their current level, their language level will not be developed. Further, the input provided to learners should be provided in a systematic way which conforms to learners' level of knowledge. More importantly, when input exists in isolation, it will provide nothing to language development. Thus, interaction and output are crucial in the process. In Mahrasi (2011) words, when input becomes comprehensible and used in the interaction process, Ls will get greater developmental gains.

2.3.2. Negotiation for Meaning

Negotiation for meaning was introduced by Long (1996, p. 418) to refer to the act of communicatively learners and more proficient language users exchange signals to interpret and prompt adjustments in the structure used or the content in order to achieve a acceptable level of understanding. Hence, the ultimate aim behind learners' engagement in the process of negotiation is reaching comprehensibility of what is being communicated. Negotiation, in essence, brings feedback and modifications of both input and output. That is, the focus of negotiating for meaning shifts towards clarifying misunderstandings which are caused by insufficient or faulty linguistic knowledge (cited in Dekeyser, 2007).

Through interactional activities, learners often get modified input by more proficient speakers. In the contrary, when negotiation is initiated by a proficient speaker, the aim becomes getting a modified output by the learner. Negotiation is therefore aimed to gain extra time to delve in encoding meanings (Gas and Varonis, 1985 as cited in Dekeyser, 2007).

Pica (1994, 1996) highlights the role of negotiation in SLA. Arguably, negotiation contributes to the process of L2 learning L2 learners' needs are presumably addressed. That is, negotiation is an essential promotor of comprehension of L2 input. It is through iteration, segmentation, and rewording, learners' attention to L2 forms-meaning relationships is drawn. Moreover, Gass (1997) clarifies the way negotiation serves in facilitating L2 learning. Negotiation triggers clarification of the input. That is, through negotiation, learners benefit from feedback which is intended to make language forms more salient and enhanced in learners' output. Negotiation can also drive learners' attention to language problems committed by learners. When learners become able to notice the deficits in structure, they, hopefully, become more aware of the mismatch between the input and their actual output in the TL (cited in Dekeyser, 2007).

The role of negotiation is highly appreciated in classroom interaction. Learners are likely to gain further success as they are provided more opportunities to negotiate the problems they encounter in comprehension. Negotiation is also a way which enables L2 learners to grasp, acquire, and be able to retain more words in L2. According to Allwright (1984), learners, who negotiate the input, attain higher vocabulary acquisition achievements. More importantly, this advantage is maintained over time. Therefore, negotiation should be seen as an aid to SLA, L2 learning, and manipulation of L2 forms as well (Yu, 2008).

Negotiation for meaning is considered the core of the IH. It intends primarily to overcome communication breakdowns that occur between L2 learners and their interlocutors. This process is accomplished when one of the following tips is performed. These tips include clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks. These cues are mainly used in response to communication breakdowns, and once they are used, negation, then, occurs. Confirmation checks tend to confirm that the speaker's utterances have been received correctly and grasped adequately. They often occur in response to troublesome utterances.

They are frequently indicated through rising intonation or a question like ‘do you mean?’ Clarification requests, on the other hand, attempt to draw out extra explanation from the speaker with regard to the meaning of the utterance. They take the form of questions such as ‘What do you mean?’ The other tip of negotiation for meaning lies in comprehension checks which aim to guarantee that the addressee grasps what is being stated. It takes the form of questions like ‘Do you understand what I’m saying?’ (Loewen and Sato, 2018).

Negotiation serves as a stimulus for change because it focuses mainly on incorrect structures. When Ls receive information on erroneous structures, negotiation enables them to look for what is acceptable in the language (Gass and Selinker, 2008). In this sense, interaction serves in encouraging students to think critically in order to find an evidence for the information being negotiated.

2.3.3. Negotiation of Form

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013), in addition to negotiation for/of meaning which occurs during communicative interactions and whose ultimate aim is the avoidance of communication breakdowns, interactionists have also expanded their scope to include negotiation which focused on linguistic accuracy Negotiation of form is more attributed to classroom settings and is typical to teachers’ pedagogical intervention involving feedback with corrective intention. It occurs when the instructor responds to learners’ problematic utterances even though the meaning of the utterance is clear.

2.3.4. Interactional Feedback

Another important outcome of interaction is the feedback that learners receive on their outputs. Through feedback, learners get information which indicates their success or failure in producing L2. Such feedback might be positive or negative.

Negative feedback informs learners that their utterances are problematic in terms of accuracy, content, or communicative success. This sort of feedback triggers learners to focus on their linguistic production and comprehension. Negative feedback provided during interaction is pivotal in the sense that during the context of interaction, learners are directed to FonF. Besides, certain feedback strategies like recasts do not necessarily require learners' participation in the interaction process since the interlocutor provides an alternative way of what has been said in a more target-like form, as opposed to negotiation for meaning, which requires the involvement of learners.

Gass and Selinker posit that interaction directs learners' attention to some elements of language with the approximate intent to incorporate these elements into their developing system (2008).

2.3.5. Modified Output

When learners are informed that their utterances are ill-formed or incomprehensible, they ultimately respond on their language in order to make modifications in features of their language system which are manifested in their output. That is, learners modify their output according to the feedback they get. Modified output is beneficial for it promotes language learners awareness of form. That is, when learners modify their output, they will pay more attention to L2 grammar (Schmidt and Frota, 1986 as cited in Dekeyser, 2007).

Based on Swain' Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (1985) which assumes that output is not a mere indicator of L2 development, but is rather an essential factor for L2 development. Swain (1985) provides multiple arguments. He states that it is necessary to teach learners how to produce more acceptable language that is syntactically accurate and complex. Besides, through output, learners will be able to test their linguistic hypotheses and possibly receive feedback on these hypotheses. That is, when learners try out new structures,

they may fall in communication breakdowns which ultimately require CF. In this viewpoint, students will recognize that they have to revise their original hypotheses about the target structures. Further, output serves a metalinguistic function. In this regard, it enables learners to internalize and master linguistic patterns. Finally, language use manifested in students' output promotes language production and therefore development and automaticity (Loewen and Sato, 2018).

2.4. The Importance of Interaction

In the field of SLA, interaction is significant for both language acquisition and development (Gass, et, al., 1998). In this regard, Ellis (2001) considers the significant role of oral interaction and its pivotal role acquiring L2. He argues that oral interaction provides greater opportunities for L2 learners to practise language and therefore they constitute a main source of data which enable learners to acquire L2. Similarly, Long (1980) acknowledges the fact that interaction fosters L2 acquisition not only by delivering comprehensible input, but also by affording the learner with opportunities to produce their output. Long (1980) believes that interlanguage development presumably takes place when learners are encouraged and pushed to enhance their output. Interactional strategies, namely clarification requests are thought to be more convenient in this instance. They trigger the learner to clarify what has been said (cited in Ellis, 1991).

Pica (1990) points out that, learners can modify both their and their interlocutors output semantically as well as structurally through interaction. Accordingly, certain types of discourse signals namely clarification requests would better promote output modifications. Ellis (1994) posits that interaction provides L2 with opportunities to encounter input or to practise L2. Additionally, interaction helps in creating a sense of receptivity known as 'an active openness, a willingness to encounter the language and culture'.

As negotiation represents a central component of interaction, it is a way to move learner's focus on the areas of language that mismatch the aspects of the language being learned (Gass and Selinker, 2008).

Besides, According to Gass (1977) and Pica (1994) suggest that interaction may enable L2 learners to make links between L2 form and meaning (cited in Dekeyser, 2007). That is, through interaction, learners are likely to engage in meaningful communication where forms are directly related to meaning. Gass (1997, as cited in Dekeyser, 2007) also discussed the learners' internal processes and how they function during interaction. Furthermore, Long (1996) states that interlanguage development is promoted by interactional feedback that is obtained during interaction. He argues that interaction "connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention and output in productive ways" (p. 451). What is more, Swain (1993) contends that modified output thoughtfully boosts L2 development because when learners use language during interaction, they are encouraged to reinvest their linguistic resources. They will also boost their linguistic capabilities as they will also reflect on their output and find ways to modify it to ensure its comprehensibility, appropriateness, and accuracy.

According to Gass and selinker (2008), feedback and negotiation raise students' awareness of possible hypotheses that they are likely to encounter when they intend to use language. That is to say, language use makes learners more analytical in that they tend to think about the language before they use it. As learners use language, they are consistently testing hypotheses.

Language used in classroom is not used solely as a means of instruction; it is rather an objective of the study. In this regard, interaction plays an essential role in a language class. Classroom interactions are a good sign of students' improvements in L2. Moreover, feedback

that students receive from their teachers influences their future competence and motivation in learning L2. In essence, language is interactive in nature whereby teachers explain, suggest, persuade and instruct learners (Robinson, 2005 & Walsh, 2011, cited in Sundari, 2018).

Allwright (1984) affirms that interaction is the core of any language classroom. Its impact is exerted not only on language development but also on learners' development. That is to say, in addition to serving in equipping L2 learners with language-related knowledge, interaction grows learners' abilities to convey their messages (cited in Yu, 2008). Alwright (1984) asserts that learning cannot be accomplished in the absence of classroom interaction. He justifies, what goes on in classrooms necessitated person-to-person interaction (cited in Ellis, 1994).

As far as PI is concerned, Philp et al. (2008, p.83) propose that learners advantage linguistically from interaction with their peers, be they native speakers or L2 learners themselves. PI fosters opportunities for negotiation, feedback, and modified output and offers a source of L2 use and development (cited in Tshering, 2021).

Morris (2002) argues that another key characteristic of PI is that learners benefit from opportunities to practice the target structures whenever he/ she expresses himself/ herself (Harmer, 2007; Philp, Walter, & Basturkmen, 2010). Continuous practice as stated by skill acquisition theorists is significant in turning declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. PI allows Learners can to adjust their language use, stress on interlanguage grammar, identify the disparities in their language system, and be able to generate more complex target-like structures. It is noteworthy that learners gradually become more autonomous when they engage in PI, Further, teacher talking time as well as interventions are decreased when student-student interactions evolve (Harmer, 2007). Collaborative learning also evolved during pair work activities where learners support each other (Philp et al., 2014).

Hence, PI is a process through which learners can give and receive feedback to one another (cited in Cited in Okyar and Ekşi, 2019).

2.5. Classroom Interaction

In CLT, classroom interaction is a key component of L2 pedagogy. It has many forms. It can take place between the teacher and learners, and/or between learners themselves. Interaction in a language classroom is pivotal for it broadens students' vocabulary, strengthens their social relashioships, and boosts their self-esteem and their communication strategies (Thi & Thuy, 2021). It is also a fundamental indicator that shows that the learning process since the process of learning takes place in and through interaction (Meisuri, et, al., 2018).

2.5.1. Teacher-Student Interaction

Teachers and students represent the most important constituents of the teaching-learning process, and interaction between them is necessary for the delivery of information. In the classroom, the teacher often initiates questions and gives students the path to answer the questions. He some other times takes part in learning activities. Such forms are called teacher-learner interaction. The teacher is the dominator in terms of the talking time and of the running of the procedure.

According to Harmer (2004) teacher-student interaction is manifested in teacher addressing and speaking to the whole class, the teacher talking to a group of learners, or the teacher talking to one specific student, and the student talking to the teacher (cited from Thi and Thuy, 2021).

2.5.2. Student-Student Interaction

Student-Student interaction takes place within the learner community. This form of interaction entails the teacher to act as a monitor whereas learners are the active participants. In student-Student interaction, the student is the core while the "teacher takes the role of facilitator or participant in this activity" (Rohmah, 2017). In the same regard, Long and Porter (1985) point out that student-student interaction can potentially replace teacher-top down instruction (cited in Thi and Thuy, 2021)..

2.5.3. Small Group Interaction

In literature, it is evidenced that practice is beneficial particularly when it is carried out collaboratively in small groups or peers rather than with the teacher in a whole-class setting (Thi and Thuy, 2021). Accordingly, students mostly initiate their questions and start discussion in small-groups rather than whole-class activities. This sort of interaction clarifies ideas and perspectives far from teacher's control. Besides, learners should look for other sources of language input other than the teacher. Possibly, peers can typically provide language models when they interact with each other. Actually, when students cooperate in small groups, they contribute to create a more relieved atmosphere in the classroom, reduce inhibitions and anxiety, and thus lead to an increasing both the quantity and quality of practice. Collaborative work effects positively students' performance of tasks. Hence, collaborative work facilitates language development. Learning within groups allows participants to communicate together to solve language related problems (cited in Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

Conclusion

Interaction in EFL classroom was highly investigated and supported by various theories. In essence, interaction promotes language acquisition and enhances language learning outcomes. It is important to note that interaction is a fundamental feature of the new trends of teaching/ learning including the CA.

This section explored the importance of interaction as recognized by different theories with regard to the positive effect of feedback that learners receive during PI. Therefore, the understanding of the classroom discourse impacts positively the learning process since the latter is regarded a social process which strongly requires the involvement, engagement and participation of the learners in the construction of knowledge.

Section Three: On Grammatical Accuracy

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Conclusion

Introduction

Grammar holds an essential status in any language, in as much as one can hardly master a language accurately without a rich command of grammar. The status that grammar holds is justified by the fact that grammar lesson always occupy the heart of language courses. Besides, grammar is the base of other language skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. By virtue of grammar, what language users hear, say, read, and write would rather be more intelligible. Evidently, the absence of grammar instruction affects to a larger extent L2 acquisition as it certainly contributes to interlanguage development.

This section provides an overview of grammar instruction in L2 classrooms. Firstly, the concept of grammar is discussed with reference to the way it is conceived by different scholars. It also demonstrates the place that grammar holds in a number of teaching approaches and exposes instructional methods to teaching grammar. The value of grammar instruction in L2 teaching and learning is also highlighted in the current section. As grammar is not restricted to a mere collection of rules related to static structures in the language, it rather involves an interaction and complementarity with meaning and function. In that, the grammar dimensions; form, meaning, and use are displayed in this section. Further, the section tackles sources of the grammatical errors encountered in communication namely in writing. Finally, the account of the role of grammar in EL writing is further discussed.

3.1. Defining Grammar

Grammar has been given different definitions by different scholars. This lack of consensus upon one comprehensive definition to the concept of grammar reflects researchers' varied beliefs, standpoints and varied views about language (Burns and Richards, 2012).

Grammar was traditionally considered as the principles that govern the language; that is, how words are placed together in a correct way which enables writers and/ or speakers communicate effectively (Al-Kresheh and Orak, 2021). Formerly, grammar has only been concerned with the sentence-level analysis, with much focus on the principles that determine how a sentence is constructed in a language. Later, grammarians expanded its scope to include meaning and, thereafter, use. Accordingly, Ur (1991) refers to grammar as the way words are placed together to constitute well-formed sentences. In a similar way, Harmer (1987) states that, "grammar, then, is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences." (p. 1). It is, thus, the description of the principles that govern how sentences are formed.

Grammar has also been used to refer to the way language manipulates and assembles words (or fragments of words) for the sake of forming larger units of meaning (Ur, 1988, p.4). In that, grammar is viewed as the means that holds words and sentences together to convey meanings. It is also what may be considered the principles or even the laws that govern the linguistic expression (Hodgson and Harris, 2021).

Larsen Freeman (2009) considers the concept of grammar the most ambiguous term in the field of language teaching, for it conveys various meanings in various contexts. In one sense, it represents the internal mental system responsible for generating and interpreting new utterances. That is, knowledge of grammar allows for the production and understanding of language utterances.

In the view of Thornbury (1999), grammar is a process by which a speaker's or writer's intentions are made clear when contextual information is missed (p.4). Similar to this definition, Larsen Freeman (2014) regards that grammar deals not only with the form of the language, but it also deals with meanings (p.256). She adds, proficient users of grammar not only express themselves in an accurate way, they also express themselves in a meaningful way. In the same vein, Aarts, Cushing, and Hudson (2019) look at grammar more than a set of terms and concepts. Rather, it goes beyond to mean the broader system of patterns in a language that communicate meaning. That is, language is considered as communicative and should be linked to its communicative context. Accordingly, grammar is considered as a language system with which people can best convey complex thoughts by exploring the syntactic relationships that exist between the elements of language.

Grammar is also considered an integral part of the language used in every day communication. Accordingly, Rutherford (1987), states that grammar constitutes the entire language system which facilitates correct and appropriate communication. It also means the formal examination and analysis of the standards of language (cited in Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman, 1999).

Grammar has also been conceptualized as a system of choices that speakers need to manipulate to fulfil their communicative purposes. Speakers' and writers' grammatical choices do not occur in isolation, but rather in a context of language use. Meaning that, they are text-based choices made to participate in a communicative event (Cullen, 2012). In this regard, it is noteworthy to shed the light to the point that successful communication, be it oral or written, depends on speaker's/ writer's appropriate choices of grammatical patterns.

In a more expanded outlook, Larsen Freeman and Celce-Murcia (1999) broaden the scope of grammar to encompass not only form, but also meaning and use. They advocate that

grammatical structures do not constitute syntax only. They also encompass semantics and pragmatics. Grammatical form is also used to convey meanings, in appropriate contexts of use.

In brief, the difficulty to set one full-scale definition for grammar can be attributed to the fact that the field of grammar is broad and interesting field of study that has no limits and boundaries. Further, how different approaches to language teaching regard grammar and how it should be taught also contributes in shaping the different views about grammar.

3.2. Grammar in Various Teaching Approaches

Along the history of L2 teaching, a number of pedagogical practices have been applied in order to enhance learners' competence in L2. The field of language teaching has witnessed frequent change and innovation due the emergence and the development of competing teaching approaches and ideologies (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Typically, knowledge of how L2 learners acquire a language that is other than their mother tongue has also contributed in understanding the way L2 grammar is taught (Ellis, 2006). Significantly, theoretical and empirical developments in the fields of teaching and learning have also brought significant changes in the teaching of grammar, too. Hence, the status of grammar in ESL/ EFL instruction varied throughout various teaching approaches. While some consider the teaching of grammatical rules a keystone of L2 instruction, others focus on communication and the communicative purposes of language. At the beginning, teaching approaches exclusively focused on grammar. Later on, communication-based approaches shifted their attention from studying grammar rules and structures towards focusing on meaning and language use (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011).

3.2.1. Grammar Translation Method

Thornbury (1999) notes that Grammar Translation Method (GTM) puts grammar at the starting point for instruction. Grammar translation classes typically used grammar syllabus wherein the lessons explicitly start with an explanation of the statement of the rule. Thereafter, exercises which are based on translation into and out of the L1 are done.

Traditionally speaking, GTM has largely dominated the teaching of L2 grammar where the use of the L1 is the quintessence to learn L2. Since then, the GTM has been adopted by many teachers and practitioners. Its main purpose was to teach the classical languages; Latin and Greek.

Dating back to the 20th century, GTM aimed principally to approach L2 literature. Moreover, it was thought that through the study of the TL grammar, students are likely to be more familiarized with their native grammar and hence use their native language in a better way. In this regard, teaching L2 grammar was a medium to improve L1, while developing the ability to communicate in the TL is firmly disregarded in L2 instruction. Much emphasis, rather, was placed on the explicit teaching of grammar and forms of the TL (Larsen Freeman, 2000; Larsen Freeman and Anderson, 2011). Similarly, Howatt (1984) stresses the focus on accuracy in teaching a TL through an in-depth teaching and analysis of its grammar.

Richards and Rodgers (2011) state that grammar under GTM was taught following the deductive approach in which grammar rules are presented and studied, which are later on practised using translation activities. In grammar translation texts, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammatical points within a text, in order to present grammar structures in an organized and systematic way

However, the increasing demands for oral proficiency, gave rise to an approach which favoured speaking upon writing, and inductive grammar upon deductive one.

3.2.2. Direct Method

The DM challenged what GTM exclusively emphasized. That is, the DM prioritized the oral skills over written language and rejected the explicit teaching of grammar rules. Proponents of the DM assume that learners can grasp the grammar rules of L2 in a similar way as the grammar of their mother tongue is picked up. That is, when they are fully exposed to the TL (Thornburry, 1999).

Further, as GTM was ineffective in preparing students to use the TL communicatively, the DM primary aim was to produce successful communicators in the TL without any resource to students L1. In that, no translation is allowed. As far as grammar was concerned, no explicit grammar instruction was done; grammar wad treated inductively (Larsen Freeman, 2000; Larsen Freeman and Anderson, 2011).

In the DM, it is advocated to actively use language in the class rather than analysing grammatical structures. Teachers tend to boost the natural and direct use of the TL in the classroom. Consequently, learners would be able to grasp grammar rules (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

3.2.3. Audio-Lingual Method

Audiolingualism strictly rejected the teaching of grammar. It derived its theoretical grounds from the behaviourist perspective, which considered language a simple behaviour that can be achieved by forming correct habits. The learning and application of rules play no part in the process of habit formation (Thornburry, 1999).

Although the ALM is oral in nature, grammar was manifested in the drills of students practising grammatical patters. The ALM was deeply rooted in both linguistics and psychology; it incorporated a number of the principles from behavioural psychology which

believes that sentence structures of the TL can be acquired through conditioning. That is, through correct response and reinforcement, grammatical structures will be internalised. Therefore, learners will likely be able to remove old habits of the L1 to form the new habits required for L2 communication. In this regard, language learning is, thus, regarded as a process of habit formation (Larsen Freeman, 2000; Larsen Freeman and Anderson, 2011).

Advocates of Audiolingualism rejected approaches such as DM in which learners are immersed to the target language, use it, and gradually grasp its grammatical rules. Instead, grammar, or structure, was the starting point. Grammar of the TL was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

3.2.4. Communicative Language Teaching

The developments witnessed in the 1970's of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) were motivated by evolution in the newly emerged stream of sociolinguistics, with the belief that CC is built up of more than knowing about grammar rules. Still, grammar is considered an important component of CLT courses. Typically, CLT did not reject the teaching of grammar; rather, no explicit attention was given to explicit grammar instruction (Thornbury, 1999).

Hinkel and Fotos (2002) advocate that communicative approaches have not dealt with formal grammar instruction; instead, target structures are embedded in meaning-based input. When he attempts to comprehend the meaning, the learner would naturally acquire the vocabulary and the forms of the language.

Monitor Modal of Krashen of the 1970's 1980's has greatly impacted the rise of the communicative pedagogy. The underpinnings of this hypothesis stresses on the idea that SLA is better accomplished when learners are exposed to natural language use occurring during

communication. Thus, CLT disregards both the explicit teaching of grammar structures and error correction in language classes.

Communicative syllabuses have been criticized for their neglect of grammar instruction. The latter may lead to fossilization, and low levels of accuracy. Skehan (1996) suggests that the absence of grammar instruction under the adoption of CLT may result in fossilized, pidginized, and inaccurate language system (cited in Hinkel and Fotos, 2002).

According to Larsen Freeman (2000); Larsen Freeman and Anderson (2011), attempting to make the CC the ultimate goal of language teaching, the TL was thus considered as a means for classroom communication, not as a material to be studied. It encourages cooperation among students through communicative interaction which paves the way to negotiate meanings.

In summary, grammar was intended to use language for communicative purposes; that is, what students are able to do with the language. Therefore, instructors need to know that the aim of language teaching is not the teaching and presentation of grammar rules; instead grammatical structures should be introduced within a context of use, to be later on reinvested in meaning-based and communicative-based activities (Ur, 1988). Hence, in the communicative approach importance of grammatical accuracy is under-valued in comparison to communicative effectiveness.

3.3. Grammatical Knowledge

Grammatical knowledge refers to the awareness of the rules that account for grammatically correct language. That is, what learners might know about language that allows them to produce correct sentences? In order to achieve correct language use, and minimize errors, controlled speaking and writing exercised are applied (Richards and Rappen, 2014). The unit of focus is the sentence. In other words, grammatical knowledge involves the

internalized information that learners hold about certain structures which is stored in the long term memory. This knowledge has been constructed through drills and experience (Purpura, 2004).

3.4. Grammatical Ability

Grammatical ability denotes students' ability to reinvest grammar as a communicative tool which allows them to generate both spoken and written discourse based on different teaching strategies. The manifestation of grammatical forms is better applied in written texts (Richards and Rappen, 2014). Cullen (2012) points out that speakers and writers use of grammatical forms do not occur in vacuum, but rather in a context of language use that is text based not sentence-based. According to Purpura (2004), grammatical ability is an amalgamation of the knowledge of grammar and strategic competence. That is, the ability to use grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully in appropriate context of language use.

3.5. Grammatical Competence

Competence differs from both knowledge and ability in the sense that competence is broader. As far as grammatical competence (GC) is considered, Hymes (1972) regards that GC encompasses not only knowledge of the grammatical features of a language but also the ability to use them. This implies that students not only need to be aware of the grammatical rules and structures of the language, but also how to use these structures appropriately. GC entails the ability to produce an infinite number of sentences and utterances that match the grammatical system of the language (Bim, 2007, as cited in Mukhtaroven and Borisovma 2020). As GC is an essential component in CC, Chomsky (1980) posits that GC is the ideal speaker-listeners' knowledge, and their ability to convey meanings effectively in a given context (cited in Almarshedi, 2022). Hence, language users have to possess the knowledge of grammatical rules in addition to the ability to use them.

GC can be examined by means of observable language use in terms of grammatical accuracy; students are judged to be grammatically competent if they produce an oral/ written language that is accurate with less or no grammatical errors (Almarshedi, 2022). In this line of thought, Chomsky (1965) elucidates that GC is attained when language users become able to identify and use a variety of grammatical structures in effective way to attain communicative purposes. Meanwhile, Ellis (2007) relates GC to implicit and explicit knowledge and distinguishes two sorts of grammatical difficulty: difficulty related to understanding the grammatical features of the language and a difficulty in internalizing them in order to be used in accurate and effective communication. While the former refers to explicit knowledge, the latter refers to implicit knowledge (cited in Sioco and De Vera, 2018).

3.6. Grammar Instruction

Grammar instruction refers to the application of the different grammar teaching methods in order to enable learners be competent users of language (Afshar and Baghericeh, 2014, as cited in Al-Kresheh and Orak, 2021). By virtue of grammar instruction, learners can understand the way language is constructed and the properties that govern it. Hence, grammar instruction is the different instructional methods applied to make students understand the different uses of grammatical structures. Yet, the best way to teach grammar varies among different scholars, methodologists and teachers alike (Al-Kresheh and Orak, 2021).

Back to the 1980's, Krashen (1981) and Prabhu (1987) advocated that the most effective form of grammar teaching was an overt grammar instruction. In their view, learners are likely to pick up the syntactic structures implicitly when they are exposed to the comprehensible input, and therefore engage in meaning-focused tasks (Cullen, 2012). Nonetheless, this view has later been superseded by research contending that it is necessary to

incorporate some kind of FonF in the language classroom in order to accelerate the process of grammar acquisition as well as to raise ultimate levels of attainment (Long 2001).

Grammar instruction is referred to differently by different instructors on the basis of their perceptions towards grammar. Accordingly, these different views of grammar will typically impact the kind of grammar instruction teachers will apply with and will therefore reflected in instructional materials, classroom activities, and teaching methods.

At the level of materials, when instructors look at grammar as knowledge-based system of rules, exercises and test items will be restricted at sentence-level that favours the correct application of rules to achieve accuracy. However, if instructors view grammar as a skill, tests and exercises will tend to examine learners' ability to make appropriate grammatical choices and hence achieve meaningful purposes (Widdowson, 1990 as cited Cullen, 2012)

Larsen Freeman (2015) states that grammar instruction has not been affected by research outcomes. She holds that the status of grammar is remained preserved from traditional to current approaches with a shift in focus. In the traditional perspectives, much focus is placed on accuracy through exercises focusing more on form believing that by this way, learners will better learn grammar.

The issue of what is the most effective methodological procedure to use, and how much focus should be placed on it have always been subjects of controversy as far as teaching grammar in EFL context is concerned.

3. 6. 1 Deductive versus Inductive Instruction

The deductive and inductive grammar instructions are used to refer to the way grammatical structures and rules are presented and acquired. In deductive teaching, which is

teacher-centric model, the rules are first given and analysed, then they are applied and practised in order to be internalized. That is, in deductive activity the students are provided with the rule and then its application, followed by practice exercises in order to reinforce it (Larsen Freeman, 2014). This type of instruction is desirable for it provides students with a way of thinking to guide them at their own generalisations. Further, it goes directly to the point, and can therefore be time saving (Thornbury, 1999). Crystal, (2003, as cited in Al-Kresheh and Orak, 2021) states that the deductive grammar follows a direct top-down methods to indoctrinate students with grammatical structures.

However, beginning the lesson with grammar presentation encourages teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom which teacher-centred. This method of teaching is likely to discourage students and lower their involvement and interaction. Moreover, this method of teaching grammar is believed to encourage the view language learning necessitates knowledge of its rules (ibid).

Inductive grammar instruction, on the other hand, begins with examples from which the rule is induced. In the inductive teaching, the learner studies the examples, thereafter, he/ she develops an understanding of the rule. This way appears to be similar to the way L1 is grasped through exposure to the input. So, induction is seen as the natural facet of learning, and is highly figured within L2 instruction which model themselves on L1 acquisition such as DM, and The Natural Approach. These methods are premised on the assumption that language input is best acquired inductively with no resource to translation (Thornbury, 1999).

The inductive grammar instruction is favoured in as much as the rules learners discover by themselves are more likely to fit their mentally existing structures. This fact will make the rules more meaningful and memorable. Besides, in the inductive teaching of grammar, students become more engaged with the learning process, rather than being mere

recipients of rules. Therefore, it raises their attention as well as motivation levels. Furthermore, it favours pattern-recognition and problem solving strategies. Accordingly, solving problems collaboratively allows for more practice and use of the TL. In addition, working things out is a way to prepare students for self-reliance and pushes them towards more autonomous learning.

Nevertheless, the time and energy that learners devote for detecting rules are likely to misguide students into regarding that the rules are the end of language learning rather than a means, and hence, minimizing the time for practice (Thornbury, 1999). In addition, differing learning styles and cognitive abilities among students are sometimes troublesome particularly when the cognitive style is not convenient for language analysis. This fact calls for presenting grammar deductively (Thornbury, 1999; Larsen Freeman, 2014).

3. 6. 2 Explicit versus Implicit Instruction

According to Ellis (2014), explicit instruction is a way which is intended to raise learners' metalinguistic awareness of language rule that can be carried out either deductively or inductively (cited in Brown and Lee, 2015). In other words, explicit instruction takes place when students are instructed in the forms and patterns, or are led to induce them. In an explicit-based presentation, the target grammar point is firstly presented and discussed and then applied (Purpura, 2004). For Dekeyser (1995) a grammatical structure is judged explicit, when it deals with the explanations of a grammatical rule or requests learners to focus on grammatical form.

Larsen Freeman (2014) discussed a number of options regarding explicit grammar instruction. Amongst these options is consciousness raising tasks wherein students basically induce grammatical generalization from the information they have been provided. Additionally, garden path is a similar way intended to promote students awareness grammar

teaching. This implies providing students with information about the structure without giving them a full vision in order to make it appear easier than it is. That is, leading them down the garden path. The reason behind giving students partial information lies behind the claim that students will better learn the exceptions of the rule if their generalization error is corrected rather than when giving them exceptions of the rule to memorize them. Further, students' involvement in collaborative dialogues where students support each other's learning through discussing the use of structures is a beneficial way to boost their language development (Donato, 1994, as cited in Freeman, 2014).

Swain and Lapkin (1998) uphold the value of language-related incidents that arise during a dialogue where students explicitly negotiate grammatical points. These dialogues are twofold. They serve as cognitive device and as a communication tool to promote grammatical development.

Conversely, an implicit grammar teaching makes no reference to rules (Larsen Freeman, 2009). In implicit grammar instruction, the target form is embedded within utterances used in communication with students. The context of communication serves in understanding the meaning and pertaining communication (Savage, 2010, as cited in Brown and Lee, 2015). So, implicit knowledge of grammar means the knowledge of language that naturally occurs in language use such as in conversations (Ellis, 2006b, as cited in Purpura, 2004). For Dekeyser (1995) grammatical instruction is considered explicit when rules are not explicitly presented or requested to focus on. Rather, implicit instruction focuses on meaning of the text where the grammatical forms are somewhere embedded. The task of learners is to try to identify the grammatical structure and notice the form-meaning connection so that forms become recognizable in the input and ultimately incorporated into interlanguage (Ur, 2011).

3. 6. 3 Covert versus Overt Instruction

Covert grammar teaching is stated for the teaching of grammar where the grammatical features are not apparent to the students. That is the learners are likely to engage in an information gap activity. Regardless, attention is directed towards the activity or the text rather than to the structure itself (Harmer, 1987). The teachers, in the covert grammar, assist students in acquiring or practising the language without drawing their attention to any of the grammatical points introduced.

Overt grammar instruction, on the other hand, implies that the instructor genuinely provides the students with full explanation of grammatical rules. In another sense, the grammatical knowledge is expressly stated; that is, the techniques for introducing the new language form are overt.

Clearly stated, in overt grammar teaching, teachers are extremely explicit about the grammar of the language. Yet, in covert teaching, students get involved in working with new language in order to make them subconsciously grasp the grammatical information and therefore achieve the language entirely (Harmer, 1987).

3. 6. 4 Focus on Forms versus Focus on Form Instruction

The extent to which teachers need to attract students' attention to grammatical forms results in two forms of instruction. That is those which emphasize separate attention to grammar points and those which call for the need for communication with little or no grammar intervention. These two different types of instruction have been introduced by Long (1988, 1991) as Focus on Forms (FoF), and Focus on Form (FonF) (Sheen, 2002).

FoF instruction refers to the old way of teaching of discrete items of grammar in isolated lesson. FoF instruction is processed through presenting the grammar through a variety

of strategies, exercises where the grammar structure is practised, and providing opportunities to promote accurate, automatic language use (Sheen, 2002).

The lesson in traditional grammar-based mode of instruction typically starts with the TL points. The latter is to be divided into segments; each presented in a separate time. Accordingly, classroom practices identical to this mode of instruction encompass notably explicit grammar rules, repetition of models, short dialogues memorisation, linguistically simplified texts, exercises of transformation, explicit negative feedback, that is, error correction.

Long (1997) considers FoF lessons dry; focusing solely on linguistic items that are mastered separately in separate lessons. Consequently, communicative purposes of the TL are not considered. However, Long (1997) points out that FoF instruction tends to be a one size-fits-all in the sense that neither students' communicative needs nor their learning styles are pre-identified.

FoF is based on the teaching of discrete grammatical points. It is closely associated with presentation, practice, production framework (PPP). The linguistic structures to be taught are pre-selected upon which the lesson is built. These structures are made aware for the students at the outset of the lesson (Long, 1988 as cited in Ellis, 2015)

Conversely, FonF approach to grammar instruction was firstly proposed by Long (1991) as a reaction to both traditional approaches to grammar teaching as well as disfavour with the fully communicative trends which in turn disregard grammar instruction and emphasized language fluency rather than accuracy. Long (1996) primarily characterizes FonF as a response to the language deficits that students fall in during communicative events. He also asserts that FonF typically focuses on triggering learners' attention to linguistic forms which might be provoked in lessons where the primary focus is meaning and communication.

In this regard, Nassji and Fotos (2011) posit that FonF is a way of directing learners' attention to the target form/ forms when they are indulged in communicative activities. So, successful noticing of grammatical features is a determinant for successful language use.

According to (Schmidt, 1990), by noticing, it is meant that students pick out particular features of TL input, oral or written, and pay conscious attention in order to learn them (Cullen, 2012, as cited in Brown and Lee, 2015). Though noticing is more like a natural process, it is attributed a crucial importance in language acquisition particularly when students are exposed to sufficient input (cited in Brown and Lee, 2015).

Brown and Lee (2015) view that FonF is the most appropriate way to pick out grammatical structures unconsciously and hence acquire the TL easily. Besides, it conforms to the concept of interlanguage development wherein learners typically acquire the rules of language through stages. Furthermore, FonF allows students to take an advantage of communication skills before they are equipped with explanations of grammatical points. FonF, as opposed to other form-based instructions, builds students' intrinsic motivation. This is likely to occur when students are given an opportunity to discover their language rather than being informed them.

As FonF comes reactively after students encounter particular difficulties be they during or after completing a task which requires students to use the grammatical points available to them rather than the ones by the teacher. In the post task phase, which is of a higher importance, students tend to manifest their acquisition of grammar points through performing tasks. Students' acquisition is thus compared with the correct structures dealt with in the reading manuscript or in the listening script (Brown and lee, 2015).

In what follows, a consciousness raising stage comes where the teacher helps students to recognize the mismatch between the correct forms of language and their actual use of these

forms through providing CF accompanied by further explanation, exemplification, and follow up practice (Brown and lee, 2015).

Hinkel and Fotos (2002) affirm that FonF is among the newest approaches to grammar instruction which is a combination of form-based instruction and communicative language use. It distinguishes between form-based and meaning-based use of structures, then; reinvest the target structure in a communicative-based task.

Long (1991) states that FonF seeks to attain faster rate of learning through emphasising meaning over structure, with reference to grammar depending on various strategies (Cited in Larsen Freeman, 2014).

Various strategies of FonF have been introduced including:

- Input Enhancement through highlighting certain non-salient grammatical forms in a written passage to catch learners' attention to them. Input Enhancement is intended to make grammatical features more salient in the input. Jesen and Vinther (2003) claim that input enhancement leads to significant improvements in grammatical accuracy not only in written instructional texts but also in speech through repetition and also through speech rate reduction (cited in Larsen Freeman, 2009).
- Input Flooding which involves choosing a particular input where the target structure is frequent. The frequency of a particular construct enhances its saliency and therefore promotes noticing which in turn initiates the production of structures (Mackey and Gass, 2006, as cited in Larsen Freeman, 2014). That is, learners are being introduced to larger stretches of input where the target structure is provided, sometimes typographically enhanced through capitalisation, writing in boldface, and so on (Purpura, 2004).

- Input Processing activities drive learners to notice language characteristics while performing some meaningful tasks. Input-based strategy is judged effective in attaining grammatical accuracy.

3. 6. 5 Input-Based Instructions

Input-based instruction to grammar teaching is problematic in nature; it requires learners to solve grammar based problems. Input-based pedagogies contend that learners encounter difficulties in focusing on both form and meaning at the same time. Therefore, learners are pushed to actively process target structures and associate them with their meanings (Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

The importance of input SLA has been accredited by a number of SLA theories. Universal Grammar (UG) is a theory which asserts that humans are equipped with an innate ability responsible for learning language. In UG, input plays an essential role for a variety of reasons. It firstly leads to language acquisition by activating the UG systems. Also, it enables learners to fix the UG parameters on the basis of the available inputs. Besides, input is also accredited by Information Processing Theory which holds that language learning is triggered by cognitive processes. Input is recognized by Information Processing Theory to be crucial in the sense that individuals' mental representations are formed thanks to the information provided in the input. Also, Skill Acquisition Theory denotes language learning as a convoluted process which incorporates various cognitive steps. In SLA, input is essential in the sense that it forms learners' initial declarative knowledge. That is, knowledge about language which becomes later procedural through practice (Nassaji and Photos, 2011).

3.7. The Importance of Teaching Grammar

The value of grammar in language classrooms has long been considered. Since then, grammar was the heart of language classrooms. This status was premised on the belief that

grammar rules constitute language and knowing about them would be quite enough for learners to get the language. Yet, with the advent of the communicative approaches, grammar instruction became undesired as it was regarded that instructing learners in grammar would never develop their CC and may even be prejudicial (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011).

Nonetheless, recent researches in the field of SLA as well as L2 teaching reconceived the status of grammar and concluded that grammar instruction could not be disregarded in L2 classrooms. This re-evaluation has been justified by the fact that language acquisition cannot be accomplished without some level of consciousness about grammar. In addition, form-focused instruction proved to be efficient on both the ultimate level as well as the rate of L2 acquisition particularly when it is incorporated with meaningful communicative tasks. That is, FonF and focus on meaning are both integrated in communication. Hence, grammar was reintroduced in the current teaching practices with new modes of instructing it (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011).

The value of grammar instruction has, thus, long been questioned and pre-occupied theoretical practitioners since earliest theories. Ur (1988) acknowledges the importance of grammatical knowledge be it implicit or explicit to master a language. He provides a set of arguments why grammar should be put in the foreground in L2 teaching.

As grammar is the external representation of the regularities that regulate the language, these regularities provide learners with the ability to produce an infinite number of correct sentences. Grammar also allows for greater accurateness of meaning. Further, a number of researchers propose that learners who were not exposed to grammar instruction seem to be at risk of fossilizing prior to those who received grammar instruction. Grammar instruction is likely to have a delayed effect; in the sense that the acquired grammar is a pre-requisite for noticing and later on acquiring language. Besides, grammar instruction is a way

of reducing challenges of a language task through the enormous set of rules which equips learners with alternatives as they are set to a task (Ur, 1988).

For Brown and Lee (2015), grammar is worth to be tackled by devoting considerable time and efforts to reach the effective mastery of language. For Celce-Murcia, grammarless instruction is likely to result in broken, ungrammatical, pidginized use of the structures by students who, by the time, will get fossilized (1991).

While some researchers pointed that grammar can be acquired solely through input and exposure, others contend that this is not true especially when the time of exposure is short and restricted to the classroom. This is similar to the case of English in Algeria when it is taught as foreign language. In this essence, it is advocated that informing students of grammatical knowledge is crucial to know how language works (Larsen Freeman, 2014).

White (1987) states that, positive evidence that learners receive on their performance, is not always enough to deal with grammatical forms which are complex and require time and focus. Genuinely, learners are more helped by the CF that they receive from instruction. Eventually, learners will likely be able to sort out L2 differences from L1 (cited in Larsen Freeman, 2014).

Grammar instruction can also help students to make generalizations to the new structures of language. Grammar instruction also helps students notice the gap between old and new constructions of language and learners' interlanguage. That is, how their production differs from the features of language. In this regard, grammar instruction contributes to fill in the gap in the input since it is not possible to deal with all the structures that learners might meet in the classroom (Spada and Lightbown, 1993, as cited in Larsen Freeman, 2009). Above all, grammar instruction is thought to be a source of feedback (Larsen Freeman, 2014).

The role of grammar in L2 acquisition is highlighted by various scholars. Significantly, Bowen (1994) states that, grammar is of paramount importance in acquiring any language. It also organizes linguistic structures and makes language accessible and understandable for language learners. In this regard, grammar is considered the most important constituent in learning a new language in the sense that one cannot speak and write a new language unless he adequately masters its grammar rules (cited in Thornburry, 1999).

Ellis (1996) holds that learning and acquiring grammar can lead to enhancing learners' proficiency level and accuracy as well, as it facilitates the internalisation of its syntactical framework, and therefore fulfilling the development of fluency (cited in Hinkel and photos, 2002). Therefore, grammar is essential not only for accuracy in using language patterns, but also for fluency by recognizing the meanings that accompany these patterns (Ur, 1988; and Ur, 1991)

According to Azar (2007), knowledge of grammar enables learners to understand the nature of language. That is, what makes what we hear, read, say, and write intelligible and elucidative. Further, Azar (2007) states that grammar teaching allows students to gain an understanding of grammatical concepts such as coordination and subordination, concepts of time relationships through the use of verb forms, concepts of nouns and adjective, etc., and how they are used in grammatical patterns to convey meaning. That is, learners will better use the TL if they understand its nature and know about its concepts.

3.8. Grammar Dimensions

Developing students' communicative competence (CC) is essential in L2 learning. GC is one component of CC, which is, though necessary, is not sufficient for successful communication. In this regard, grammar dimensions refer to form; that is the structure of language, meaning, as well as use.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1990) regard grammar with its communicative end. They recognize that grammar is not solely a mere collection of forms, but rather incorporates the three dimensions of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. That is, grammatical patterns not only have a morphosyntactic feature, they are rather used to express meaning (semantics), in context-appropriate use (pragmatics). These three dimensions are referred to as form, meaning, and use. Because the three dimensions are interrelated, a change in one will eventually involve change in another.

Any question in the pie is intended to provide guidance in terms of how a particular grammar structure is constructed. That is, morphology and syntax. What it means? is the semantic contribution it makes whenever it is used, and when and why grammatical choices are used in communication.

Traditionally speaking, language teaching methodologies have focused on one dimension while ignoring the others. To exemplify, GTM and the ALM focus mainly on form, and sometimes on meaning, but relatively neglect use. Conversely, the Natural Approach emphasises meaning and use. Yet it mostly disregards form. It is evident that learners must deal with all these dimensions (Brown and Lee, 2015).

When dealing with form, morphosyntactic forms inform how patterns are put together, and how they are arranged with other sequences in a sentence or a text. As with semantics, it is tended to say what a grammar structure means. Meaning of grammatical patterns is either lexical or grammatical. Pragmatics stands for language use in particular contexts. The latter can be social (the context that speakers created, the relationship that exists among them, and the setting where the discourse occurs), or it can be linguistics (referring to the statements that follow or precede the target structure in the text). The impact of pragmatics is, then, ensured by asking two questions:

1. When/ why does a particular speaker/ writer choose a particular grammar construction over which might express the same meaning or accomplish the same purpose?
2. When/ why does a speaker/ writer vary the form of particular linguistic construction? (Larsen Freeman, 2014).

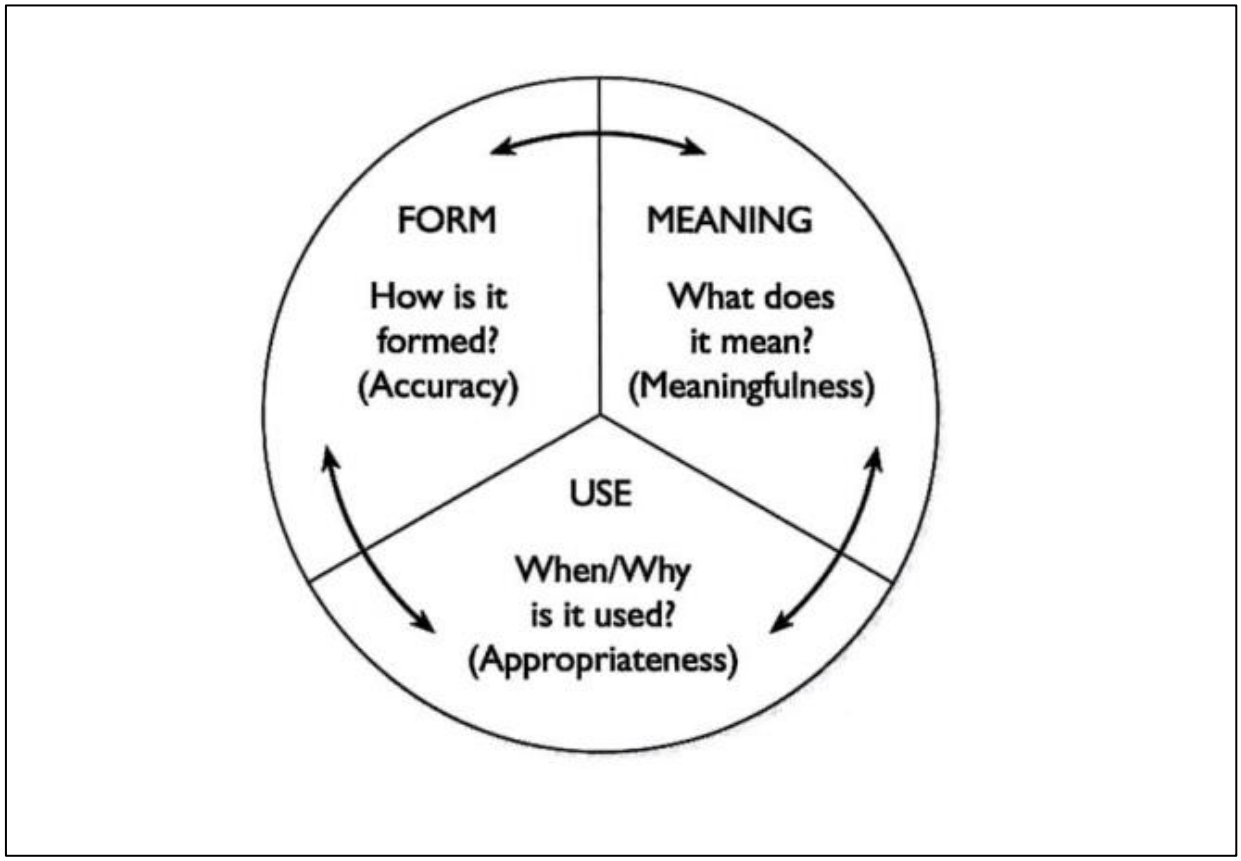


Figure 02. Grammar Dimensions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman, 1999, p. 4)

3.9. Grammaring

According to Larsen Freeman (1991), the optimal role of ESL/ EFL instructors is assisting learners to be able to use language patterns accurately, meaningfully and appropriately. This view is premised on the assumption that teachers frequently realise a mismatch between students' awareness of grammatical structures and their actual use of these structures. Larsen Freeman (1991) uses the concept "Grammaring" to treat grammar as a skill not as an area of knowledge (cited in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

In this regard, grammatical information that students receive either explicitly or implicitly is considered as a means to an end not as an end in itself to achieve the ultimate grammaring. Grammar instruction should not typically promote awareness in students but rather it should provoke them to engage in meaningful productions. That is, knowledge of how grammatical construction is formed is not enough to practice the language. Students also need to know what it means and when it is used (Larsen Freeman, 2014). That is, grammaring refers to the ability of students to do things with language not merely storing knowledge about the language (Larsen Freeman, 2003). Grammaring is, thus, a way of looking at grammar as a dynamic skill not as a static area of knowledge.

3.10 Grammatical Errors

L2 students, though aware of grammar rules, have frequently made grammatical errors when they use language. Actually, although the writing classes are considered the typical place where students invest the learnt grammar structure, students frequently make grammatical errors when they intend to generate a larger text. The grammatical errors that student commit are due to different causes.

CAH claims that learners L1 significantly influence their acquisition of L2. This implies that L2 errors reflect the conflicts which arise between L1 and L2 when learners attempt to use L2. That is L1 will interfere with L2. Such errors are therefore resulted from negative transfer of L1 rules to L2 (Nunan, 1991).

Positive transfer, alternatively, happens when the systems of both L1 and L2 coincide, and learners utilize their L1 knowledge to learn L2. What is more, CAH claims that, the systematic comparison of L1 and L2 is likely to result in predicting the difficulties that students may encounter in learning an L2. Typically, students with different L1 backgrounds

will certainly encounter different difficulties and therefore produce different errors (Nunan, 1991).

Richards and Rappen (2014) view grammatical problems that students commit a useful source for teaching, as they indicate the level of development that students achieve. When teachers identify the actual level of their students as well as their areas of difficulty, they will better manage their teaching. Hence, grammatical errors inform teachers about the difficulties students experience either the sentence level, or the text level.

Harmer (1987) discussed three major problems that learners encounter in learning grammar. First, he mentioned the clash between form and function. When students cannot recognize the compatibility that exists between form and use, they ultimately confuse in using grammatical structures. Certainly, any misuse of the grammatical structure would likely result in change of the meaning and therefore, a failure in communicating ideas appropriately. Second, Harmer (1987) considers the influence that students' L1 has on the learning of their L2. Third, the exceptions and complications of the language are also problematic for students who make generalization to form new structures.

3.11. The Role of Grammar in L2 Writing

Grammar cannot exist in isolation as lists of rules to be memorised only, but rather as an essential element in the construction of texts (Richards and Rappen, 2014). That is, it is integrated along all language skills including writing. According to Richards and Rappen (2014), writing classes are typically the obvious place where grammar is invested in the construction of texts. Yet, grammar represents one of the complicated features in writing.

Grammar instruction has, no doubt, led to improved writing over history (Williams, 2003). The L2 writing instruction recognises the role of grammar from two broad areas. First, instruction and practice in grammatical structures, and second, response and correction of

errors in students' texts. The integration of grammar instruction in writing classrooms involves emphasizing the forms of language to promote learners to be able to communicate meaningfully and appropriately. In this respect, when learner know how grammar works and how structures should be used they can easily achieve communicative purposes of writing (Frodesen, 2014).

According to Gibbons (2006a), learners need to talk about the language they use in their writings. This may be initiated by the instructor as it may be generated by learners themselves. Grammar also helps writers to expand their linguistic repertoire. Flahive and Baily (1993) argue that L2 writing ability and L2 grammatical ability are correlated. Likewise, the grammatical ability evidently affected reading and writing abilities (cited in Leki, Cumming, and Silva, 2008).

Hyland (2004) views the teaching of grammatical forms disconnected from writing activities remain elusive as students cannot make connections between the grammar they learnt and the meanings the items express in a particular context. Accordingly, teaching writing must involve grammatical options to help learners produce texts which are well-formed and appropriate to readers' expectations, and to do this, grammar needs to be seen as more than a set of isolated rules applicable across contexts.

Hyland (2004) points out that developing students' understanding of these conventions is necessary by showing their relationships to whole texts, as ways of creating cultural meanings not as isolated "grammatical knowledge".

Conclusion

Although grammar has long been misunderstood as a collection of language rules, grammar instruction proves to have an effective and a positive role in L2 classrooms. Grammar instruction becomes an integral part of language teaching as studying a language without a good mastery of its structures affects the quality of the language being produced, be it oral or written. It is thus an essential part to communicate meaning effectively. That is, GC is a requisite for communication.

This section sheds the light on an important element in this study; that is, grammar instruction. It discussed different views about grammar and how it was treated by the different teaching approaches. Account was also given to grammar instruction in EFL context and the varying instructional methods implemented to better enable L2 learners become competent language users because grammar is, in fact, not only a set of rules but it exceeds to meaning and use of structures. This section also offered insights about grammar as a skill to be mastered. This chapter also elucidated major grammatical problems encountered in using language with reference to the sources of grammatical errors. The section ends with highlighting the role of grammar in L2 writing.

Section Four: Feedback in Foreign Language Classroom

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Conclusion

Introduction

The major aim of the current teaching and learning practices is developing learners' CC. This aim is highly recognized in the era which is characterized by a worldwide communication in the light of the rapid growth and development of technology (Štajduhar, 2013). Remarkably, the shift from the teacher-centred pedagogy to student-centred pedagogy witnesses a plausible shift concerning various language assessment practices and feedback procedures. PF is, thus, one of the initiatives which marked the shift from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness.

The gist of this section is built upon the underpinnings that shaped the current research. First, the section addresses the notions of feedback and CF in the context of second/foreign language classroom. Then, it highlights the theoretical underpinnings of the process of feedback. Following this subsection, the section displays types of feedback and the role it plays to enhance second/foreign language learning. Finally, the section ends with shedding the light upon PF as a currently implemented practice, its advantages, and how it can enhance L2 learning in general and L2 writing in particular.

4.1.Definition of Feedback

To define the concept of feedback, various researchers have come out with varied definitions, though, all of which fall in the same basket in which feedback is given in response to learner output, a consequence of performance, to initiate further action etc.

The teaching/ learning scene fundamentally proceeds through three phases; providing input by the instructor, be it auditory, visual or a combination of both, giving students an opportunity to use or produce language either orally or in a written way, then, provide feedback on the basis of students' performance (Sigott, 2013). On that basis, Hattie and Timperley (2007) affirm that feedback is initiated as a response to what students produce. It also occurs after an instruction that learners receive in order to acquire knowledge, skills, or even to develop particular dispositions. So, as a key part in L2 process, feedback is generally reactive, provided in response to learner output. That is students receive feedback when they actually say or write.

Feedback can be given by teachers as it can be given by others such as peers. In the same vein, Black and William (1998) consider feedback as the information provided by teachers, or by students as feedback to exert change on learners' performance (p. 7). According to this definition, feedback is thought of to make changes and modifications of students' coming performance. Within the same line of thought, Larsen Freeman (2003) used the concept feedback to mean the information given to learners to evaluate their language-based performance (p. 123). This responsive evaluation, according to Freeman, can be initiated by others as it can be self-generated.

Chaudron (1986) refers to classroom interaction and considers feedback broader than correction. He regards that feedback is an integral constituent that cannot be disregarded in classroom interactions. Learners inevitably get information about their behaviours from

teacher's reactions (p. 44). What is more, feedback has been summarized in Wang's (2006) words as comments on the current performance for the sake of improving future performance (quoted in Klimova, 2015).

Feedback has also been defined by Hattie and Timperley as information given by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, experience) on someone's performance or understanding (2007, p. 81). In support, Irons (2008) presupposes that feedback is intended to accelerate students' learning on the basis of the comments attributed to either formative or summative assessments. Irons (2008) considers the close relationship that exists between feedback and assessment noting that feedback is an integral part in classroom. It is inseparable component of any assessment and course evaluation.

Students thus may benefit from the information that probably fills the gap between what they understood and what they intended to be understood. That is, feedback is aimed to minimize the paradoxes between current and targeted achievements through closing the gap between current performance of a given student and the desired standard. Consequently, students who receive feedback will get an opportunity to improve their achievement in the target language.

Broadly speaking, learning is a process of continually adjusting knowledge, skills and behaviours and that feedback is an essential contributor to the overall improvement of students' performance and learning as well.

4.2.Corrective Feedback

It is evidenced that FL learners encounter difficulties when they learn from the input only, and therefore they still produce erroneous output. In this sense, researchers look forward to find out what should be done to make language learners use language more accurately and

reduce the flow of errors they make when they try to learn (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012). One of the strategies is pursuing students with CF.

The concept CF can be termed differently using various concepts like negative feedback, error treatment, error correction, and negative evidence. CF can occur in instructional settings as well as in natural settings (Sheen, 2011). That is students can be given CF outside classroom settings.

As an earliest definition of CF, Chaudron (1977) states that CF represents any reactive behaviour of the teacher that seeks to engender improvements in the learners' language use. This definition is considered the basis for most recent researchers as Chaudron refers to teachers' explicit and implicit responses. Besides, CF requires students to adjust their utterances. Additionally, Kartchava, et al., refer to CF as teacher's reactions to learners' language-based errors (2018). It is evident here that CF is provided in reaction to the errors that students commit in order to make improvements in TLuse.

For Lightbown and Spada (1999), CF is the information by which the learners are indicated that their language output is incorrect. Therefore, CF is employed in response to learners' utterances marked by linguistic errors. This response serves as another initiated repair and may include an acknowledgment of the error, correction of language forms, metalinguistic information explaining the error type, or all of these elements. Ellis (2009) highlights several issues surrounding CF in the context of L2 acquisition. These include debates about the contribution of CF to L2 acquisition, which errors to be treated, the initiator of correction, the most effective type of CF, and the optimal timing for providing CF.

More recently, Nassaji and Kartchava (2017, 2021) define CF as any indication that signals to the learners an existence of an error in their output. This reactive act is likely to elicit a response from the part of the learner and therefore self-correction will take place. CF

is provided in response to a range of errors be they linguistic, organizational, discursive, or pragmatic.

Long (1996) has made clear distinction between negative and positive evidence. While the former informs the learner about what is not possible in a given discourse, the latter refers to what is possible and acceptable in the language. That is, negative evidence can be yielded in the form of CF on learners' errors (Nassaji and Kartchava, 2017). According to Sheen (2011) CF, which follows an incorrect (ungrammatical) response, has many sources. The primary concern of CF is enhancing grammatical accuracy in L2. Lastly, Leow and Driver (2021) conclude that CF, be it provided by a teacher, a researcher, a peer, or computer, occurs in response to an error committed by an L2 learner.

In summary, while feedback is provided on student's response be it correct or incorrect, CF deals with inaccuracies of the learner's language production by giving students an opportunity to notice their errors while learning an L2. The process of providing CF encompasses input-providing and output-pushing, though, the purpose behind it is making students notice feedback and acknowledge its corrective intent (Kartchava, et al., 2018).

4.2.1. Written Corrective Feedback

Recently, written corrective feedback (WCF) has widely been a subject of intensified research (Guardado, 2017). WCF refers to the written comments addressing a language-related error, for the intent to correct it or offer information about it (Moser, 2020).

Lee (2017) questioned whether or not instructors should respond to all errors in students' writing or they should be selective targeting specific choices. These two extremes are called comprehensive (unfocused) WCF, and selective (focused) WCF. Unfocused WCF covers many linguistic points at once, whereas focused WCF targets only one area. Bitchener

(2008, p. 108) argues that focused WCF is judged to be less overwhelming and more manageable for TL students.

A wealth of research studies have addressed the effectiveness of WCF. The latter is measured by employing different empirical studies (Bitchener, 2021). The focus of literature during the 1970's was on the role that different WCF forms could play in providing learners writings. Writing teachers sought to find out which types of WCF might be more effective for their learners so that they could develop the knowledge and skills to edit their texts accordingly. With the emergence of SLA theories in 1980's like Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), the focus of researchers shifted to learners and their perspectives regarding the contribution of WCF in facilitating L2 development.(Hendrickson, 1980 as cited in Bitchener, 2021).

4.2.1.1. Written Corrective Feedback Types

According to Ellis (2008), WCF involves:

- Direct non-metalinguistic WCF in which the learner is simply provided with the correct structure. The latter is achieved via a variety of ways such as omitting the unnecessary word or inserting the missing one, or simply by writing the correct form instead of the wrong one.
- Direct metalinguistic WCF provides the correct form accompanied with explicit explanation. This could better be achieved when a brief metalinguistic comment is provided on the error committed in the written text.
- Indirect WCF (not located) points out that the student has committed an error without neither indicating nor correcting it. The error is just indicated in the margin and let learners identify their own errors.

- Indirect WCF (located) is different from the preceding where it actually indicates the error but with no correction provided.
- Indirect WCF using error codes to highlight the type of the error. Error codes are treated as indirect form of WCF because they just signal the type of error and let the learners to self-correct.
- Indirect metalinguistic written correction is another WCF type which provides metalinguistic clues about the errors.
- Reformulation entails reformulating the utterance or paragraph that contains an error. Learners here are given correct input in order to identify their incorrect output. Reformulations can thus be considered as a form of direct WCF because students are provided with correction. In addition to addressing learners' linguistic errors, reformulation also addresses stylistic problems for the sake of improving coherence.

4.2.2. Oral Corrective Feedback

Despite that plethora of research studies examining the effectiveness of CF addressed WCF, it has been evidenced that WCF is best approached when followed up by oral corrective feedback (OCF) in face-to-face interactions during which teachers are likely to respond to students' needs by providing clarifications, eliminating ambiguities and offering them by opportunities to ask questions (Ferris, 2004). Moreover, OCF allows students to discover their strengths and weaknesses and find out the optimal way of how to revise their writing (Lee, 2017). In this regard, research on OCF has started to set its grounds in SLA theories and a significant number of studies demonstrate the positive role of OCF on L2 learning.

During verbal communication that occurs in or beyond language classrooms, learners tend to produce a linguistic output upon which they receive CF about the language they produce. The feedback learners receive is OCF. Hence, OCF is the oral response provided by

a teacher or a peer when they mark an erroneous, ambiguous, or inappropriate output. It indicates to learners in an oral mode, either implicitly or explicitly, that something is not right with what they have said" (Oliver and Adams, 2021, p. 188). That is to say, in a conversational exchange, learners are likely to produce language that does not conform to native-like language. Therefore, their interlocutors tend to shed the light on the erroneous output and signal inappropriateness. Such an intervention is, thus, OCF.

A number of studies indicate how OCF actually promotes language acquisition. OCF alerts language users to what is possible and acceptable in the TL and what is not. So that, learners notice the gap between their developing interlanguage knowledge and the target structures (Gass, 2013 as cited in Oliver and Adams, 2021). Similarly, Lightbown (1998) assert that other OCF forms contribute in providing additional positive evidence, as they indicate modals of what is acceptable and correct in the target language. It is apparent that the effectiveness of OCF lies in its reactiveness to indicate what learners are required to develop in their language. Consequently, this reconstruction will eventually lead to target-closer language. Further, Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) suggest that OCF helps learners to develop their use of language as positive learning outcomes are necessarily associated with self-repair particularly when feedback involves negotiation be it about form or meaning (p. 13).

4.2.2.1. Oral Corrective Feedback Types

OCF types are varied encompassing implicit (Long, 1996) or indirect (Lantolf, 2000) and explicit or direct. Though, what is considered implicit by some researchers is viewed explicit by others (Oliver and Adams, 2021)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) listed six types of OCF including recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and repetition. These categories have later been sorted by Lyster and Ranta (2007) into other categories; reformulations include

each of recasts and explicit correction; and prompts include elicitations, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and repetition. While reformulations can pursue learners with both positive and negative evidence, prompts supply learners with negative evidence solely in order to push learners to self-correction.

- Explicit correction involves the explicit provision of the correct form. Teachers' supplies of correct forms are just indicators that an error is somewhere.
- Recasts involve teacher's restatements of a student's utterance, without the error. Chaudron (1977) calls it reiteration with change. Recasts are classified implicit in that they are not initiated by a statement indicating that the learner's utterance contains an error.
- Clarification requests tend to signal misunderstanding of the utterance. It calls for repetition or reformulation.
- Metalinguistic feedback encompasses all the comments or explanation about the target structure without providing the correct form.
- Elicitation refers to what teachers do to elicit the correct form through asking them to reformulate what they said, ask questions to get the correct answer, or simply pause and let them fill in the gap.
- Repetition is teachers' restatement of the erroneous structure with an attractive intonation to indicate the error.

OCF differs from WCF in a various ways. OCF can be both explicit and implicit, while WCF is mostly explicit. Also, OCF typically occurs overwhelmingly immediately after the learner error occurred, WCF can be delayed. For that, debates on which type of CF is more beneficial than the other have been raised. While some researchers argue that recasts are the more effective, others claim that CF types which withhold the right structure are more likely to develop L2 by pushing learners to self-correct and develop their interlanguage.

4.3. Corrective Feedback and Learning Theories

SLA theoreticians and researchers have long been considering the issue of CF. In this regard, a great deal of concern had been attributed to the roles positive and negative evidence play in the process of language acquisition. In literature, although the significant role of positive feedback in learning an L2 is clearly stated, the opposite is ascribed to the extent to which CF, being a part of negative evidence, can contribute in promoting L2 acquisition. Therefore, different claims have been established by researchers regarding the role of CF is concerned.

4.3.1. The Behaviourist View

Dating back to the 1950s and 1960s, errors that L2 learners commit were treated in a quite negative way than they are treated currently. The belief behind this claim lies in the fact that errors interfere with the learning process. For this reason, errors ought to be prevented from occurring. For Behaviourists, learning is accomplished only if learners succeed in making correct responses in the target language. (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012).

Being coupled with the then prevailing linguistic theory of Structuralism, behaviourism regarded L2 learning as optimally a process of responding to environmental stimulation and of habit formation through reinforcement. And if any learning occurs, this signifies the formation of new set of habits. Accordingly, CF is considered as a sort of information provided to the L2 learner on what is not correct in the TL. In that, it represents a form of environmental stimulus and a type of negative reinforcement that typically assist the learner to redeploy his/her utterance with the grammatical norms of L2. That is, behaviours that receive negative reinforcement through CF are less likely to persist. Contrariwise, behaviours which receive positive reinforcement will certainly be repeated (VanPatten and Williams, 2015 as cited in Han, 2021).

4.3.2. The Cognitive Views

The cognitive contribution of CF to the development of the L2 is exhibited in its role in directing learners' focus to structure. This, in turn, helps learners recognize the disparities between their incorrect utterances and the target structure referred to as "noticing the gap" according to Schmidt and Frota (1986), or the deficiencies in their output referred to as "noticing the hole" as discussed by Doughty and Williams (1998), and Swain (1993). Kartchava et al., (2018) argue that providing CF prompts students to make adjustments in their linguistic output. Various cognitive theoretical underpinning consider the role of CF in the process of learning an L2; namely The Monitor Model, The Noticing Hypothesis, The Output Hypothesis, and Skill Acquisition Theory.

4.3.3. The Interactionist View

Typically, the major emphasis of the interactionist perspective is on the significance of speech exchanges that take part between learners and their interlocutors namely teachers or peers. In this framework, Bitchener and Ferris (2012); Nassaji and Kartchava (2021) consider the role of CF in language learning and/ or acquisition. Learners engage in negotiations of meaning which may subsequently result in making modifications in their utterances. Communication challenges frequently arise due to the errors that are made by learners. Interactionists advocate a number of communication strategies, such as repetition, seeking clarification when needed, and checking confirmations. Interactionists endorse providing students with CF as a response to their language use. For them, meaningful interactions drive learners attention to notice problematic language structures, ultimately leading to CF. That is, Interactionist view supports the role of CF in SLA process. Within the same line of thought, Ferris (2011) considers errors as treatable through the feedback occurring in natural interactions. Similarly, Kartchava et al. (2018) state that within the process of interaction, modifications in L2 input are driven by simplifications in language, lowering speech rate,

body language, and CF results not only in comprehensibility of input but also in facilitation of learning L2. Hence, proponents of Interactionist view advocate the positive role of CF in L2 development.

The Interaction approach to CF stems from the IH. The latter considers communication breakdowns during meaning-focused interactions a positive sign for L2 Learning, particularly, when NNSs show misunderstanding of the message of the interlocutor. In that, instances for meaning negotiation will result in modified input (Long, 1996). According to Long (1996), when meanings are negotiated, they promote acquisition because it links input with learner' mental activities, namely attention, to result in an output (p. 451-452). Additionally, Interactionist researchers contend that CF occurring during interaction is an efficient strategy through which learners' attention is oriented towards features of the L2 and in specific towards the problems one's encounters in his output. That is, the problems which are likely to be unnoticed but understood. So modified output can suggest several benefits other than that the learner has noticed the CF. It can further allow the learner to test interlanguage hypothesis. Accordingly, production which occurs after CF permits the learner to experiment various reformulations of the original utterance, which in turn can yield additional CF. That is to say, practising with a correct structure after CF can also pave the way to automatization (Swain, 1995 as cited in Abbuhl, 2021).

4.3.4. The Sociocultural View

On the basis of the Vygotskyan theory, sociocultural perspective views the role of CF in SLA in variant way. SCT claims that L2 development mainly results from social interactions between L2 learners and other L2 speakers who are more proficient speakers (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012). In other words, CF that results from interaction between students and teachers yields in L2 development. Students receiving CF through negotiation with others will gradually achieve self-correction.

For Socioculturalists, the role of CF and interaction are conceptualized quite differently from researchers under cognitive interactionist tradition. In SCT, learning is considered an activity which is socially mediated to enable learners to reach higher order mental processing. That is, L2 is better learnt by engaging in social interactions (Sheen, 2011).

Socioculturalists look at CF to be not unique and needs to be modified to meet the linguistic requirements of learners who tend to develop their language system, because types of CF are varied and one type that matches one learner's needs may not meet the needs of the other, and that is mismatched to the attempts to identify one type of CF as being the ideal type (Lantolf and Aljaafreh, 1995).

4.3.5. The Constructivist View

Constructivism is a learning theory which set on the belief that learners actively build up their knowledge and understanding of the world from their experiences. Attributed to Jean Piaget (1967), Constructivism is based on the viewpoint that knowledge is a result of the constructive activity of the individual. The constructivist view to learning is typically associated with two key concepts namely accommodation and assimilation. According to Piaget (1967), the processes of accommodation and assimilation make individuals construct new knowledge on the bases of their experiences (cited in Reitbauer and Vaupetitsch , 2013).

Through assimilation, learners incorporate new experiences to their already existing mental framework or cognitive structures without any changes. This is likely to happen when the learner's experiences correspond with their internal representations of the world. Conversely, when these experiences are not aligned with the internal representation (that is, knowledge structures), learners are thus likely to change their own perceptions of those experiences to accommodate new experiences. Therefore, accommodation refers to the process through which the mental representations of the individuals' external world are

framed to meet the probable experiences. In this context, learners are encouraged and expected to generate their ideas and conceptions (Reitbauer and Vaupetitsch , 2013).

CF is also grounded in the constructivist view in the sense that in order to construct a set of knowledge, errors are inevitable which are clear indicators that the learning process is going on. Hence, providing feedback and engaging students in PF promotes reflection and helps in integrating new set of knowledge into the existing one. Feedback strategies prompt students to reflect on their own knowledge and lead them to verbalize their reasoning and problem solving. When providing feedback, teachers are facilitating accommodation process by getting students discover new patterns and regularities. Meanwhile, they also help students to test their own experiences about language (Reitbauer and Vaupetitsch , 2013).

4.4.Methods of Corrective Feedback

CF is intended to cause changes in students' language use after committing a language related error. It can take various forms in terms of the way it is delivered. It can vary in terms of its focus. In this regard, focused and unfocused feedback forms are noted. Further, providing feedback entails different ways typically classified as direct, indirect, and metalinguistic. Other instances of feedback learners are exposed to involve explicit and implicit feedback. The role, importance, and effectiveness of the various forms of CF have been greatly discussed in literature referring to various studies in different instructional contexts, with different purposes, and with different language learners.

4.4.1. Formative versus Summative Feedback

In terms of functions, feedback can either be formative or summative. The former tends to focus on the learning process in order to support learners improve their performances (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b as cited in Moser, 2020). In classroom settings, formative feedback is a non-evaluative practice that intends to provide information to learners so that to

enhance their performance. Formative feedback can take different forms according to the teaching/ learning situation, and the nature and purpose of the task. Conversely, summative feedback is very likely to be used when the focus in on the product rather than the process of learning (Moser, 2020).

4.4.2. Direct versus Indirect Feedback

Another distinction is made between direct and indirect feedback. Feedback is considered direct when the correct alternative is provided, and it is indirect when the incorrect form is only indicated but without providing any correction. To exemplify, direct feedback can be crossing out the wrong form with a provision of the right form, an addition of the missing items, or an inclusion of metalinguistic feedback with an explanation of the type of an error. Indirect feedback is, rather, a highlighting, underlining, circling, or a mere indication of the number of errors in the margin with a check (Moser, 2020).

In literature, indirect feedback is thought of to be more valuable for developing writing. In that, students are most likely engaged cognitively with the feedback provided and focusing on self-correction. By checking and re-checking their written texts, students will recognize certain error patterns and therefore deepen their existing knowledge. Conversely, direct feedback is more useful for language acquisition. It better works with learners whose proficiency level is low since they lack the necessary skills to deal with indirect feedback (Ellis, 2009 as cited in Moser, 2020).

Almost similarly, Ferris (2012) confirms that feedback in an indirect form is beneficial in the sense that it leads for more cognitive engagement, problem solving, and reflection in addition to its long term benefits.

Direct feedback options are quite straightforward. The teacher opts for some tips including substitution, insertion, deletion, or reformulation to provide the repaired structure to

the student. On the other side, in indirect feedback, the instructor pushes the learners to detect the problem and let them solve it (that is, providing the correct form).

4.4.3. Implicit versus Explicit Feedback

Other distinction is set between explicit and implicit feedback. By explicit feedback, the teacher indicates the ill-formedness of a learner's utterance and provides the correct form of the structure (Rauber and Gil, 2004)

Ellis (2011) states that feedback is explicit, if it clearly makes the learner aware that a correction is made or needs to be made, whereas implicit feedback is embedded for some functions. The implicit explicit dichotomy is disconcerted in terms of effectiveness. Yet, there is a great consensus that both implicit and explicit feedback foster acquisition if learners notice the structure that is corrected.

Notwithstanding, due to various learner-related factors and the nature of the grammatical structure, students' noticing of the grammatical structure which is the target of feedback is affected. Such factors involve proficiency level, working memory capacity, and language anxiety. Rightly, while explicit feedback is likely to be effective for some structures, implicit feedback may work better for others (Ellis, 2021).

As far as the effectiveness of either explicit or implicit feedback is considered, Lyster, Saito, & Sato (2013) note that despite the fact that explicit feedback is more likely noticed by learners, the effects of implicit feedback are rather longer lasting compared with those of explicit feedback.

4.4.4. Metalinguistic Feedback

Metalinguistic feedback is a way to explain errors to learners. One of the most commonly used forms of metalinguistic feedback is error codes where the level of

explicitness is dependent on the proficiency level of the students. Metalinguistic feedback can rather take the form of metalinguistic explanations. The latter can occur when the former is not fully grasped by learners. That is, when learners cannot understand why their linguistic form is incorrect (Moser, 2020)

4.4.5. Focused versus Unfocused Feedback

Focused feedback entails an indication and/or correction of two or three categories of errors, whereas in unfocused feedback all errors are targeted (Moser, 2020).

Sheen (2011) refers to the term focused CF as "an intensive CF that repeatedly targets one or a very limited number of linguistic feature, whereas unfocused CF is used to refer to extensive CF that targets a range of grammatical structures (p.8). By the same token, Beuningen (2021) refers to focused CF as targeting a unique or just few predetermined linguistic pattern(s), however, the errors which are not part of the pre-selected list are not corrected or indicated.

Unfocused CF is another feedback option in which a wider range of errors are targeted. In literature, other labels are found to refer to focused and unfocused CF such as selective and comprehensive feedback, and intensive and extensive feedback.

Sheen (2011) further notes that while focused CF is mostly investigated in OCF, unfocused CF is rather investigated in WCF. Focused feedback deals with students' most recurrent error patterns. Therefore, teachers tend to provide precise CF which is so beneficial to students (Ferris, 2012).

Regardless that each of the above mentioned forms has merits and demerits, the choice of which feedback type to apply is dependent on the target of the instruction, students' needs as well as their proficiency level.

4.5. Effective Corrective Feedback

Through the process of teaching, teachers seek to make improvements in learners' TL development. Feedback on learners' performance is one way teachers tend to apply to make such improvements. CF is effective when learners benefit from it and improve their performance. According to Sadler (1989) as cited in Moser (2020), there are three criteria for the effective feedback. First, feedback should have a comprehensible model to be aimed for. Second, it should compare the actual level of performance with the model of the target form in order to identify a gap between the current level and the standard. Finally, it should initiate an action that closes that gap. That is, feedback should first set an aim to achieve; what students are intended to produce, identify the mismatch between the actual level and the desired level, and finally, fill in the gap through initiating a change in the actual performance.

Another stance on the effectiveness of CF is tied to Ellis (2017, p. 20) who considers feedback as "a process rather than a one-off application of the array of strategies available to them but should apply them systematically" (quoted in Chen and Liu, 2021). In this viewpoint, it is noteworthy that CF should be applied methodically taking into consideration that different factors are likely to intervene according to each classroom context. Further, any type of feedback which leads to attracting students' attention and rising their noticing of errors than the one which does not. Considerably, one of the factors that facilitate learners' interlanguage development is noticing the gap between learners' actual level of performance and the target-like level. Genuinely, CF is a way which drives learners to notice the gap (Chen and Liu, 2021).

Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) consider CF to be more effective when it is presented within a meaningful context of use. In support of this, CF is less effective when it is provided in isolation. Hence, investigating both teachers' and students' preferences for CF is important in order to get a beneficial teaching practice combined with results of CF.

4.6. The Role of Corrective Feedback in Foreign Language Classroom

The rise in popularity of CF has intensified the debate as far as its role in language teaching and learning is concerned. Some researchers draw on the positive role of CF in L2 acquisition and instruction. Their claim is based on the belief that CF contributes effectively in the development of linguistic knowledge. Alternatively, other researchers arguably contend that CF is not beneficial in L2 development. Theoretically, while Nativists consider that CF plays less/ no role in L2 learning, Cognitivists and Interactionists, on the other hand, argue that CF is essential not only in L2 acquisition, but in L2 development as well. Besides, some language teaching methods and approaches views vary significantly regarding the role of CF. Accordingly, CLT emphasizes that language learning should be meaning focused which aims to successful communication without explicit correction. That is, the role of CF is downplayed (Nassaji and Kartchava, 2017).

Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) point out the role of CF in promoting L2 growth and development. They argue that CF is crucial in the kind of scaffolding that teachers need to provide to individual learners to promote continuing L2 growth. In that, CF serves in the development of interlanguage. Ultimately, students' uptake will be elicited (Abaya, 2014).

Moreover, Lyster and Ranta (1997) assert that providing feedback leads to the production of comprehensible output. Apparently, during interaction, when students receive useful and consistent feedback, language features are likely to be more salient for them. Consequently, learners' attention will be directed towards language forms which, in turn, will later on be used when producing an output. Furthermore, another outcome of negotiation of form during the provision of CF lies in self-repair which in turn leads to more accuracy.

In support of this, responses to learners' utterances contribute in learners' rate and manner of learning. Annett (1969) describes the results of CF as follow: an impetus to

motivate and stimulate increased efforts, a reinforcer of learners' responses, and a contributor to the change of future responses (cited in Chaudron, 1977). Further, Chaudron (1988) considers that providing feedback is an essential way to make learners aware of the accuracy level of the target language. Obviously, learners will correct their future utterances.

4.7.Technology-Enhanced Feedback

With the advent of modern technologies, Computer Assisted Language Learning has radically impacted many fields and disciplines and likewise the field of L2 instruction. The intersection between technology and learning L2 skills particularly writing resulted in electronic feedback (Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

Dating back to the 1960's, the incorporation of CALL to CF was in the form of learner-computer interaction. The latter has been referred to as computer-generated CF. This technological advancement in L2 learning and teaching serves in providing explicit and implicit feedback to learners by focusing on graded and discrete grammatical points. In past few decades, technological advances and diversity in CALL applications has been used to identify, process, and to communicate L2 errors to learners (Heift, et, al., 2021). In contrast to computer-generated feedback, computer-mediated feedback involves interaction of L2 learners, speakers, and teachers with each other via the computer. Computer-mediated feedback is individualized; it can assist learners recognize their errors in their L2 production. Consequently, this process will eventually lead to L2 development.

Lavolette, Ploio & Kahng (2015) consider the positive addition of computer-assisted feedback to teacher's feedback which aims to help learners progress in L2. Similarly, Sackstein (2017) contends that although technology is not necessary, it contributes to a greater extent in the process of PF. The use of technology allows real-time collaboration easier and facilitates access to learning. Further, it streamlines the learning as well as the

revision processes as old feedback and revisions can be retrievable. Moreover, Ware and Warschauer (2006) argue that automated feedback programs help instructors to save time that is likely to be used in other types of writing instructions.

4.8. Teacher Feedback

To provoke students' impetus to learning and engage them in the active construction of knowledge, TF is an effective form of mediation that assists learners to enhance their learning. Typically, in FL classrooms, the teacher is regarded the most powerful source of knowledge as well as feedback. In this regard, Lee (2017, p. 75) contends that TF ought to be formative in nature, useful to students and interwoven with teaching and learning. He outlines some guiding principles for effective TF practices.

- Less is More: The more feedback learners receive from their teachers, the less it is helpful for them to manage their learning. In this viewpoint, teachers should be more selective in providing feedback as they should bear in mind that it is not necessary to respond to every single problematic issue.
- Respond to Errors Selectively: As stated above, too much feedback is not necessarily good. It is better for teachers to combine categories of errors or deal solely with prevalent and recurring errors. Self-correction is also recommended as to better monitor their learning.
- Diagnose Strengths and Weaknesses with Feedback: Feedback in nature informs students of their positive and negative attributes. It is, hence, crucial for teachers to identify students' major strengths and weaknesses. Typically, targeting the areas for improvement is facilitated.
- Adopt a Balanced Approach: To get balanced does not imply comprehensive feedback. Yet, teachers' feedback should correspond to their instructional as well as students' needs.

- Be Concrete and Constructive: Effective TF should be clear, and constructive in that it equips students with relevant metalanguage and drives them to increase metacognitive awareness to evaluate their learning.
- Tailor Feedback. It is crucial for teachers to provide varied feedback on the basis of the individual requirements of learners. By doing so, students will be more motivated and engaged.
- Aim to Encourage and Motivate: Teachers are advised to create a supportive learning atmosphere where students receive teachers' feedback in a positive manner.
- Integrate Teaching, Learning, and Assessment: Feedback that teachers provide should be directly linked to the teaching expectations and assessment purposes.

4.9.Peer Feedback

PF is frequently referred to as peer response, peer editing, peer critique, or peer evaluation (Burket and Wally, 2021). PF refers to the process where students read and provide constructive comments to their fellow students on their written works (Farrah, 2012). Typically, learners actively play the roles of both feedback providers and feedback receivers by stepping out from the usual role of feedback receivers and increasing their involvement by taking park in the learning process including feedback.

PF has also been defined by Liu and Hansen (2002) who refer to PF as "the use of learners as sources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities … in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing" (quoted in Lee, 2017). In this regard, PF is judged beneficial in L2 writing instruction, because it largely contributes in enhancing L2 students' written performance. Storch (2019) states that through the activity of PF, learners tend to evaluate and provide feedback comments on each other's drafts in order to make

further improvements. Liu and Carless regard PF as communicative process which involves learners in dialogues about language use and form (2006, p. 280). This definition highlights that PF is primarily interactional through which learners engage in negotiations and discussions on language structures to achieve better understanding and enhanced learning. According to Iwashita and Dao (2021), PF involves all response information that shows the learners how they perform in L2. This form of feedback is processed between peers holding the same status of being a learner. Learners in PF are either feedback providers or receivers. PF can, therefore, be classified into two sorts on the basis of the function it performs

- Input-Provision: PF can be intended to supply learners with information related to their performance. Learners are provided with evidence on what is correct and what is not in their language output. This PF takes the forms of recasts, reformulations, and explicit correction. So, in addition to indicating the errors, this PF provides alternatives to treat it.
- Output-Promotion: PF in this case is restricted to indicating errors, and leave students with an opportunity to self-correct. Strategies which manifest out-put promotion are repetition, clarification requests, and metalinguistic comments.

Mendonca and Johnson (1994) refer to the settings where PF occurs. Accordingly, the settings where PF is carried out differ according to the number of students involved. PF which involve two students commenting on each other is called “peer dyads”. This is recognized in literature to provide learners with more social interactions. Other feedback which involves three or more students is termed “peer reviewing response groups”. The latter enables learners to get more varied feedback and distinct views and comments (cited in Burket and Wally, 2013).

4.9.1. Implementing Peer Feedback

The newly adopted venture involving receiving feedback from peers has recently become a crucial alternative to teacher-based forms of feedback in L2 contexts within the increasingly adopted student-centred approach (Hyland, 2003). PF in L2 writing classrooms has been largely adopted particularly over the past two decades. In order to successfully and effectively implement PF in writing classes, certain regards need to be considered.

First, one of the principles of implementing PF is the principle of consistency. PF can be useful if teachers consider it as an option, view it from the beginning of the writing course as a regular part of class and devote the sufficient time for it.

Second, explaining the benefits of PF to students. Although PF appear to be generally favourable among L2 students, some misperceived views such as students' worries about the competency of peers may arise. Hence, it is teachers' role to address all the challenges that are likely to accompany PF right from the starting of the writing class.

Third, preparing students carefully to give and receive peer response. In this regard, being trained to peer response will effectively result in good feedback quality. This view has extensively been examined in literature.

Fourth, form pairs or groups in a thoughtful way for the feedback process. In L2 literature, writing groups involve from 2 students to 4 students in size. Some teachers prefer to utilise dyads (pairs), other opt for slighter larger groups. Ferris (2003) prefers PF groups that are stable and are not changed along the writing course by mixing students on the basis of language background, gender, and ability, having mixed-abilities writers. In that, weak student writers may take an advantage and benefit from reading regularly papers of their peers who are more proficient writers. Likewise, the more proficient writers develop their critical thinking as they provide helpful comments to the less proficient learners.

Lastly, monitoring peer review sessions by the instructor. It is important for the instructor to stay tuned and monitor feedback procedures so that he/ she can respond to evolving questions or arising interaction problems during PF that neither of the students can respond to nor answer them.

4.9.2. Peer Feedback and Second/ Foreign Language Learning

The merits of PF extend beyond benefiting students' writing skills, it also promotes both the oral and the social skills which are essential to communicate feedback in an appropriate way as both the writer and the reader are engaged in a collaborative process of communication (Štadjuhar, 2013). PF is advocated by the Constructivist Approach to Learning which favours students active engagement in the construction of their knowledge. By virtue of that, students interacting with each other and the environment become more autonomous by occupying both roles of the writer and the critic instead of passively receiving critics from the teacher. Furthermore, by making writing into a more positive activity, PF also fosters students' self-confidence (Lee, 1997 as cited in Burket and Wally, 2013).

Barnes (1976) argues that engaging students in an elucidative talk is likely to boost their linguistic as well as their cognitive skills. Ultimately, their communication skills will improve (cited in Burket and Wally, 2013).

Liu and Carless (2006) argue that PF has a greater potential for learning. Typically, PF enables students to hold an active role in managing their own learning. They also point out that PF is an effective strategy that enables students to self-assess themselves. In this regard, students tend to develop certain skills through the process of PF. These skills are common in both self and peer assessment. Genuinely, further improvements are to be noticed in students' performance notably in high-stakes assessment which is immensely valued by students.

Butler and Winne (1995) consider PF as a major factor of self-regulated learning by which students tend to look for PF from external sources such as peers in collaborative groups. Additionally, Nicol and Mac Farlane-Dick (2006) contend that students providing feedback and commenting on their peers' works are likely to develop a sense of objectivity in relation to standards that can then be applied on their own work (cited on Liu and carless, 2006).

In terms of practicality, students receive PF in a quicker manner than the feedback provided by academics. Ultimately, PF can become an essential part of the learning process rather than the occasional teacher's feedback (Liu and carless, 2006).

Another significant reason in favour of engaging students in PF is that it extends learning from the individual and private scope to a more public and overt in which students share and elucidate to others what they know and understand (Liu and Carless, 2006).

Iwashita and Dao (2021) view the benefits of PF to L2 development from various perspectives: educational, cognitive, and socio-cognitive.

Falchicov (2001) has prompted peer feedback for many considerations. It is believed to enhance and support language learning when learners become actively engaged in developing their understanding of the material at hand. Jonassen, et al., (1995) totally agreed with him. They contend that PF provokes ideas interchange among learners. That is, in addition to flourishing students with various sorts of ideas, PF promotes active involvement and participation of learners. These contributions allow for more collaborative and cooperative learning (Ṡtadjuhar, 2013).

- **Educational Perspective:** The overall output of students will improve when students provide PF to each other and therefore developing their L2 knowledge. In literature, it is acknowledged that PF leads to promoting learning and critical

thinking skills in addition to generating active reflection on the learners' own and their peers' performance. PF process also contributes in meaning making and knowledge building (Nicol, 2009). Besides, it stimulates multiple metacognitive functions such as planning and regulating learners' own thinking. These metacognitive processes serve in building students' reflective knowledge which in turn results in the reconstruction of their own knowledge. Furthermore, when learners are engaged in PF, they will have more opportunities for practising speaking than in teacher-learner interaction. Ultimately, their speaking proficiency will be improved (Iwashita and Dao, 2021).

- **Cognitive perspective:** Oral interaction resulted from giving and receiving PF contributes in receiving and processing information. The two types of PF are based upon two theoretical inclinations; Cognitive Interactionism and Skill Acquisition Theory in order to better construe the cognitive processes leading to learning. For Cognitive Interactionists, the facilitative role of input-providing PF, like recasts, is to direct attention to the structural aspects of language. As for Skill Acquisition Theory, it is maintained that guided practice along with feedback converts students' declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Accordingly, feedback taking place in meaningful communications leads to the gradual shift from the effortful to the automatic use of L2. That is, the feedback provided in contextualised practice will eventually result in the proceduralization and automatization of language forms which in turn lead to more accurate processing of L2 forms.
- **Sociocognitive perspective:** According to this perspective, the amount and the quality of feedback provided during interaction depends on the context. That is the effectiveness of PF is to a greater extent determined by cognitive processes (such

as attention, information processing) that are meditated by social and contextual factors where PF is processed.

4.9.3. Peer Feedback and Second/ Foreign Language Writing

PF has evidently demonstrated its effectiveness in L2 writing contexts. Supporting to this view, Lee (2017), notes that the contemporary process writing instruction adopts PF which clearly signifies an intense departure from the conventional form of feedback which is provided solely by the teacher when learners' final work is already submitted. This old fashion feedback is generally attributed to the traditional teaching beliefs where the product pedagogy of writing was dominant. Consistent with this claim, Burket and Wally (2013) call for peer review for a number of arguments. They state that PF is a true incentive for revision. It drives learners to revise their papers to be later on reviewed by their peers. In addition, PF benefits both student writers and student readers in that it expands the audience to not only the teacher. It also contributes in enhancing learners' critical thinking for both learners be they writers or readers. When learners act as readers, they tend to read and assess their peers' manuscripts before they offer judgements. When they act as writers, the feedback they receive from their peers drives them to first make judgements on the relevance and appropriateness of peers' comments to which they have to respond. Second, PF pushes learners to reflect on their texts to clear them up according to expectations and needs of their audience.

According to Jacobs (1989), PF impels learners gradually to write autonomously when they write and edit their papers without any guidance or support from the tutor. PI which leads automatically to collaboration between student writers. Collaborative work helps learners to overcome the difficulties they encounter in writing. By doing so, learners become more self-confident and independent writers. They also develop positive thoughts to writing (cited in Lee, 1997).

Burket and Wally (2013) avow the efficacy of PF. In their view, PF not only assists learners to develop their writing skills, but also assists them to develop a sense of relevance when learners recognize that their writings matter to their fellows. This reality drives learners to be more mindful for revision. In other words, PF fosters students' motivation to revision and hence to writing.

Ferris (2003) argues that when students indulge in PF, they get more varied audience other than the instructor himself. This audience is likely to be more authentic and realistic. Further, she states that consistent reading and reflecting on peers' works allow students to develop critical thinking skills which in turn lead them to self-assess their own works. On that basis, it can be summed up that PF is twofold way of enhancing writing skills and improving reading strategies.

Conclusion

Throughout this section, the central concept of the current study was introduced and elucidated**.** Crucially, the emphasis was placed on understanding CF and PF in an attempt to adequately apply them in language classroom. It is quite evident, now, that responding to students' performance is a move towards effective language use.

In summary, this section started by introducing and highlighting the concept of feedback as a general term that refers to any information students receive about their performance. Then, it elucidated what CF is, highlighted both WCF and OCF with reference to their different types and methods. In this section, theoretical views about CF were also introduced. The section shed the light on PF, its implementation, and its role in both L2 learning and L2 writing.

Section Five: Related Studies

Introduction

Learning writing is genuinely challenging for almost all EFL students around the world. This fact triggers numerous researchers to investigate and search solutions in order to find out ways, techniques, and strategies that are likely to enhance learners' written performances. One of the techniques is pursuing learners with different types of feedback with regard to their writing productions. PF is a one form of feedback which mirrors the recent advances in SLA context and L2 pedagogies; that is, student-centeredness. As far as the current study which aims at investigating the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing is considered, this section aims to illuminate and provide clearer insights on research studies in relation to the current study. Therefore, it seeks to: first, provide an overview of the studies that contributed in shaping the overall framework and delineating the problematic of this study; second, to identify the research gap and what contributions the present work seeks to add to the existing research findings. The following studies are reported in chronological order representing some of the researches conducted in the last decade.

5.1. A Review of Related Studies

To start, CF types were investigated to examine their effects on grammar accuracy in academic writing. Regardless of including PF, the study conducted by Baleghizadeh and Gordani (2012) attempted to examine the influence of providing various CF types (direct feedback, student-teacher conference, or no CF) to enhance academic writing and grammatical accuracy. They essentially assume that improving learners' accuracy is a crucial element to effective writing, and that teacher's feedback on grammar may be a useful teaching technique to enhance the writing accuracy. Baleghizadeh and Gordani involved (45) students enrolled in Three (03) intact classes of academic writing in Tehran's Shahid Rajaee Teacher

Education University. Two classes were randomly assigned into two EGs, and one class into a CG named. After having the pre-test, the two EGs received the treatment. One EG was provided with CF on grammatical points of the writing product. For the second EG, student-teacher conferences on grammatical structures were conducted to discuss the grammatical errors that students commit in their writings. On the contrary, the CG was not provided with any sort of feedback on grammar in their written productions. After having the post-treatment test, results indicated that both EGs achieved improvements in grammatical accuracy in their writing (although group B outperformed group A). That is the group that was subjected to teacher-student conferences. Remarkably, the CG grammatical accuracy witnessed no notable improvements. It is thus concluded that certain CF types do significantly enhance grammar accuracy development.

In the meantime, another research was tackled by Farrah (2012). In his study, he aimed at investigating the efficacy of PF on Hebron University learners' writing skills. Initially, it can be noted down that Farrah addressed writing in general without targeting a specific element. The study sample consisted of (105) undergraduate students at English Department at Hebron University. Consequently, the study's findings referred to the positive attitudes that learners developed towards PF as it provided them with opportunities to socially interact in addition to improving their abilities to write skilfully. Besides, the outcomes of PF extended to enable learners to think more critically, be more confident, more motivated, and more creative due to being exposed to a variety of texts generated by their fellow classmates.

In a subsequent study, grammatical accuracy in writing was examined with reference to the impact WCF by Daneshvar and Rahimi (2014). To fulfil this research aim, (90) low-intermediate female learners were targeted and randomly assigned into (03) groups (two EGs and one CG). The researchers opted for a quasi-experimental design in which they set learners for one initial test, prior to the treatment they received which was focused WCF for EG1, and

recast WCF for EG2. Yet, for the CG no feedback was provided. Following the treatments, immediate and delayed tests were taken. Significantly, the researchers found that the two EGs performed better than the CG. Furthermore, their results showed that both EGs' good mastery of grammatical forms was noted in their writings until the delayed post-test. This study emphasized the efficacy of WCF, particularly the recast WCF, in helping students to self-edit their writings and notice their problems.

For Suseno (2014), who considered grammar one of the serious problems for students when they write in EFL classes, examining the role of feedback to eliminate the grammatical imperfections of academic writing in EFL classes was an option. Various types of feedback were provided including peer reviews, teacher notes, and class discussion. Data were collected from students' free writing, and analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results obtained showed that all respondents encounter grammatical problems in writing. They also revealed that students' writings improved in terms of grammatical accuracy before and after feedback. To state it in another way, feedback impact was judged positively with regard to students' achievements in grammar.

In another study that was conducted in Iran, Akbarzadeh, Saeidi, and Chehreh (2014) dealt with oral interactive feedback to test its impact on the accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' writing. (50) Sophomore learners were grouped into two groups with (25) learners per group. One of these groups was presented to IF in the form of elicitations, and metalinguistic feedback concerning the errors noticed in their writing. The other group was provided with explicit feedback presented in the oral form on the errors committed. After having the post test, the results indicated that the first group significantly outperformed the second group in terms of accurate grammar use.

Altstaedter and Doolittle (2014) carried out a study through which they tended to find out how American students perceive PF in L2 writing classes. To carry out this study, a semi-structured questionnaire was administered to (65) undergraduate students to elicit their perception of PF experience underwent in their writing classes of Spanish. The quantitative results of the questionnaire indicated that students held positive perceptions with significantly higher perceptions of receiving written comments. Besides, the qualitative results revealed that peers' comments focused more on organization and idea development than aspects of grammar and mechanics.

In order to find out the difference between TF and TF accompanied with PF, Tai, Lin, and Yang (2015) conducted a research study in which they involve (107) EFL students randomly assigned to EG and CG. While the first received both teacher and PF, the second was given only TF. Typically, learners who benefited from both feedback forms showed significant progress in writing fluency and accuracy than the learners who were exposed to TF only. That is, improvements include grammar, mechanics, organisation, and style. In this context, it is pointed down that PF addition was contributive, though, no further explanations were presented on the way it served to support TF.

As prior research indicated the benefits of giving and receiving PF to enhance students'writing ability, Cinar Yastibaş with Erdost Yastibaş (2015) conducted a study which sought to probe students' perceptions of PF and its impact on their writing anxiety. The study took place in Turkey with (16) Turkish university students. The study followed a mixed-methods design. In data collection procedures, the researchers relied on two interviews, diaries, and L2 Writing Anxiety Inventory (WAI). The WAI was employed as initial and final tests, whereas interviews were kept to the end of the investigation. By the end, the researchers found that learners perceived writing positively. Additionally, they acknowledged the

contribution of PF in reducing learners' anxiety, increasing their confidence, and improving the quality of their writing.

Achieving writing accuracy was further examined through the implementation of WCF by Kang and Han (2015). To carry out this study, two questions were mainly asked: Does WCF help to improve the grammatical accuracy of L2 writing? And what makes it effective? The results obtained showed that WCF led to enhanced grammatical accuracy in L2 writing. However, some other variables influenced the efficacy of WCF chiefly learners' proficiency status, the writing genres that learners were tasked on, and the settings.

The study conducted by Baker (2016) in USA took another stream. Instead of focusing on the outcomes, that is PF impact on students' quality of writing, the study goes beyond to assess the process of PF in itself dealing with the strategies that might affect its efficacy. The study provoked deeper understanding on the necessity to assess the process in itself.

Ghaicha and Ait Taleb (2016) study took place in Ibn Zohr University in Aghadir, Morocco and targeted primarily three key issues about PF: 1) its impact on the quality of students' revised drafts, 2) its validity and relevance, and 3) perceptions and attitudes of students towards it. The researcher collected data using two tests and a questionnaire. The two sources of data revealed that PF signed significant developments in Moroccan EFL university students' writing performance. It also indicated that the participants can provide valid feedback. As for students' perceptions, the findings indicated a general acceptance of PF as pedagogical tool to foster writing quality.

In another paper, the focus was directed to training where trained and untrained PF were scrutinized to test their impact on the quality of students' writing in USA. This study was done by Altstaedter (2016) who indulged (70) undergraduate students of Spanish Language as participants of the study. The participants were pre-determined into (04) intact groups that

were randomly assigned to an EG (containing two classes called trained group), and a CG (composed of the two remaining intact classes and referred to as untrained group). The results of the investigation showed that participants of the trained group tended to focus on content and organisation in their fellows' written papers, whereas untrained group directed their emphasis to grammar and punctuation. At the end, the writing quality of both groups significantly improved in terms of accuracy and organisation.

Mon and Zein (2017) work was about the ability to detect grammatical errors committed by students. They investigated how PF and TF helped in identifying grammatical mistakes. This comparison indicated that PF helped greatly in error identification than instructor' feedback.

The study of Nazarloo and Notash (2018) focused on perceptions and practices of teachers. Researchers found that although teachers in Iran held positive attitudes to explicit feedback provision, they presumably ignored grammatical errors when they are committed in the classroom for the sake of maintaining the flow of communication. As for sources of feedback, results also revealed that feedback offered by the instructor is more preferable than peer and self-feedback.

Kuttogsuy (2019) conducted a study through which he aimed to investigate the influence of PF on learners' ability to write in English Thailand. The findings that were yielded from this study showed that learners had surprisingly progressed in their ability to write in English. Further, students exhibited their satisfaction with the experience of PF in boosting social relations, collaborative work, developing critical thinking skills, and being more autonomous.

In a similar vein, Suryani, Rozimela, and Desvalini (2019) indicated that learners experiencing PF developed better writing skill than the students who got feedback from the

teacher. These conclusions came as a result of an experimental work on the contribution of PF in developing writing skills in a high school in Indonesia. The researchers, nonetheless, were satisfied with the positive outcomes on learners' writing ability without digging deeper in the process of PF and how it could reach these findings.

In (2020), Rouhil, Dibah and Mohebbi assessed the impact of both provision and reception of WCF on refining L2 grammatical accuracy in writing. That is who could benefit more from PF, students who provide or students who receive. As a result, in addition to substantiating the feedback offered by peers, findings also evidenced that PF providers outperformed feedback receivers.

Consistent with the role of feedback in developing L2 writing accuracy, Pourdana, Payam, and Yousefi (2021) probed WCF role in writing achievements of discourse markers. (42) Iranian students of EFL in an intact group participated in the study. After a period of treatment which lasted for (08) weeks, results showed that metalinguistic WCF contributed to improving discourse markers accuracy with an implication to apply other WCF options on other error aspects in writing.

More significantly, Albelihi and Al-Ahdal (2021) investigated the role of pair and small-group feedback on the performance of EFL learners in writing in Saudi Arabia. After examining these two PF types, they realized that students benefitted greatly from small group PF. This research widens the researcher' thought and provided him with insights to engage in a study on PF where small groups are of a central focus.

Recently, Bamford (2022) supported the previous conducts on PF and its remarkable contribution in getting written performances better. Typically, Bamford (2020) study looked forward to find out how PF impacts the performance of EFL learners in writing. Also, it probed learners' opinions regarding PF. The participants concerned with the study were 19

students of the 5th grade from an AHS in Lower Austria. After analysing students' performances, the results obtained showed that PF impacted the written performances positively. In addition, the positive opinions that students showed were unquestionably reflected in their high scores in writing.

Nguyen (2022) conducted a study with (84) EFL divided into two groups (EG and CG) to test the effect of PF on EFL learners' writing achievement. While the EG benefitted from PF, the CG was taught and assessed following the conventional way. Results marked improvements in the performance of both groups in the post-test, though the EG out-achieved the CG. Moreover, an attitude questionnaire was administered to EG who undoubtedly expressed their appreciation to the PF experience. Nguyen findings were notably achieved by means of an experiment and a questionnaire. Although it provided positive evidence on the role of PF, it did not fully explain how the positive outcomes were realized.

Haol and Razalil (2022) explored the influence of PF on writing in EFL high school in China. To attain the objectives of the study, (100) students were subjected to an experiment. Firstly, the students were set into two groups representing the EG and the CG. Then, A treatment was supplied to the EG. In this realm, The EG got PF in parallel with TF, while the CG got only TF. Lastly, a survey was administered to probe students' attitudes towards PF. Substantially, it was found that PF was quite beneficial and impacted many areas in learners' writings including organisation, content, and grammar as well. Moreover, the survey conveyed that Chinese high school learners communicated positive attitudes towards PF when practised in writing classrooms.

Adopting a purely qualitative approach, Feifei (2022) performed a study in which he carried out an interview with (06) Chinese students, and a classroom observation, to assess students' writings alongside PF implementation. The results he obtained notably signed the

positive contribution of PF particularly on students' rewriting. Notable achievements were also marked in students' productions at the grammatical level. Further, learners expressed their satisfaction and willingness in both tasks of giving and receiving PF.

Conclusion

This section dealt mainly with a collection of research studies conducted in the last decade on the role of CF (and PF in particular) in boosting the writing performance of EFL learners. These studies evidenced that various forms of CF and PF contributed to positively enhancing learners' writing achievements and contributed to enhance the grammar accuracy in the students' writings. In addition, the studies revealed that PF succeeded in creating positive attitudes among students who experienced it.

The research studies mentioned in this section focused on the outcomes of PF on EFL students' writing performance and/ or accuracy. Remarkably, the examination of the role of PF has dealt with the outcomes realized in students' performances. Nevertheless, no explanations or justifications were provided on how students' accuracy improved in writing. In other words, studying the impact of PF has not been dealt with in terms of analysing peers' interaction. That is instead of focusing merely on the outcomes of implementing PF, this study will also analyse students' interaction during PF. On this basis, the present work seeks to fill in this research gap through investigating the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing through analysing students' interactions going on during PF to find out how PF contributed to achieving positive outcomes in grammatical accuracy.

CHAPTER TWO

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Chapter Two: Research Methodology and Design

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Introduction

The previous chapters explored the body of literature upon which the current study is grounded. In this chapter, in an attempt to investigate the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing, a methodological design was drawn in order to control the problem under study from various angles and to, successfully, answer the research questions and test the hypotheses.

This chapter, then, tries to fully explain the methodological aspects involved in this study. That is, how the research is conducted. First of all, it discusses the various research paradigms where the current study is best situated. Then, the chapter deals with the research approach and research design that suit the current study. In this chapter, the researcher highlights the target population and the suitable technique followed in determining the sample. Further, the data gathering tools and analyses procedures used are all introduced and explained.

2.1.Research Paradigm

The choice and development of any research is significantly affected by the research paradigm where researchers orient their researches. That is, within which research paradigm researchers can best find answers to their research questions. A paradigm refers to the conceptual framework and the theoretical assumptions that guide the research process (Tavakoli, 2012). Although paradigms are mostly taken for granted, they are important to acknowledge because they exert an influence over the choice of the method to carry out the research. For Lincoln and Guba (1985), a paradigm constitutes a set of elements namely ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology (cited in Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017)/

The term "ontology" is used to refer to the study of the essence of the natural world. It deals with the assumptions made about the nature of a social phenomenon. That is, how something can make sense. These presuppositions concerning the nature of reality are very crucial in understanding what nature of the data gathered is.

"Epistemology", on the other hand, deals with the nature and forms of knowledge. The researchers' epistemological position contributes in understanding the role of the researcher and his relationship with the other research participants (Leavy, 2017).

"Methodology" of a paradigm is a broad term that is used to refer to all of the research design, methods, approaches, and procedures used in the research process. All of which contribute in answering the research questions (Keeves, 1997, as cited in Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). To exemplify, population and sampling techniques, data gathering instruments, data analyses procedures are all parts that come under the broad field of methodology.

Finally, "axiology" refers to the moral and ethical aspects that need to be taken into account when a research is conducted. It encompasses the philosophical approach which is

responsible for making decisions about what is right and what is not along the whole process of research (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). There are a number of paradigms, though three prominent ones are numerously discussed in literature: positivism, constructivism/ interpretivist and pragmatism.

Positivists' belief is that only unique, agreed-on, fixed reality does exist in the world. Hence, researchers must work to find out a singular, universal truth. For them, this reality can be quantified. Positivist paradigm seeks to explain causal relationships in the real world. The aim of research accordingly is to measure it as precisely as possible. For positivists, the results obtained from a research study in one context are further applicable to other contexts and situations (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). According to positivists, the primary aim of research is to formulate hypotheses, make predictions and inferences. Objectivity is considered as one of the main criteria of the positivist paradigm; the researcher should be detached from any sort of subjectivity and be objective both in the collection and interpretation of data (Heigham and Croker, 2009). The research placed in this paradigm follows deductive logic, hypothesis formulation, testing hypothesis, offering operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions to arrive at valid conclusions. Positivist paradigm offers explanations and makes predications on the basis of measurable outcomes. It, thus, advocates for the quantitative research methods (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

As opposed to positivism, constructivist/ interpretivist paradigm believes that there is no unique reality in the world. However, truth is socially constructed by individuals interacting with their world. Individuals are responsible for constructing meanings through social interactions (Leavy, 2017). That is, each individual creates his own understanding of the world and therefore reality is not something standard, but rather context-, time-, and person-bound. Interpretivists emphasize understanding the individuals and the interpretations they

made about the world surrounding them (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). The tenets of the constructivist paradigm constitute the underpinnings of the qualitative research (Heigham and Croker, 2009).

In a compromise position, stands the pragmatism paradigm. As for pragmatism paradigm, reality can neither be accessed through approaching only one scientific method as advocated by positivists, nor is socially constructed as declared by interpretivists. Rather, proponents of the pragmatic paradigm called for a comprehensive vision which could allow for the use of plenty of research methods to study the phenomenon at hand. That is to say, they looked for approaches to research that could best shed light on the actual behaviours of participants, the beliefs that could justify these behaviours, and the outcomes that are likely to follow these behaviours. They, therefore, argued that this could only be realised through the use of more feasible and pluralistic approaches that could allow for a combination of methods. Therefore, this paradigm was an endeavour to advocate the use of mixed-methods approach in research to better understand, explain and justify human behaviour (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017).

On the basis of the literature stated above, this research falls into the pragmatism research paradigm. This paradigm is thought to be the most appropriate because it provides the opportunity to mix between qualitative and quantitative research methods to data collection and analysis. It also seems suitable to best answer the research questions and test the hypothesis depending on multiple viewpoints.

2.2.Research Approach

This research endeavours to investigate the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Hence, in order to find answers to the research questions, the

appropriate approach is followed. In fact there are two fundamental approaches qualitative approach and quantitative approach.

2.2.1. Quantitative Approach

Quantitative researches are numerical in essence. It is based on measurement of quantities. It involves procedures of data gathering that primarily yield numerical data. The latter is then analysed using statistical methods such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software (Dörnyei, 2007). Quantitative research is, thus, an approach that tests objective theories by checking out the relationships between variables. Accordingly, variables can be measured on the basis of numerical data that are later on analysed through statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014).

According to Kothari (2004), sub-researches can be depicted from the quantitative approach. It can be sub-classified into inferential research, experimental research, and simulation researches. Inferential approach seeks to form a data base from which to infer relationships or characteristics of population. This frequently means survey research in which a sample is studied and investigated in order to determine its characteristics which will further be inferred to the whole population. The experimental approach tends to have much control over the research environment. In that, a causal relationship is established where in the researcher manipulates some variables to observe the effects they exert on the others. Simulation approach involves the generation of information and data through the creation of artificial research environment.

As for the current study, quantitative data is manifested in the use of questionnaires, to probe students' as well as teachers' perceptions and readiness concerning PF implementation in WF classes. The study also opts for the experimental design in order to seek the causal

relationship between the variables of the study to determine the effect of PF on students' grammatical accuracy in writing.

2.2.2. Qualitative Approach

Dawson (2002) considers the value of qualitative data in providing researchers with comprehensive and in-depth views. He states that qualitative researches seek to get in-depth views from the participants. They explore attitudes, behaviours, and experiences of individuals using methods such as interviews and focus groups. Qualitative approach is quite adequate when the primary aim of research is to describe, explore, or explain a phenomenon under study (Leavy, 2017). In the words of Dörnyei (2007), qualitative studies deals with data gathering methods that involve essentially open-ended, textual, not-numerical results which are further analysed by non-statistical tools. Examples of research methods encompass observation, interviews, open-response questionnaires, and discourse analysis. By virtue of that, a full, rich picture of participants' views and perspectives is explored and represented (Heigham and Croker, 2009). This study also employed the qualitative approach through analysing students' interaction during the process of giving and receiving PF. In addition, FGDs were held to get participants' opinions and attitudes towards the implementation of PF in writing.

2.2.3. Mixed-Methods Approach

Mixed-Methods approach is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches both in collecting and analysing data. The amalgamation of both qualitative and quantitative insights is likely to result in a comprehensive grasping of the phenomenon under study (Leavy, 2017). This is to justify the fact that qualitative and quantitative approaches are not extremes but rather complementary to each other. That is, one approach complements the other. In this regard, Newman and Benz (1998) define mixed-methods research in the

following way. According to them, both qualitative and quantitative approaches are complementary to each other. These streams should not be regarded, distinct, or rigid categories. Instead, they should be regarded as different extremes on a continuum (cited in Creswell, 2014).

The use of mixed-methods approach is justified by the fact that relying solely on one approach is inadequate because the mix of the strengths of both approaches provides a better understanding of the problem under investigation (Creswell, 2014). Mixed-methods research is considered beneficial in approaching complex issues as it integrates philosophies of both positivism and interpretivist. Ideally, using mixed-methods enables researchers to answer research questions with sufficient depth and breadth as it allows generalisability of results (Dawadi, et al., 2021). To state it differently, the quantitative approach helps in collecting data from a large number of participants, and therefore, it helps to generalize findings to a larger population. The qualitative approach, alternatively, tends to provide a deeper understanding and explanation of the problem being investigated. That is to say, while qualitative data provide depth to study, quantitative data brings breadth to it.

Dawadi, et al., (2021) enumerate a number of justifications behind the combination of qualitative and quantitative insights in research:

- First, the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches works on the expansion of study. Mixed-Methods research approach widens researchers' area of inquiry with sufficient depth and breadth. Therefore, it increases the probability of generalizing findings to wider population.
- Second, based on the belief that both qualitative and quantitative approaches have strengths and weaknesses, so mixed-methods approach is likely to add more values to research when taking the strengths of each approach.

- Third, mixed-methods research helps in overcoming the epistemological variations that exist between the two approaches as it provides a clearer road towards true knowledge.
- Fourth, mixed-methods approach helps in drawing more rigorous conclusions by employing two approaches where one complements the other.
- Fifth, incorporating data from both approaches helps in obtaining valid results. That is, collecting diverse types of data provides greater insights on the phenomenon that a single approach cannot provide.
- Finally, the sixth rationale behind mixing the two approaches is "to develop more effective and refined conclusions by using the results from one method (qualitative or quantitative) to inform or shape the use of another method (qualitative or quantitative)" (Plano Clark and Ivankova, 2016, p. 86, as cited in Dawadi, et al., 2021). That is, the use of one approach is sometimes used to justify or explain the results obtained by another. Hence, the mixed-methods approach is advantageous for it treats the research issue from different angles to get deep, global, and complete understanding of the issue.

Accordingly, the current study opts for a mixed-methods research which incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to obtain data that is likely to worthen the results of the study, widen its scope, and increase its validity and credibility. Firstly quantitative data are gathered by means of two questionnaires oriented to First Year EFL students as well as EFL teachers at English Department at Mohammed Boudiaf University of M'sila, in addition to pre-, progress, and post- tests conducted before, during and after the treatment respectively. The qualitative data, on the other side, are gathered through analysing students discourse (interaction) and conducting the FCD. By doing so, the role of PF in

overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing is investigated thoroughly relying on various forms and sources of data.

2.3.Research Design

After defining the research problem, the researcher, next, comes across the mission of preparing the design of the research work. In this regard, a research design refers to the arrangements that the researcher sets in order to conduct his research. These arrangements encompass how data are going to be collected and analysed. Kothari (2004) refers to research design as the "conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. As such the design includes an outline of what the researcher will do from writing the hypothesis and its operational implications to the final analysis of data" (p. 31). He argues that research design is significant because it facilitates the research process. It also aids the researcher to look forward at the possible flaws and inadequacies through organizing his ideas. Therefore, the ultimate aim of the researcher is to work on a design which serves in attaining the research objectives with less methodological pitfalls.

In mixed-methods approach, three research designs were framed namely the convergent design, the explanatory sequential design, and the exploratory sequential design.

- ***The convergent design*** involves the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data separately, and then comparing the results of each in order to check whether the findings confirm or disconfirm each other (Creswell, 2014). The intent of comparing and combining qualitative and quantitative data is to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the problem under investigation, to validate one sort of findings with the other, and to determine whether participants respond in a similar way to both qualitative and quantitative questions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

That is, the intent of using the convergent design is to enrich the research problem with two different but complementary data (Morse, 1991, as cited in Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

- ***The Explanatory Sequential Design*** is a two-phase mixed-methods research design in which the researcher first starts by collecting and analysing quantitative data, that is, a quantitative phase, followed by a qualitative phase, where data are collected and analysed qualitatively in order to explain the results yielded in the quantitative phase. As far as data collection is concerned, the qualitative data collection builds directly on the quantitative results. In terms of data analysis, each of the databases is analysed separately, and on the basis of quantitative results, the qualitative follow-up is then planned (Creswell, 2014). That is to say, the objective of qualitative data is to provide more comprehension, depth, and more insight to the quantitative results. When the researcher conducts a quantitative phase, and analyses the data, some of the results still need further elucidation, so he/she launches the other phase to explain results in more depth (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).
- ***The Exploratory sequential Design*** is a mixed-methods design where the researcher begins with a qualitative phase of data collection and analysis, and then uses the results to initiate a quantitative phase. As the previous design, the second database builds upon the initial results. The objective behind this design is to reinforce the qualitative data with measurements of larger sample of population for the sake of ensuring the generalizability of findings (Creswell, 2014). Data collection in this design proceeds in two phases with qualitative data in the first phase, followed by quantitative data in the second. The exploratory sequential design is advised when the research problem is much more qualitatively oriented (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

According to what is stated above, researchers should carefully choose the research design that best matches the research problem and the objectives, that potentially answers the research questions in order to make the study manageable and straightforward to implement.

On that basis, the current study falls into the explanatory sequential design. First, quantitative data are collected using two questionnaires to investigate students' and teachers' perceptions of PF as an instructional practice in WF classes. Additionally, a pre-, progress, and post-tests are administered to test the impact of PF on students' grammatical accuracy in writing. Second, on the basis of the results obtained, a qualitative explanation is needed to further elucidate the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing through analysing students' interaction. The qualitative results yielded from the analysis of students' interaction serves in explaining the quantitative results; that is, how PF contributes in enhancing students writing accuracy. Furthermore, the researcher ends up with a FGD to gain insights and views about PF implementation, in order to draw conclusions about the study.

2.4.Research Variables

In any research, it is significant to identify the variables of the study and determine their nature. A variable refers to attributes or characteristics that vary among individuals, texts, or objects. In other words, variables are traits or features that change (Mackey and Gass, 2005; Creswell, 2014). Nunan (1992) considers a variable anything which does never stay constant such as language proficiency level, academic achievement, and motivation. In literature, two main types of variables are identified namely independent variables (IV) and dependent variables (DV). Yet, some other types of variables, though of less importance than the two main variables, are worthy to mention.

- The IV is the variable that *causes* the result (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Creswell (2005) refers to as the variable that causes, influences, and affects outcomes.

Hence, any change occurred in the DV is attributed to the IV. In this study, the IV is PF. This variable is thought of to come up with changes over students' grammatical accuracy in writing.

- The DV is the one that is measured to see the effect that the IV has on it. That is, what are the changes that the IV causes in the DV? (Mackey and Gass, 2005). To put it in Creswell (2014) words, DV depend on IV. They are the outcomes or the results of IV. Cohen et, al. (2000) refer to the DV as the response to the stimulus (IV). The DV in the present study is grammatical deficiencies in writing. The latter will be affected by the IV and therefore any changes occurred on it are due to the manipulation of IV.

Other variables, though are not the main focus of the study, may contribute to the study and interfere to the results.

- Moderator variable contributes in the interaction that occurs between the IV and other variables. It modifies the relationship between IV and DV. The researcher may not realize the importance of the moderator variable.
- Intervening variables are the kind of variables which may interfere with the results of the study and complicate the interpretation of the results although they are not included in the original study (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

Overall, the current study is intended to probe the effect of the IV, PF, on the DV, first year EFL students' grammatical accuracy in writing.

2.5.Research Setting and Participants

The present study took place in English Department at Mohammed Boudiaf University of M'sila. It was carried out along the second semester of the academic year 2022 – 2023. The study lasted from January 2023 to May 2023 during the WE module which was instructed by the teacher who is the researcher at the same time. Many reasons were behind conducting the study (the experiment) in the second semester rather than the first semester of the academic year. These reasons were as follow:

- To familiarize students with the module and the types of tasks.
- The lessons of the second semester fit better the objective of the experiment which is writing a paragraph.
- Train students on how to give PF.

2.5.1. The Target Population

Population in research refers to the "characteristics of a specific group" (Singh, 2006, p. 82). Each group of individuals that share the same peculiarities represent the whole population. In research methodology, it is almost difficult to access the whole population to conduct a study. Therefore, researchers tend to extract a sample from the broader population to which findings will further be generalized. Hence population is the entire universe from which a sample is formed.

As for the current study, the population of students encompass first year students of English at the University of M'sila. First year students were selected for a number of considerations. First, students are always encountering difficulties in writing; the major challenge of EFL students has always been to write accurately in English. Therefore, the researcher tends to manipulate the problem at hand right from the beginning from earlier stages of learning English as a speciality at university. Second, as the syllabus of WE of first

year focuses on the fundamentals of writing (parts of speech, phrases, clauses, types of sentences, paragraph development), the researcher's aim was to make students control the grammatical accuracy of their writings from the beginning (first year), as the second year syllabus extends beyond writing paragraphs and focuses much on essay writing and types of essays which makes students' control over grammatical structures more difficult. Finally, the teacher aims to familiarize students with interaction in classroom through peer correction and feedback which essentially embodies the communicative approach to language learning and contributes in fostering students' autonomy that is key to learner-centeredness.

In the academic year 2022 – 2023, the total number of first year students is 237 students assigned by the administration into eight (08) groups. Two groups out of eight constitute the sample of the study.

2.5.2. The Sample and Sampling Techniques

As mentioned above, the students who participate in the study represent the sample. A sample is the small group of students taken from the population in order to be involved in the study. To obtain a sample from the population, researchers need to plan how the sample is selected and of what size it should be; that is, they should make sample design. Kothari (2004) refers to sample design as an absolute layout that the researcher follows in obtaining a sample from the whole population. To sate it clearly, what are the procedures or techniques the researcher should adopt for the selection of the members of the sample. In addition to the way of assigning members of the sample, sample design also lays out its size. It is noteworthy that sample design is prerequisite and should be done before the procedure of collecting data in as much as the quality of research is potentially determined by the suitability of sample design (Cohen, et al., 2000).

In research methodology literature, two types of sample designs have been determined: probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

- **Probability Sampling:** Also called random sampling (Kothari, 2004), is basically based on random selection of elements. That is, every element in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Randomization allows representative samples to provide results that can be generalized to the population. Random sampling, further, has less risk of bias than non-probability sampling.
- **Non-probability Sampling:** In non-probability sampling, the researcher assigns the sample by targeting a specific group. Unlike random sampling, the inclusion of items in the sample is not a matter of chance. That is, each member in the population does not have an equal chance to be included in the population. Members are deliberately included or deliberately excluded from the sample (Cohen, et al., 2000). Generally, non-probability sampling relies on pre-assigned groups or pre-determined participants.

2.5.2.1. Students' Sample

The sample that has been selected for the current study consists of sixty (60) first-year students allotted into two (02) groups. The number of students in each group is thirty (30). One group forms the experimental group (EG) and the other forms the control group (CG). As far as sampling procedure is concerned, the study followed a non-probability sample design where convenience selection of participants is done. In fact, the researcher decided to conduct the study with the available groups (intact groups) already pre-selected by the administration, and assigned to the researcher.

The rationale behind following such sample design is that it is almost impossible for the researcher to apply randomization because the students' study schedule was already set by the administration with the time allocated for each module. Therefore, it was difficult to randomly

re-create other groups and schedule new sessions beyond student' class time for the purpose of conducting the study. Hence, convenience selection of available groups already divided by the administration is the sampling technique that the present study follows.

2.5.2.2. Teachers' Sample

The teachers targeted in this study are teachers in charge of WE module at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The teacher followed non-probability sampling in terms of purposive sampling to target only this category of teachers from among all EFL teachers at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The number of WE teachers is nine (09) teachers.

2.5.2.3. Students' Profile

First-year EFL students have been exposed to EFL for seven years during their middle and secondary education. However, in the academic year 2022 – 2023, and with the new policies set by the government as well as the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, a number of university teachers from various faculties and departments at the University of M'sila were given an opportunity to study English. Those teachers were allotted over the eight intact groups, and integrated with the newly baccalaureate obtained students. These teachers had no access to English for more than 10 years and more. Therefore, in order to preserve homogeneity of participants, the researcher excluded the university teachers from the study in order not to affect the desired results. At the end, the researcher got a sample of two groups constituting thirty (30) students each.

2.6. Data Collection Instruments

The nature of the study under scrutiny involves opting for a mixed-methods approach to data collection and analysis in order to reach a comprehensive understanding of the

phenomenon. In this regard, a variety of instruments were used to collect different sorts of data to answer the research questions. The instruments consist of two questionnaires (directed to both students and teachers), an experiment with pre-, progress, and post-tests, analysis of students' interaction and FGDs.

2.6.1. The Questionnaires

One of the most popular data gathering instruments is a questionnaire. The questionnaire is defined as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 6, as quoted in Dörnyei, 2007). Questionnaires serve in yielding three types of data: factual data about respondents such as demographic information, behavioural data such as teaching practices, and attitudinal data of what respondents think and believe of the question (Dörnyei, 2007). The rationale of using questionnaire is to elicit information from respondents in a non-evaluative manner. That is, no judgements of true or false answers are made.

The aim of using questionnaire in this study is to probe students' as well as teachers' perceptions of the use of PF as a teaching/ learning strategy to enhance students' writing accuracy. The use of this research tool was aimed to ground for the study's main concern which testing the effect of PF on writing accuracy. That is to say, questionnaires were used as preliminary tools to gather data about the respondent views, opinions, conceptions, and thoughts about the variables of the study.

2.6.1.1.Participants

In an attempt to probe various views and opinions about the target study, two questionnaires were designed and administered to both teachers and students. As far as EFL teachers are concerned, the questionnaire was directed to WE teachers at English Department

at Mohamed Boudiaf University, M'sila. The aim was to investigate their teaching practices, approaches, and orientations towards the problem at hand. As for students, the questionnaire was directed to the whole population. That is, first year students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University, M'sila.

2.6.1.2. Pilot Testing of the Questionnaires

Pilot testing of the questionnaire is a requisite step before its administration. This essential step is intended to gather a full range of possible answers as can be expected. This goal could be achieved when the questionnaire is clear and dis-ambiguous. In addition to increasing the validity, reliability, and practicality of the questionnaire, piloting serves in checking the clarity of the questionnaire, and eliminating ambiguity, vagueness, and difficult words that lead to misunderstandings (Cohen, et al., 2000). In this regard, students' questionnaire was first reviewed by two expert teachers from Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila, then, it was pilot tested with a group of first year students (30students). After piloting the questionnaire, some statements were removed while others were restated to ensure getting a wide range of responses from the participants. Besides, the researcher's presence in the department as a part time teacher allowed her to provide some instructions and explanations about the questionnaire. At the end, students took nearly 15 to 20 minutes to answer the questionnaire.

2.6.1.3. Description of Students' Questionnaire

The body of literature and the review of related studies have greatly contributed in shaping the questionnaire used in the current investigation. It serves in delineating the scope of the questionnaire in terms of questions to be asked. This questionnaire was considered as a preliminary tool to diagnose students' readiness and pre-disposition towards the later-on implemented PF in writing classes to achieve better written performance.

The questionnaire encompassed a total of 22 questions divided into three sections. The first section of the questionnaire introduced students' general information including gender, age, and their views about their English language level. The second section was devoted to the writing skill. It sought to get insights about students' preferences in terms of the four language skills, their level in writing and how they respond to written assignments. Throughout this section, the teacher sought to get insights about the difficulties faced by the students in writing, and on which area they mostly focus when they write. Furthermore, students were also asked to highlight reasons and hindrances behind their low level of writing, and which area teachers frequently target in their feedback. The third section was intended to probe students' awareness and perceptions of PF. How PF is viewed by the students and their readiness for this strategy to enhance writing accuracy.

2.6.1.4. Description of Teachers' Questionnaire

The rationale of teachers' questionnaire is to uncover how WE teachers manage first year classes. That is to say, what are the teaching practices and approaches they follow in teaching writing? For this, a questionnaire was designed including 23 items. Unlike students who were asked only closed ended questions wherein they answer only by ticking from the choices provided, teachers were asked to respond to both closed ended and open ended questions where they respond by writing full statements. This questionnaire is made up of three sections.

The first section is concerned with teachers' background information like the degree held and their teaching experience. The second section is concerned with the way WE is taught. Which approach teachers rely on and how do they respond to students' written performance. The last section, however, explored teachers' views regarding PF and its use in WE classes.

2.6.2. The Experiment

In order to prove or disapprove the research hypothesis, a quasi-experimental research was carried out including a pre-test, progress tests, and a post test. In this regard, experimentation means the proof of the hypothesis. Through experiments, researchers seek two make two variables in a causal relationship (Singh, 2006). That is, the aim of the experiment, therefore, is to test hypothesis and find out new relationships (Kothari, 2004). Hence, the basis of an experiment is testing how the manipulated independent variable affects the dependent variable.

2.6.2.1. Participants

Due to the impossibility of following random sampling which triggers to true-experimentation, the researcher uses two intact class groups and therefore resorting to a quasi-experimental research. In an experimental research, the group that is exposed to natural classroom conditions is termed “control group”, whereas the group that receives some kind of intervention is labelled “experimental group” (Kothari, 2004). To state it in other words, CG and EG are similar in all natural conditions of classroom settings, but the CG does not receive the experimental intervention, that is, PF. The CG works for providing a baseline for comparison (Dörnyei, 2007). Such a comparison is carried out by using statistical procedures.

Hence, two intact groups were involved in the experiment representing both the CG and the EG respectively. The number of participants in each group was thirty (30) participants. Participants of the EG were informed about the experiment and its conditions. They were also informed that interaction occurring during PF will be recorded and analysed by the teacher. Fortunately, students did not show any rejection.

2.6.2.2. Aim of the Experiment

As mentioned previously, this experiment was conducted typically to find out the relationship between PF and students' writing accuracy. That is, does PF affect students' writing accuracy? During the experiment, the teacher (researcher) tended to observe and analyse the students' interactional patterns during providing PF in writing sessions in order to test the effectiveness of providing PF on overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Hence, in order to answer the research questions, confirm or reject the formulated hypothesis, students taking part in the experiment were engaged in PI groups where the ultimate goal is providing feedback to one another on their writings before they produced the final version.

2.6.2.3. Duration of the Experiment

The experiment took place during the second semester of the academic year 2022 – 2023. It lasted five (05) months. After having the pre-test, progress tests were held weekly. The teacher ends the treatment by a post-test to evaluate the effectiveness of the implementation of PF to enhance grammatical accuracy in writing.

2.6.2.4.The Pre-test

The pre-test was mainly undertaken to evaluate students' performance in writing in terms of grammatical accuracy.

2.6.2.4.1. Description of the Pre-test

The exam that the students undertook as a pre-test consisted of two parts. The first part is composed of three tasks related to sentence structure. The second part, which is of main concern to the current study, is made up of two tasks. In the first task students were assigned to write a topic sentence for the topics offered by the teacher. In the second task, which is the writing task, the students were asked to develop a paragraph on the basis of the instruction

they received and on the basis of what they have been instructed on during the first semester. The ultimate aim behind this task is to check students' grammatical level in writing. During the first semester, students were instructed on: parts of speech, sentence structure, and mechanics, paragraph writing (definition and structure), and step process to paragraph writing. In the second semester, students were subjected to different patterns of paragraph development (paragraph developed by: specific details, exemplification, definition, classification, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and opinion). So, before the pre-test, students were already instructed on how to write a paragraph and the main components of a paragraph (topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence).

2.6.2.4.2. Administration of the Pre-test

Before the intervention phase begun in the second semester, students undertook the pre-test designed by the teacher. The students were pre-tested through the first semester exam. That is to say, the first semester exam is the pre-test itself. The exam was first presented to an expert teacher (the responsible for the WE module). The teacher was asked to read and evaluate the exam in terms of the clarity of instructions as well as suitability to students' level and course objectives. After conducting the pre-test, the teacher analyses students paragraphs of both groups (experimental and control groups) in order to find out the grammatical deficiencies students committed and assess students' GC in writing. On the basis of the results obtained from the pre-test, teachers evaluated later on the efficacy of PF in enhancing grammatical accuracy in writing.

2.6.2.5. The Treatment

In designing the experiment, the teacher focused on how to enhance students' writing accuracy and make students reinvest their grammatical knowledge when practising writing. It

is worthy to note that the teacher (researcher) did not make any changes regarding the content of first year syllabus offered by the administration.

The treatment period was launched directly after the pre-test. It lasted for a whole semester. The main reason behind conducting the treatment in this period was the nature of the lessons of the second semester which better suit the objective of the current research. The treatment period started in January, 2023 and ends in May, 2023. During this period, the two groups received the same lessons except that in the EG, students benefitted from an opportunity of PF.

2.6.2.5.1. The Control Group

During the treatment period, the CG was taught following the habitual way. The lessons were delivered with no intervention of the treatment. That is to say, no group interactions and PF were done during writing sessions. The teacher followed the process approach to teaching writing where students go through the four stages of writing (pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing/ final version). In the pre-writing stage, the teacher tended to suggest a topic with the help of the students. The teacher tended always to make the students choose the topic on which they write the paragraphs. In this stage, after choosing the topic and agreeing on it, the teacher elicited students to brainstorm ideas. Students, thus, had to write down ideas which come to their minds. This step takes shorter time in comparison to other stages. After writing down and collecting the necessary ideas related to the topic, the teacher asked students to write their first drafts on the basis of the brainstormed ideas. In the next stage, which is revision stage, students are required proofread what they wrote in order check the quality of their written productions. They omit what is unnecessary and add what is necessary. In this phase, the teacher provided feedback whenever it was requested. In the final stage, students

wrote the final version. Later on the instructor assigned another topic and asked students to write a paragraph about it to be later on corrected and analysed by the teacher.

2.6.2.5.2. The Experimental Group

Similar to the CG, the EG was taught following the process approach to teaching writing where students follow the four stages of the writing process to produce their final versions. Yet, in the revision stage, the teacher, who had already assigned students into groups of four students on the basis of their scores of the first semester exam of WE, set students to exchange their first drafts, read and comment on them. The students of each group, then, took some time to interact with one another, discuss their comments and provide oral feedback. After receiving PF, students produced their final version writings on the basis of their peers' comments. After that, students are requested to write another paragraph following the same pattern.

It is worthy to note that members of the EG were provided with correction symbols. They were introduced, and explained by the teacher from the first session in the treatment phase.

2.6.2.6. Progress Tests

During the course of the experimental phase, students were exposed to different patterns of paragraph development. Progress tests were undertaken by both groups in each session. The rationale was to determine students' progress after each session of treatment. The progress tests (writing assignments) feature the developmental patterns dealt with during this phase. The progress tests were conducted during the WE regular sessions. As mentioned previously, being the researcher and the teacher at the same time of the WE course facilitated the task for the researcher in designing the lesson and incorporating the tests within the lesson as part of it.

The progress tests were taken in the form of writing paragraphs depending on the instruction given by the teacher. Participants were asked to develop the topic agreed upon in the class into a paragraph. The main objective of the tests was to check the progress of students' grammatical accuracy in writing. The teacher sought to level up the extent of students' grammatical accuracy development after each treatment session.

As for the CG, they were taught the same content and assigned the same tests of the EG so that to compare the results of both groups by the end of the experimental phase. The assumption was that performance of students in the EG in written tests would be affected by the treatment they receive, unlike the CG who did not receive any treatment.

2.6.2.7.The Post-test

When the treatment period was over, the post-test was administered immediately under the same conditions of the pre-test. Both the experimental and the CG were post-tested. The aim was to check the extent to which the EG' grammatical accuracy has improved when practising writing as a result of the treatment they received. To state it differently, through the post-test, the researcher sought to examine the effectiveness of PF in reducing the grammatical inadequacies in writing. Students undertook the same test (paragraph writing) as in the pre-test. The paragraphs of the post-test were also analysed and rated by the teacher, and the results obtained were also discussed and interpreted to see the development occurred after the treatment.

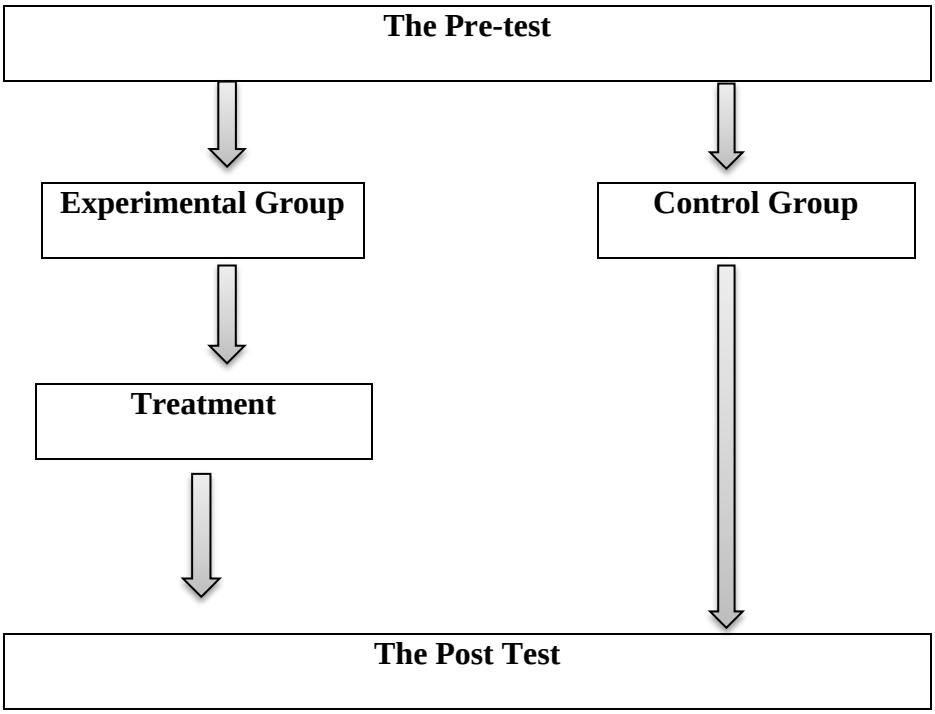
2.6.2.7.1. Description of the Post-test

In order to determine the effectiveness of PF on students' GC development in writing, students were post-tested after the treatment period. The post test that students undertook was the second semester exam of WE course. Similar to the pre-test, the post-test includes two parts related all to paragraph writing. In the first part, students were required to write the topic

sentences for the given paragraphs, the supporting details for the topic sentences provided, and the concluding sentences for the given paragraphs. The second part of the test required students to develop the topic at hand into a paragraph. Obviously, the rationale behind this task is to get students involved in a similar task of the pre-test, which is paragraph writing for the intention of comparing the results of the pre-test and the post-test to see the effectiveness of the treatment that the EG received. Further, getting students pre-tested and post-tested through the first and second exams respectively was done purposefully. It is evident that students always try their best when undertaking exams. That is, students' performance during exams is more serious and the results obtained from these test can better meet the researcher's needs.

2.6.2.7.2. Administration of the Post-test

At the end of the treatment phase, students of both groups were post-tested to determine students' benefits from the treatment provided. The students were post-tested through the second term exam of the WE course. Similar to the pre-test, the post test was exposed to an expert teacher of WE at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila to check its validity and suitability to the course objectives. The teacher indicated her approval and that the test was valid to test the writing skill of EFL students. The course of the experiment can be displayed as follows:



2.6.3. Interaction Analysis Method

This method was essentially adopted to explain the results obtained in the post test and answer the research question of how PF can overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing.

2.6.3.1.Participants

For the interaction analysis method, groups of four students were randomly formed in the EG. The formation of the groups was done on the basis of students' scores in the first semester exam in order to get groups of mixed-abilities students. The groups included a student from each of the following intervals of students' marks: [o - 5], [5 - 10], [1o - 15], [15 - 20].

2.6.3.2.The Procedure

After forming the groups of four (04) students for PF, the groups' interactions were recorded using audio-records in order to get in-depth data that the researcher needs. The

purpose of using audio-records is that such a detailed data cannot be obtained by means of a tool other than voice recorders.

The recording of students' interaction took place during the revision phase of the writing process. As it is mentioned earlier, in this phase students tended to exchange their first drafts to read and comment on each other's draft. Following this, students were supposed to interact, negotiate, and discuss together their comments and provide feedback to one another. This discussion is recorded and analysed by the researcher in order to find out what was happening inside groups. That is, what makes PF beneficial to students' writing accuracy. The analysis of students' interactions was carried out following Brown Interaction Analysis System (BIAS)

2.6.3.3. Piloting Brown Interaction Analysis System

The BIAS has been adapted according to the researcher's intentions as well as the study's requirements. Several adaptations have been made to reach appropriateness to the researcher's requirements. The adapted BIAS has been piloted for several times in order to check whether it suits the assigned objectives of the researcher or not.

2.6.4. Focus Group Discussion

As a type of qualitative data collection, Focus group discussion (FGD) is intended to collect and elicit views and opinions from the participants as far as their experience in the experiment is concerned. According to Cresswell (2014), FGD refers to teachers' engagement in discussions with six (06) to eight (08) interviewees usually using un-structured, open ended set of questions. A focus group is not just gathering a group of people to talk. However, focus group is an exclusive group in terms of the intent for which it was gathered, the size, composition and procedures (Krueger, and Casey, 2009).

2.6.4.1.The Aim of Focus Group Discussion

Focus groups are used to get opinions, listen to and gather information from the participants, try to get an understanding of how people think and feel towards the issue. The researcher's role in FGD shifts from listener to, moderator, observer, and of course an analyst (Dörnyei, 2007. In this research work, the aim of FGD is to try to get as much as possible opinions about PF implementation in WE classes. That is, the researcher's aim was to get valuable insights about students' experience in the experiment, how did they perceive PF and what attitudes and opinions they held towards it (Krueger, and Casey, 2009).

2.6.4.2. Participants

According to Krueger and Casey (2009), the choice of participants is done on the basis of what they have experienced in common. Participants are requested to express their thoughts, and share their attitudes. Teachers' here are requested to create a permissive, non-threatening, relaxed environment to let the participants enjoy sharing their ideas and perceptions. In this research, the teacher conducted FGDs with participants who took part in the EG and those who had an opportunity with PF experience. The number of participants of the FCD was eight (08) students. Actually, the researcher conducted more than one FGD to elicit a wide range of opinions from participants across groups.

2.7. Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is a crucial step in the research process. It is here where the research starts to get meaning. In this phase, the researcher analyses and interprets the raw data he obtained by the data gathering tools into a well-established and well-organized information. In the current research, a mixed-methods approach which combines between qualitative and quantitative data was adopted. The nature of the research problem as well as the research questions necessitated the researcher to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. That is,

besides the quantitative data, the research also required some sort of qualitative data to better explain the issue under study. Hence, the analysis of these data was also carried out following differed methods and procedures according to the different types of the data obtained.

2.7.1. Analysis of the Quantitative data

In order to analyse the quantitative data generated from both the questionnaires and the experiment (pre-test, progress tests, and post-test), both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The calculations of the numerical data were achieved with the assistance of *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (SPSS) software. Descriptive statistics was accessed through measuring frequencies (Freq), the mean ($\bar{\mathbf{X}}$), and the standard deviation (SD). Inferential statistics was accessed through t-test to draw conclusions and make inferences.

The comparison of the mean scores of both control and EGs required the use of independent-samples t-test to determine whether there was a significant difference between the control and the EGs as far as grammatical accuracy is enhanced in writing. The t-test is a prerequisite element in experimental research as it determines the effectiveness of the treatment provided to the EG and, hence, assigns the significant difference between the two groups of investigation.

As for the questionnaires, the nature of questions raised (closed ended question), enabled the researcher to gather data that could be more quantitatively analysed. Calculations involving descriptive statistics are used to measure some basics such as the frequency distribution.

To calculate the Mean: $\bar{x} = (\Sigma\, x_i) / n$

Σ stands for: the sum.

x_i stands for: all the X values.

n stands for: the number of items in the sample.

To calculate the SD:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

Σ stands for: the sum.

X_i: stands for: all the X values.

n stands for: the number of items in the sample.

$\bar{X}$: stands for: the sample mean.

T-test is calculated in the following way:

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{(s^2(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}))}}$$

t: stands for: the t-value.

xi and X_2 are the means of the two groups.

$\mathbf{S_2}$ is the pooled standard error of the groups.

$\mathbf{n_1}$ and $\mathbf{n_2}$ are the number of items in each group.

2.7.2. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

The analysis of qualitative date involves both data retrieved from the FGD as well as the interaction analysis method. In this essence, the data obtained from the audio recordings of students' interaction were analysed qualitatively through an interaction analysis system. The

researcher, then, transcribed, and interpreted the data. From among the interaction analysis systems available in literature, namely Flanders Interaction Analysis Category (FIAC) (1970) and Brown Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) (1975), the researcher adopted the Brown Interaction Analysis System. BIAS was comparatively judged a simple and a convenient framework for analysing classroom discourse in the current study.

BIAS is basically consisted of seven categories of verbal behaviour that capture the naturally occurring Teacher/ students discourse. These categories have been presented in the following way (cited in Brown, 1978).

Table. 1

Brown Interaction Analysis System

Categories	Codes
Teacher' lectures	-The teacher focuses on reading **'r'**. -The teacher talks to blackboard **'b'**. -Others **'/'**.
Teacher' Questions	-The teacher focuses on lower order questions **'l'**. -The teacher focuses on higher order questions **'h'**. -The teacher focuses on probes and prompts **'p'**.
Teacher' reacts	-Rewards **'r'**. -Use students' ideas **'u'**. -Correction **'c'**.
Student' responds	-Error **'e'**. -Irrelevant response **'i'**. -Students read his paper aloud **'R'**
Student' Volunteers	-Comments and observations **'c'**. -Questions **'q'**.
Silence	-Rapt attention **'r'**. -Astonished **'a'**. -Puzzled **'p'**. -Silent reading or thinking **'s'**.
Unclassifiable	-Individual student' learning **'S'**. -Interruption **'I'**. -Laughter **'l'**.

(Source: Brown, 1978, p. 47)

In order to make the BIAS more adequate to the requirements of the current study several adaptations were made on it. As a matter of fact, the choice of these speech functions was done on the basis of the requirements of the current study in addition to reviewing certain previous studies in relation to the current study and where IA is of main concern namely Baghdadi and Keskes (2014). Hence, the adapted BIAS is displayed in the following way.

Table. 2

The Adapted BIAS

Categories	**Codes**
-Questioning	**'q'**
-Repairing Grammatical Forms	**'c'**
- Negotiating	**'n'**
- Asking for Clarification	**'a'**
-Providing Explicit Grammar Explanation	**'g'**
- Responding	**'r'**
-Suggesting	**'s'**
-Silence	**'s'**

In the coming section, the data obtained from the analysis of students' interaction is presented, analysed and discussed.

Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the overall design and procedures used in this study. It highlighted the methodological framework for this investigation. At the outset, the researcher identified the research paradigm wherein the current research is situated, followed by the approach followed in collecting and analysing data. As the present research necessitated the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, a mixed-methods approach was adopted to better understand the problem at hand, and to successfully answer the research questions and test the hypothesis.

In this chapter, the context where the study was carried out has also been determined; population, sampling techniques were also demonstrated. In this vein, the study took place at Mohammed Boudiaf University, Msila. The sample under scrutiny represented first year students at the Department of English Language and Literature.

Most importantly, this chapter thoroughly discussed the data gathering tools that included the questionnaires, the experiment, interaction analysis system and the FGD. Each of these tools was presented with reference to participants, the procedure, and the piloting.

The chapter ended up by indicating the data analysis procedures used in transforming the obtained data into meaningful information. The coming chapter, therefore, will be concerned with a detailed presentation, analysis, interpretation, and discussion of results.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Chapter Three: Results and Analysis of Findings

Introduction

3.1. Section One: Pre-experimental Phase

3.1.1. Results and Analysis of students' Questionnaire

3.1.2. Results and Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

3.1.3. Discussion of Students' Questionnaire Results

3.1.4. Discussion of Teachers' Questionnaire Results

3.2. Section Two: The Experimental Phase

3.2.1. Results and Analysis of the Pre-test

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3.2.4. Pre and Post-tests Difference Tests

3.2.4.1.The Control Group

3.2.4.2.Experimental Group

3.2.5. Pre, Progress, and Post-tests Results Discussion

3.3.**Section Three: Post Experimental Phase**

3.3.1. Results of Interaction Analysis method

3.3.1.1.Discussion and Interpretation of Interaction Analysis Method Results

3.3.2. Results of Focus Group Discussion

3.3.2.1.Discussion and Interpretation of Focus Group Discussion Results

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter presents and provides a comprehensive analysis of the data gathered throughout the three phases of this study. In this vein, the data earned from both teachers' and students' questionnaires will be displayed in details. Furthermore, the chapter also presents the findings the researcher has yielded from the experiment. It also presents data obtained from the interaction analysis method and FGDs. Data are displayed sequentially with regard to the design that the researcher followed. Initially, the researcher collected data through two questionnaires which targeted both students and teachers at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. Both questionnaires were intended to scrutinize students' and teachers' readiness, awareness, and perceptions of PF and its implementation in writing classes. The subsequent stage of data collection involves the experiment during which students underwent a pre-, progress, and post-tests. Its aim was to determine the effect of PF on enhancing accurate grammar in writing. Then, students' interaction occurring during giving and receiving PF was analysed through BIAS to find out how PF contributed in enhancing students' grammatical accuracy in writing. Finally, following the experimental phase, FGDs were conducted to probe students' attitudes and to gain further views and opinions about the effectiveness of PF.

3.1. Section One: Pre-experimental Phase

This section is consecrated to the presentation, analysis, and discussion of findings generated from students' and teachers' questionnaires. The data obtained contributed in setting the ground for the experiment.

3.1.1. Results and Analysis of Students' Questionnaire

Students' questionnaire was essentially designed to probe EFL students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila perceptions of PF as pedagogical technique to raise students' grammatical accuracy in writing. It also dealt with both the areas of difficulty that students encounter in writing, and how teachers respond to them in attempting to refine students' written performances.

At the beginning, the questionnaire provided a comprehensive image about informants' background information as far as participant's gender, age, and their perceived level of English Language are concerned. Then, it provided information concerning students and the writing skill, their level in writing, and the difficulties they face when they write. Subsequently, the questionnaire yielded information concerning students' perceptions of PF implementation in EFL writing classroom. The total number of respondents to the questionnaire is 190 students. The results of students' questionnaire are displayed as follow:

Section One: Background Information

Section one of the questionnaire highlighted the background information of the respondents in terms of their age, gender, the years of studying English, and their perceived level of English language. The rationale behind inserting this section in the questionnaire is to indicate the homogeneity of the sample under investigation.

Participant's Gender

Table 3.

Participant's Gender

Participant's Gender	Freq.	Percentage
Male	47	24.73%
Female	143	75.26%
Total	190	100%

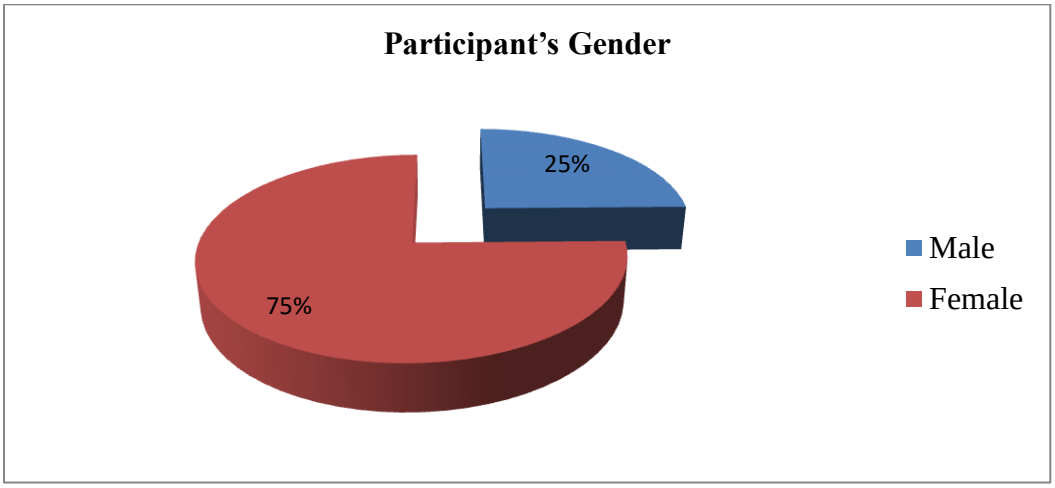


Figure 04. Participant's Gender

Table (03) and figure (04) above clearly displayed the number of students' males and females. It revealed that the majority of participants involved in the questionnaire were females with a number of 143 (75.26 %), whereas males constitute 47 students (24.73). These results figure most of the Algerian L2 faculties where the total number of female students exceeds the number of male students. Although the female students overpopulated male students, this fact did not affect the questionnaire results.

Students' Age

Table 4.

Students' Age

Students' Age	Freq.	Percentage
18 to 20	150	78.94%
21 to 25	21	11.05%
> 25	19	10 %

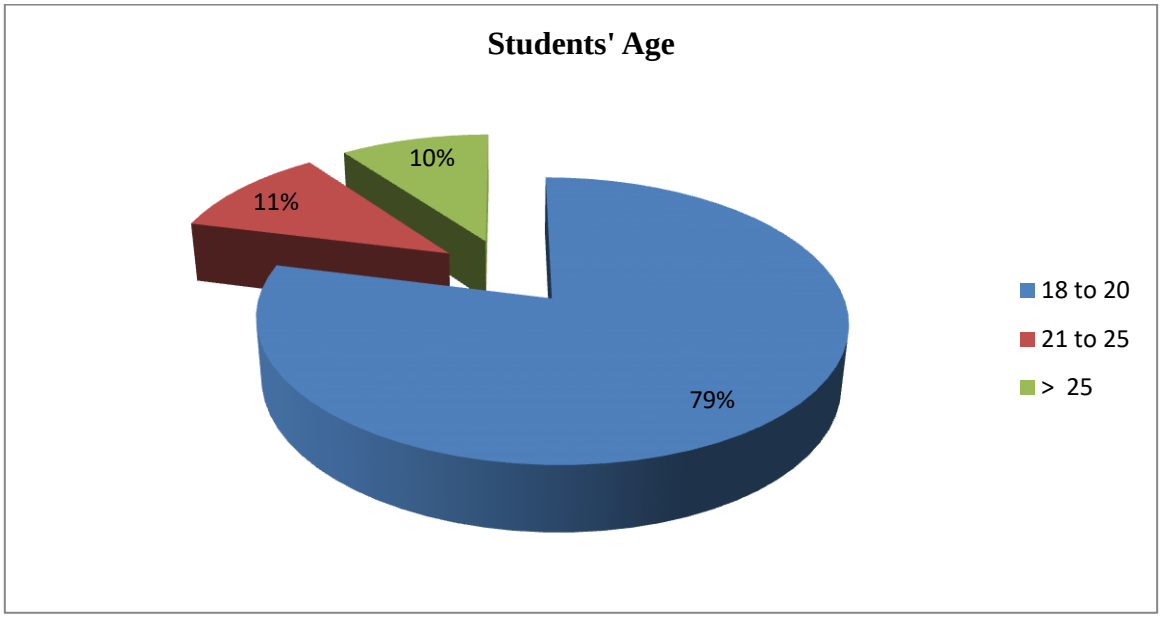


Figure 05. Students' Age

From table (04) and figure (05) above, the homogeneity is clearly observed. The majority of students (150) students' age is immured between 18 and 20 years with a rate of (78.49%), (21) students are aged between 21to 25 (11.05 %), while only 19 (10%) students are aged more than 25.

English Language Learning

Although students reported various numbers concerning the years they have been studying English, most of the responses 160 students (84.21%) settled at (7 years) of studying English. This can be interpreted by accounting the four years at middle school in addition to the three years at secondary school.

Students' Level of English

Table 5.

Students' Level of English

Students' Level	Freq.	Percentage
Very Good	02	1.05 %
Good	21	11.05 %
Average	147	77.36 %
Poor	20	10.52 %

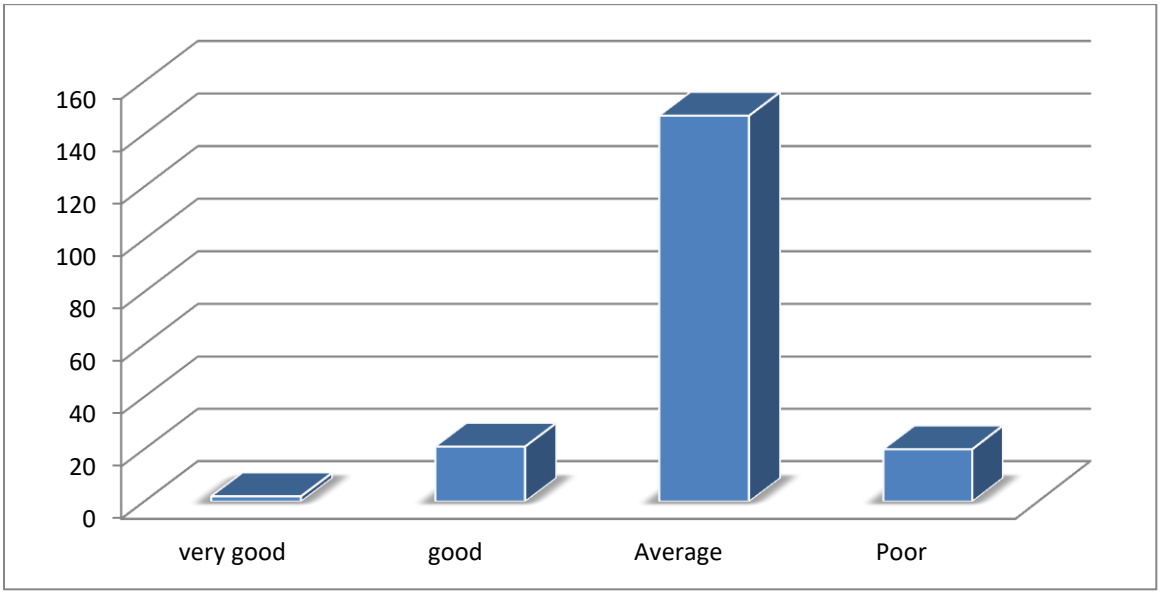


Figure 06. Students' Level of English

Responding to this question, the majority of students (147) estimated their level of English average (77.36 %). 21 (11.05 %) of students considered their level good, 20 (10.52 %) of students opted for low, while only 02 (1.05) students opted for very good. So, the most frequent response students opted for was average

Section Two: The Writing Skill

This section aimed at highlighting some points regarding students' and the WE module. How they perceive writing among the four language skills, and the areas of difficulty they elaborate and to which extent they stress on grammar and structure when they write.

Q: Which, among the following skills, do you appreciate much?

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing

Table 6.

Skills' Preferences

Skills	Freq.	Percentage
Listening	57	30 %
Speaking	98	51.57 %
Reading	29	15.26 %
Writing	16	08.42 %

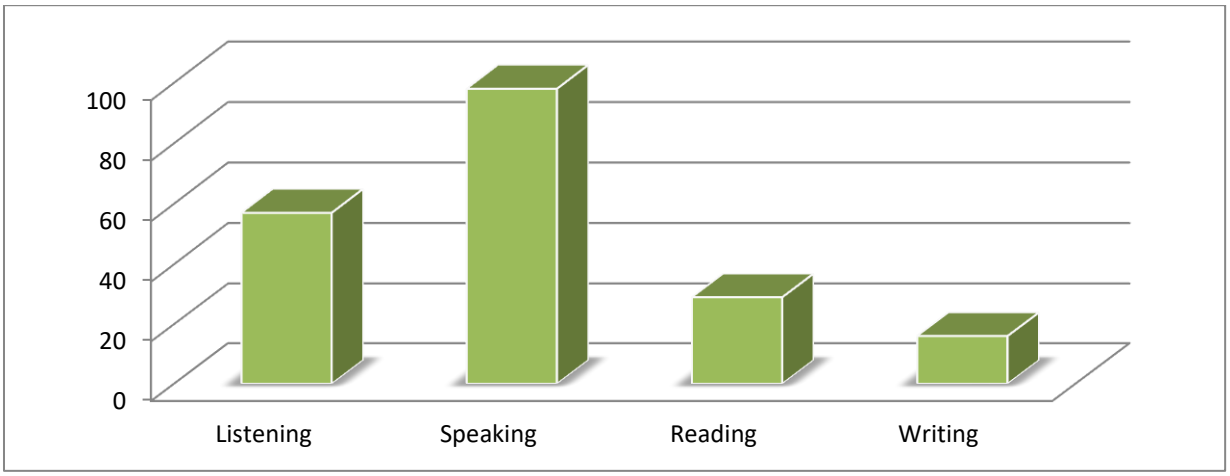


Figure 07. Skills' Preferences

The table and the figure above showed that the majority of respondents (51.57%) are inclined to the speaking skill. It is also shown that (30%) of students also supported the listening skill. However, only (8.42%) of students only favoured the writing skill. These results could imply that skills' preferences are determined by the difficulties they face in learning them. When comparing the number of students who opted for reading and writing with the number of those who opted for listening and speaking, we notice that students prefer the oral skills over the written ones.

Q: Which of the skills is difficult?

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing

Table7.

Levels of Difficulty in the Four Skills

Skills	Freq.	Percentage
Listening	22	11.57 %
Speaking	45	23.68 %
Reading	28	14.73 %
Writing	95	50 %

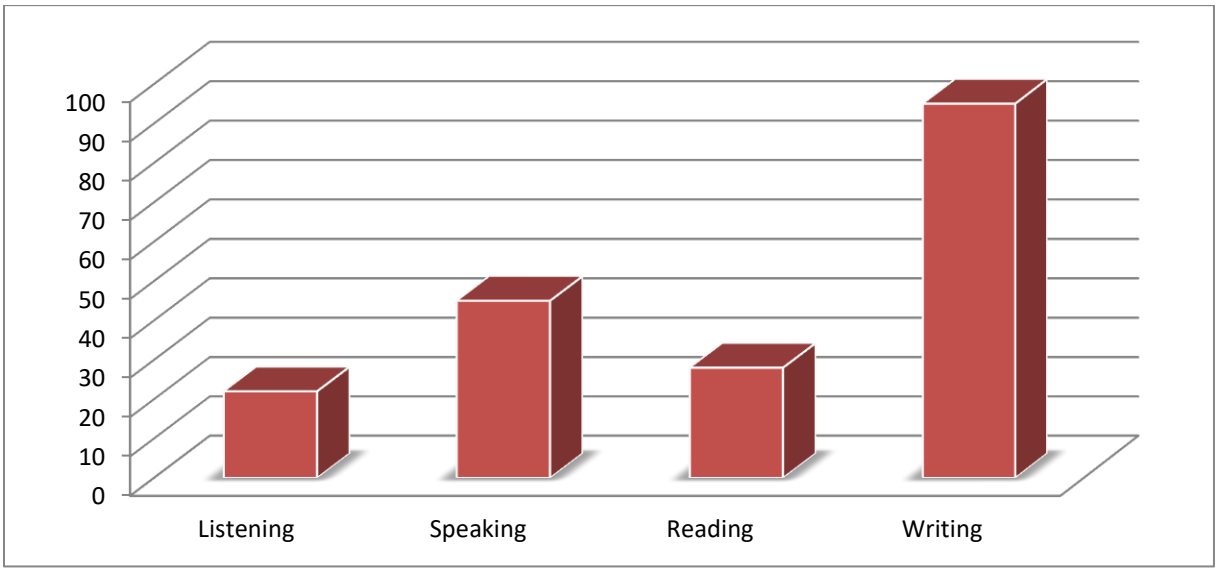


Figure 08. Levels of Difficulty in the Four Skills

The results of both table (07) and figure (08) clearly indicate that students perceived the difficulty of the writing skill. Half of the informants (50%) agreed on the difficulty of writing skill. This result supported the previous result of students' preferences where the majority of students supported the oral skills due to the difficulty of the writing skill. On the other side, (45%) of informants considered the speaking skill difficult. In this regard, it can be explained that productive skills are recognized difficult by students.

Q: How do you evaluate your writing level?

Table 8.

Writing Level

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Good	24	12.63%
Average	98	51.57 %
Poor	68	35.78 %

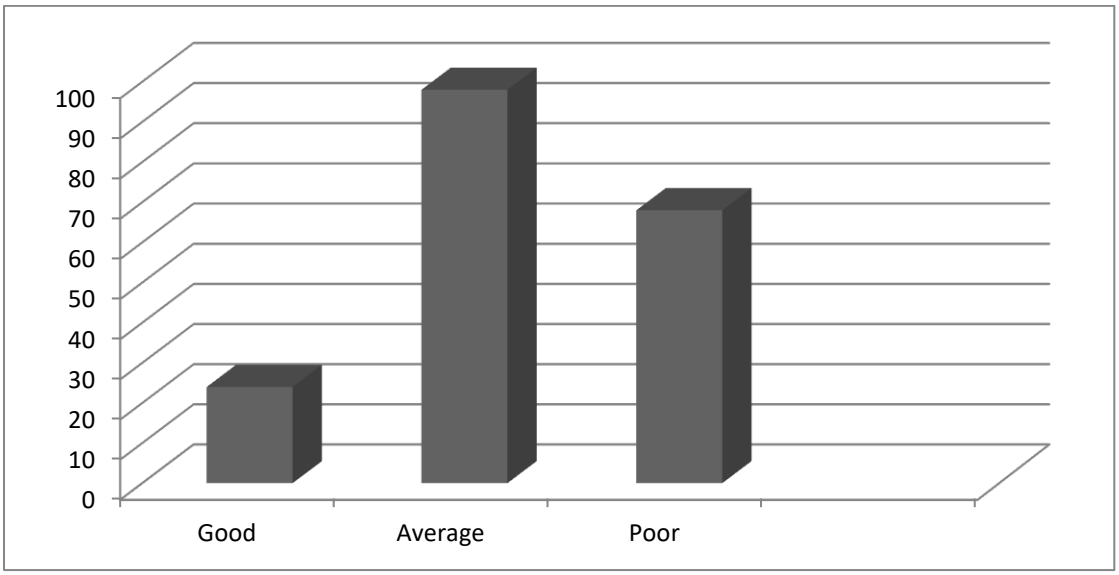


Figure 09. Writing Level

Figure (09) and table (08) above expose students' responses regarding their level of writing. A considerable number of respondents (51.57 %) considered their level of in writing average. In addition (35.87 %) of respondents considered their level poor, while only (12.63%) considered their level good. These results are likely to illustrate the aforementioned results which indicated the difficulty of the writing skill as they justify students' inclination towards the oral skills.

Q: When you are asked to write an assignment, are you?

Very interested

Interested

Not interested

Table 9.

Interest towards Writing Assignments

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Very interested	24	12.63 %
Interested	32	16.84 %
Not interested	134	70.52 %

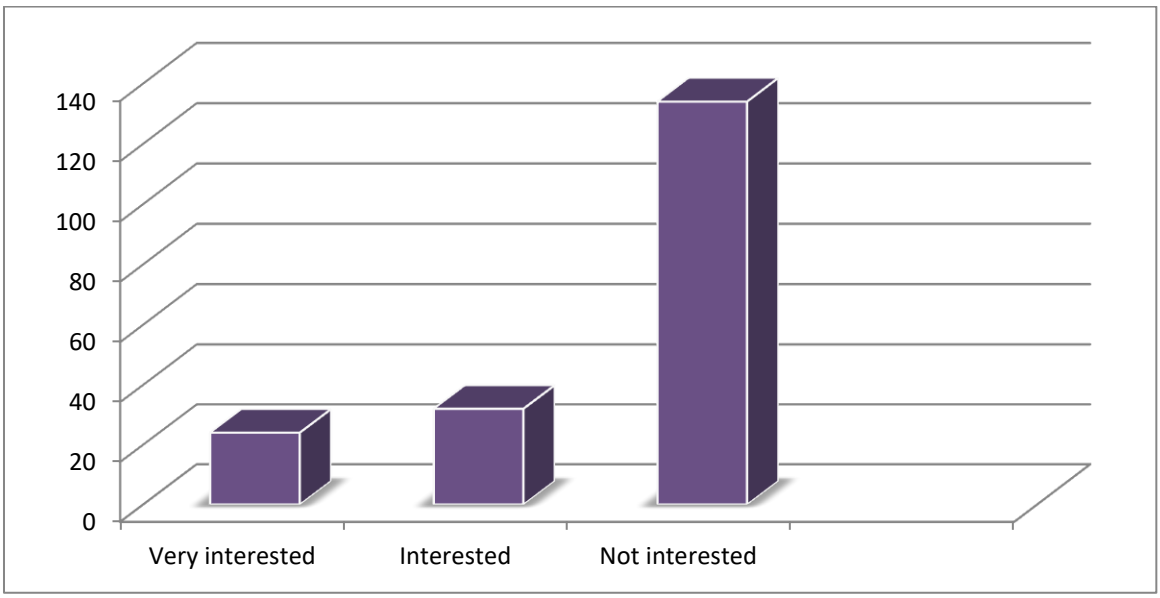


Figure 10. Interest towards Writing Assignments

In account to the obtained responses, table (09) and figure (10) show that students are not interested in writing assignments. The data show that 134 students (70.52 %) opted for not interested while only 32 (16.84) students opted for interested. 24 (12.63 %) of students however opted for very interested. This indicates that students perform writing with less interest. That is why they do not focus much on the quality of their written products.

Q: How often do you practise writing?

Always

Sometimes

When asked only

Table 10.

Students' Frequency of Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Always	12	6.31
Sometimes	28	14.73
When asked only	150	78.94

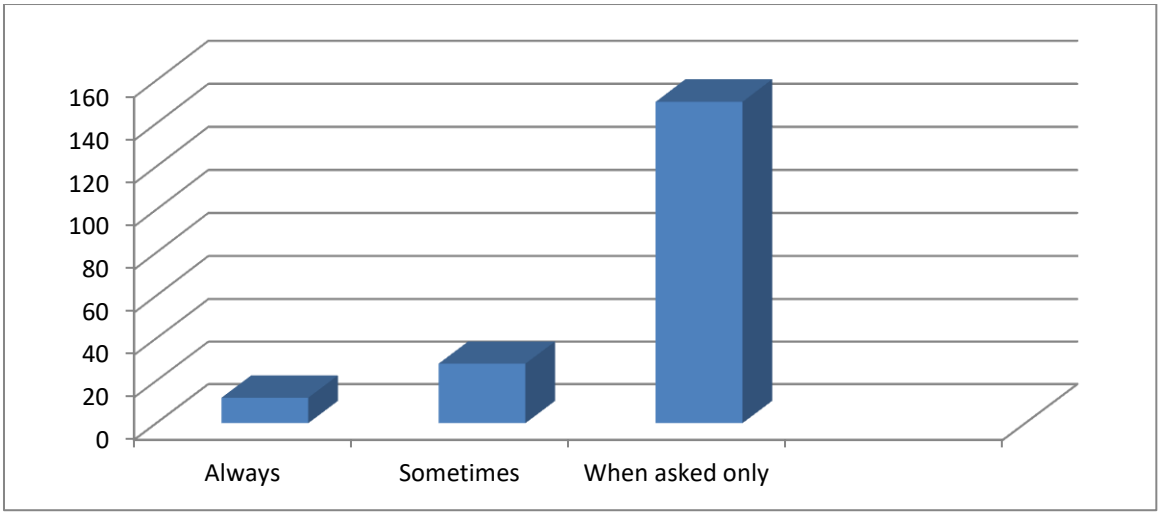


Figure 11. Students' Frequency of Writing

As displayed on table (10) and figure (11), most students (78.94%) responded that they practise writing *when they are asked only*. On the other side, (14.73%) students responded by *sometimes* and only (6.31%) students responded by *always*. These results indicate students practise writing only when their teachers ask them to do so.

Q: When you write, do you follow the phases of the process of writing?

Always

Sometimes

Never

Table 11.

Students and the Writing Process

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Always	25	13.15 %
Sometimes	85	44.73 %
Never	70	36.84 %

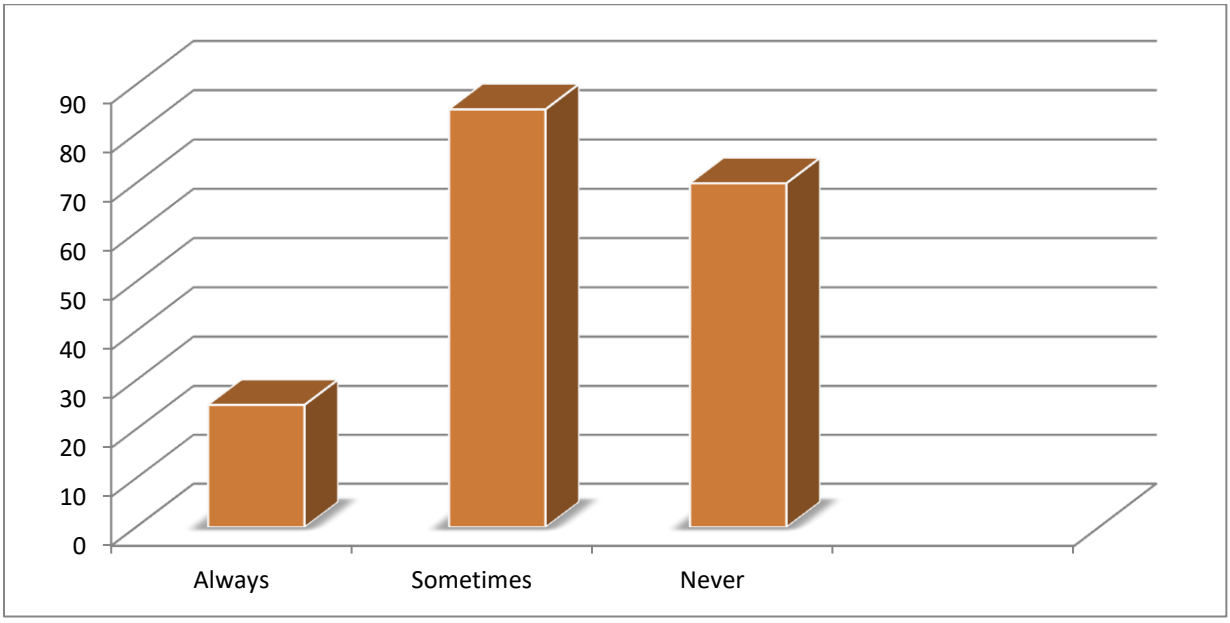


Figure 12. Students and the writing Process

The above table (11) and figure (12) show students' ignorance of the stages of the process writing and the importance of drafting and revising stages. On this basis, a considerable number of students (44.73%) responded that they sometimes follow the stages of the writing process. Further (36.84%) students answered that they never follow the stages of writing process. This implies that students do not redact and reflect on their writings before submitting them. (13.15%) students opted for always. That is, they always plan, draft, revise and then submit their final products.

Q: What are the weaknesses you frequently elaborate in your written performance?

Poor grammar
Poor vocabulary
Spelling
Lack of ideas
Poor organization of ideas

Table 12.

Students' Weaknesses in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Poor Grammar	45	23.68 %
Poor Vocabulary	75	39.47 %
Spelling	18	9.47 %
Lack of ideas	45	23.68 %
Poor organisation of ideas	07	03.68 %

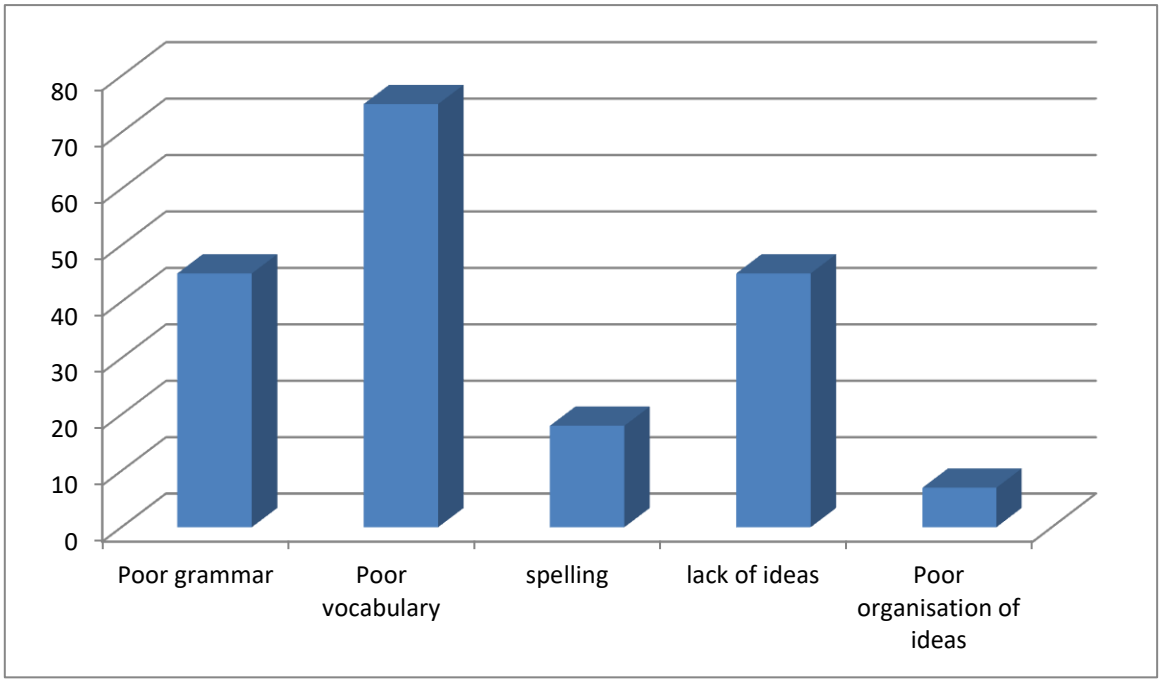


Figure 13. Students' Weaknesses in Writing

Students responses displayed in table (12) and figure (13) clarify the weaknesses students elaborate in their writings. Accordingly, (39.47%) of students declared that the shortage of vocabulary is considered the main reason for poor writing. Additionally, (23.68%) students pointed out at the lack of ideas. Apparently, students focus more on content as they consider poor vocabulary and lack of ideas as the main hindrances for effective writing. Moreover, (23.68%) other students mentioned poor grammar is the reason behind their poor writing quality. This response indicated that informants are aware of the grammatical errors

they commit and their effect on their writing. The remaining students opted for spelling and poor organisation of ideas (3.68%).

Q: When you write, you tend to focus on:

Content / Ideas
Grammatical Accuracy

Table 13.

Students Focus in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Content/ ideas	168	88.42 %
Grammatical accuracy	22	11.57 %

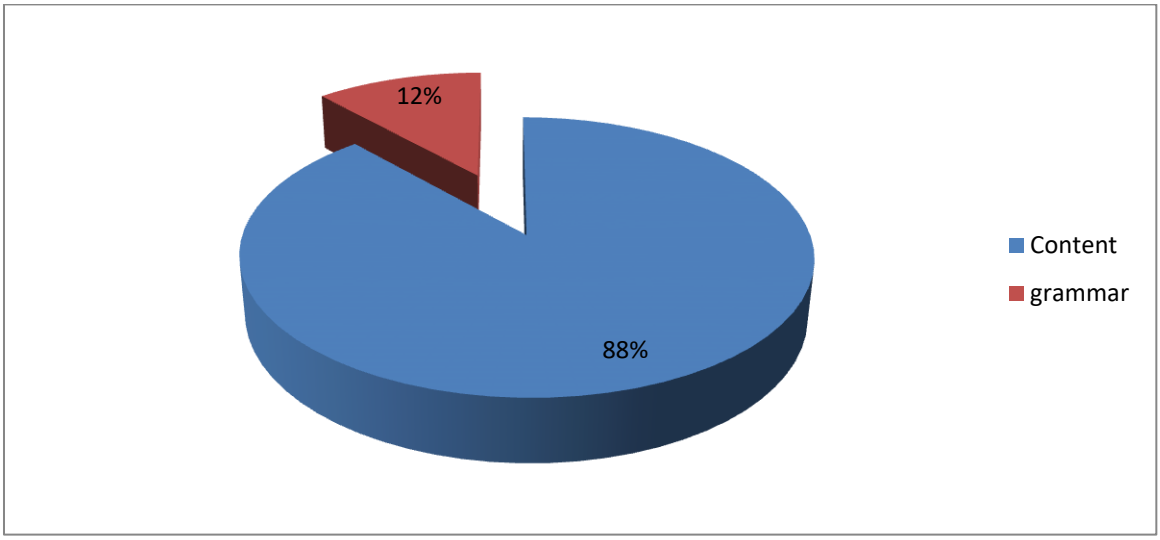


Figure 14. Students Focus in writing

Responding to this question, students supported their views in the preceding question. Hence, the results in table (13) and figure (14) revealed that the majority of respondents (88.42%) focus on content and ideas while only (11.57%) focus on grammar.

Q: In your opinion, what are the reasons behind your unsatisfactory written performance?

Lack of instruction
Lack of practice
Lack of feedback

Lack of motivation

Table 14.

Reasons of Unsatisfactory Performance in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Lack of instruction	03	01.57 %
Lack of practice	95	50 %
Lack of feedback	51	26.84 %
Lack of motivation	38	20 %
No answer	03	01.57 %

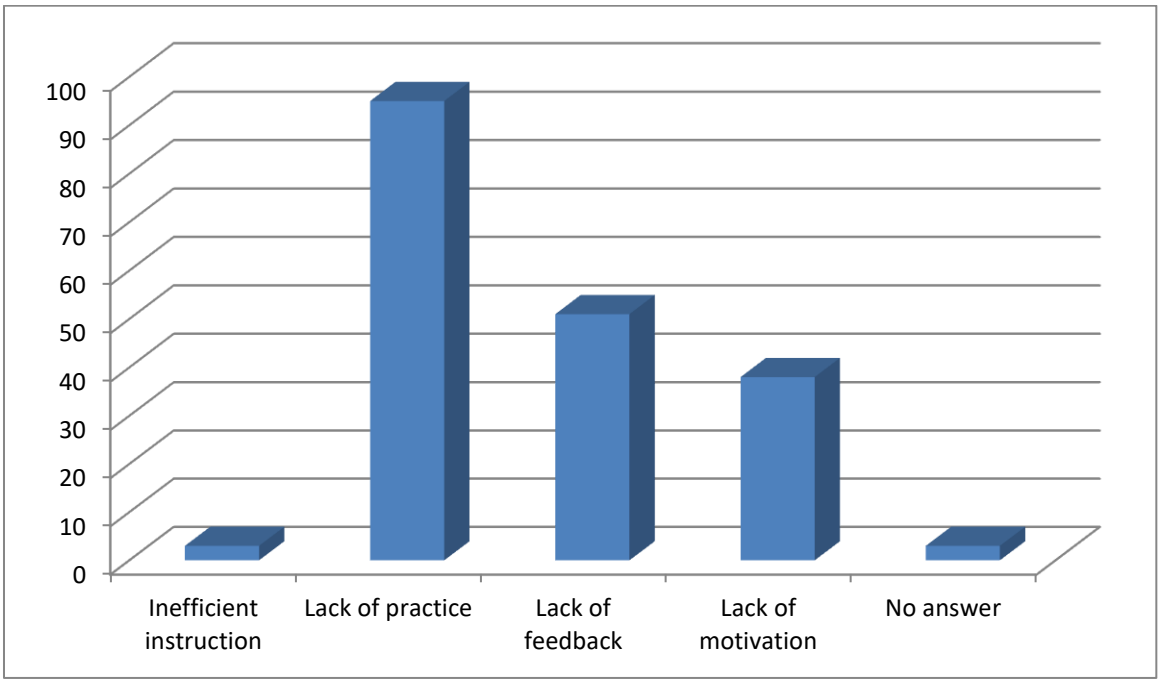


Figure 15. Reasons of Unsatisfactory Performance in Writing

According to the results exhibited on table (14) and the figure (15) above, the majority of students (50 %) attributed the unsatisfactory level of written performance to the lack of practice. (26.84 %) of students, opted for lack of feedback. This could imply that first year students are aware of the importance of feedback in addition to practice in writing classes. The remaining responses include (20%) lack of motivation, (1.57%) for lack of instruction, and (1.57%) of students did not answer the question.

Q: On which aspect your teachers focus more when assessing your written productions?

Grammar

Content / Ideas

Organization

Table 15.

Teachers' Focus in Assessing Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Grammar	57	30 %
Content	112	58.94 %
Organisation	17	8.94 %
No answer	4	2.10 %

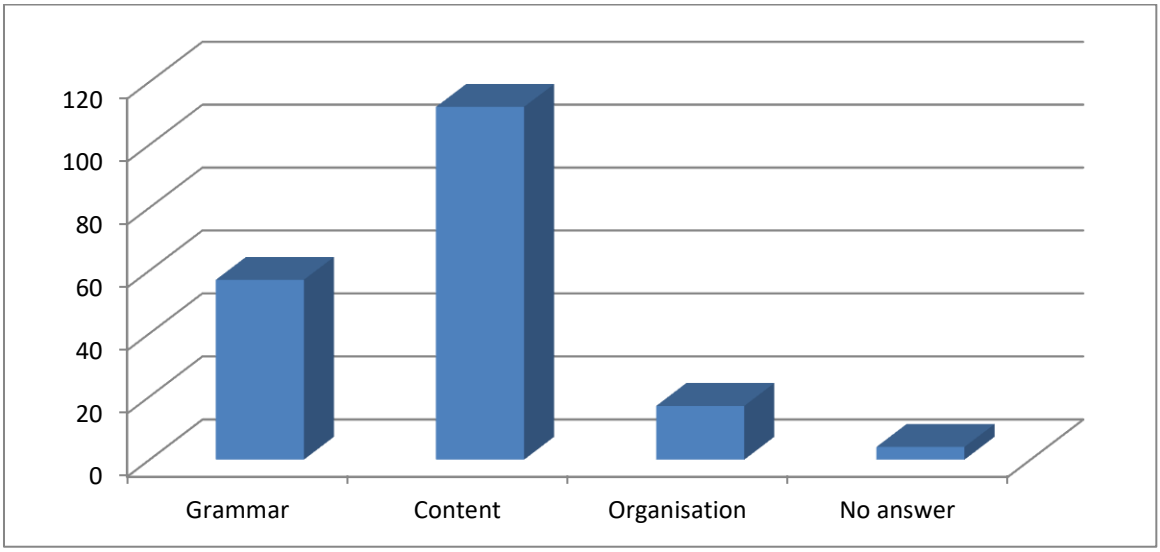


Figure 16.Teachers' Focus in Assessing Writing

The data shown in table (15) and graph (16) reflect students' views on teachers' assessment of written products. While (58. 94%) of students' responses pointed out that teachers focus on the content, (57%) indicated grammar. However, (8.94%) indicated organisation, and (02.10%) preferred not to answer. Seemingly, for students, grammar is also important and it is also addressed by teachers when assessing students' productions.

Q: Do you think that poor grammar affects the quality of your writing?

Table 16.

Students' Views on the Effect of Poor Grammar on Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	89	46.84 %
No	91	47.89 %
No answer	10	5.26 %

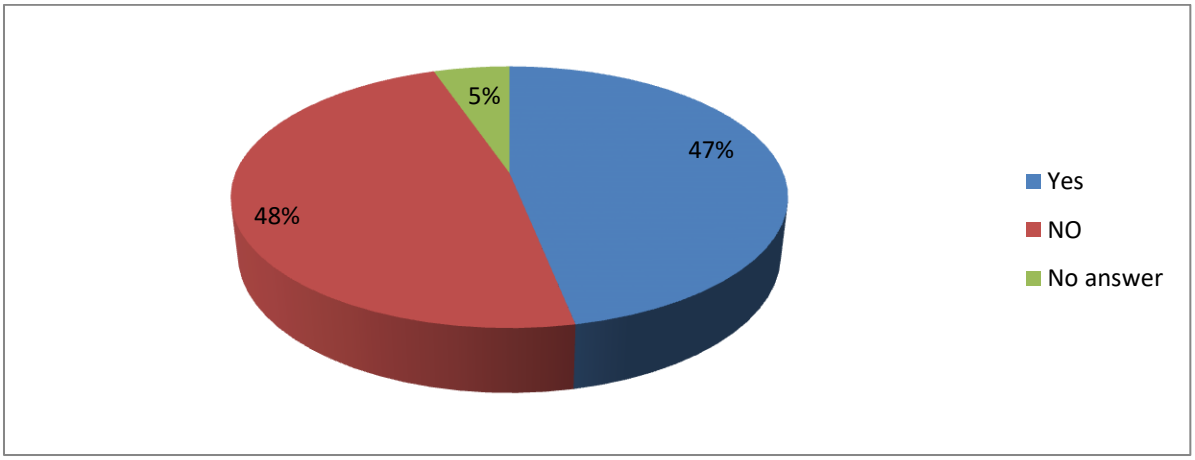


Figure 17. Students' views on the Effect of Poor Grammar on Writing

From table (16) and figure (17), it can be noticed that learners perceive the significant role of grammar in writing. On the basis of the acquired data, (46.84%) of students affirmed that poor grammar effectuates the quality of writing. On the contrary, (47.89%) viewed that poor grammar may not affect the writing quality. In this regard, it becomes a must to raise students' awareness of the importance of grammar in writing as the majority of respondents opted for no choice.

Q: How often do you revise your writings?

Always

Often

Rarely

Never

Table 17.

Students' Revision of Writings

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Always	22	11.57 %
Often	48	25.26 %
Rarely	80	42.10 %
Never	40	21.05%

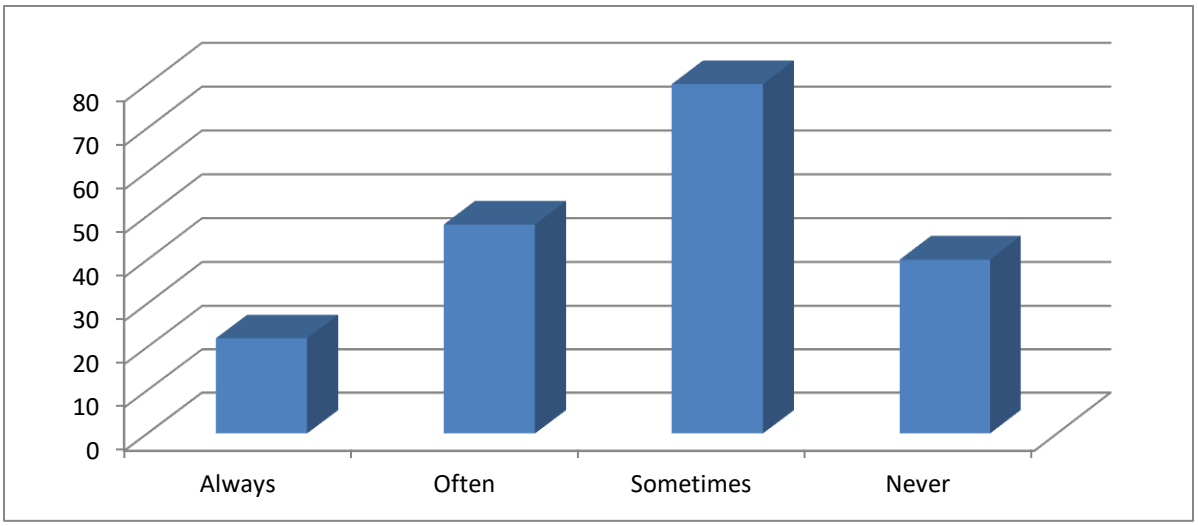


Figure 18. Students' Revision of Writings

With regard to the findings shown on table (17) and figure (18) above, (11.57%) of respondents opted for always. That is, they always revise their drafts before submitting them. However, (25.26%) responded by often. This may imply that these students do not consider the importance of revising their writings. On the other side, the majority of respondents (42.10 %) replied with rarely, while (21.05%) replied with never.

Section Three: Peer feedback in L2 Writing

Q: How often do you receive feedback on your written papers?

Very often
Often
Rarely

Never

Table 18.

The Frequency of Receiving Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Very Often	11	05.78%
Often	49	25.78%
Rarely	90	47.36%
Never	40	21.05%

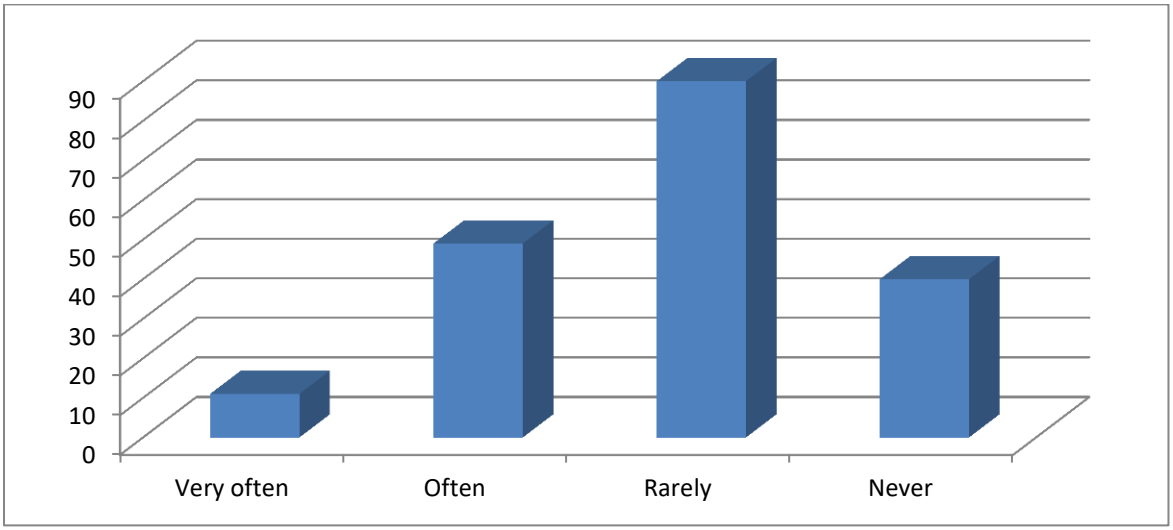


Figure 19. The Freq. of Receiving Feedback

As shown in table (18) and figure (19), (05.78%) of respondents replied with very often, (25.8%) responded with often, (47.36%) with rarely, and (21.05%) with never. It is apparent from the above results that students are not provided with feedback in a consistent way. This could be justified by the time shortage of the WE module (90minutes/ week).

Q: When teachers provide feedback, they tend to focus on:

Accuracy
Content
Organization
Coherence
Cohesion

Table 19.

Teachers' Focus in Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Accuracy	49	25.78 %
Content	68	35.78 %
Organisation	20	10.52 %
Coherence	31	16.31 %
Cohesion	18	09.47 %
No answer	4	02.10 %

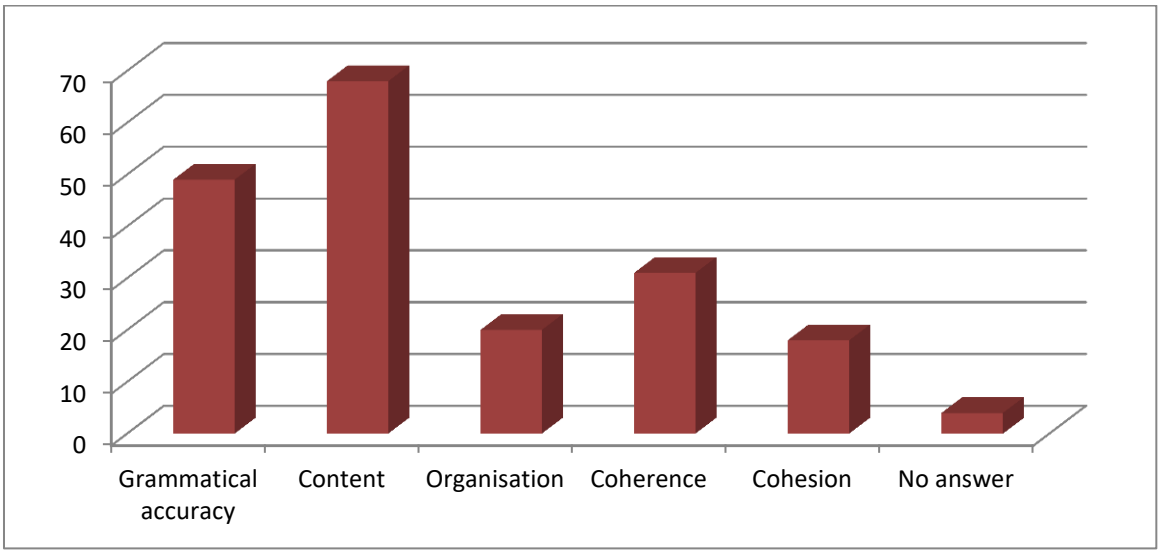


Figure 20. Teachers' Focus in Feedback

In the light of the findings illustrated in table (19) and figure (20), students pinpointed that the areas that teachers focus on when providing feedback. Accordingly, (25.78%) responded with accuracy. That is, teachers focus more on the structure and accuracy of the written product. (35.78%) opted for content. That is teachers comments are directed towards the ideas and the content rather than to the structure. (10.52%) chose organisation, (16.31%) opted for coherence, (09.47%) for cohesion, while (02.10%) did not answer the questions. The results obtained clearly indicate that teachers, when providing feedback focus on content and ideas, yet they did no ignore grammar.

Q: Do your teachers encourage you to provide feedback to one another?

Yes
No

No answer

Table 20.

Peer Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	21	11.05 %
No	162	85.26 %
No answer	07	03.68 %

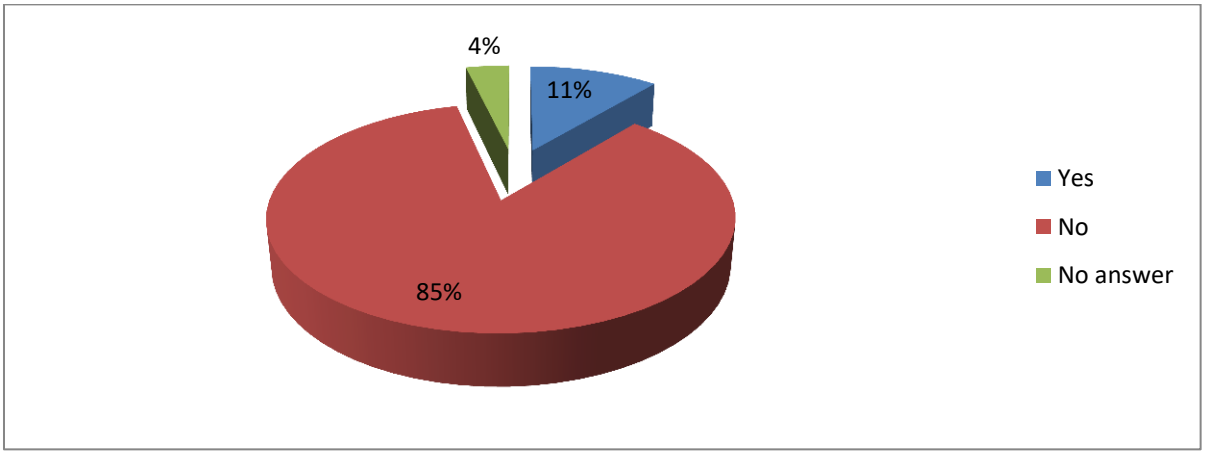


Figure 21. Peer feedback

When students were asked whether their teachers encourage them to provide or receive feedback to/ from their peers, most of the students (85.26%) responded with no; that is teachers do not encourage students to PF. However, (11.05%) responded with yes, while (03.68%) did not answer the question.

Q: How often do you engage in PF practice?

Very often

Often

Rarely

Never

Table 21.

Student Engagement in PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Very Often	4	02.10 %
Often	6	03.15 %
Rarely	49	25.78 %
Never	131	68.94 %

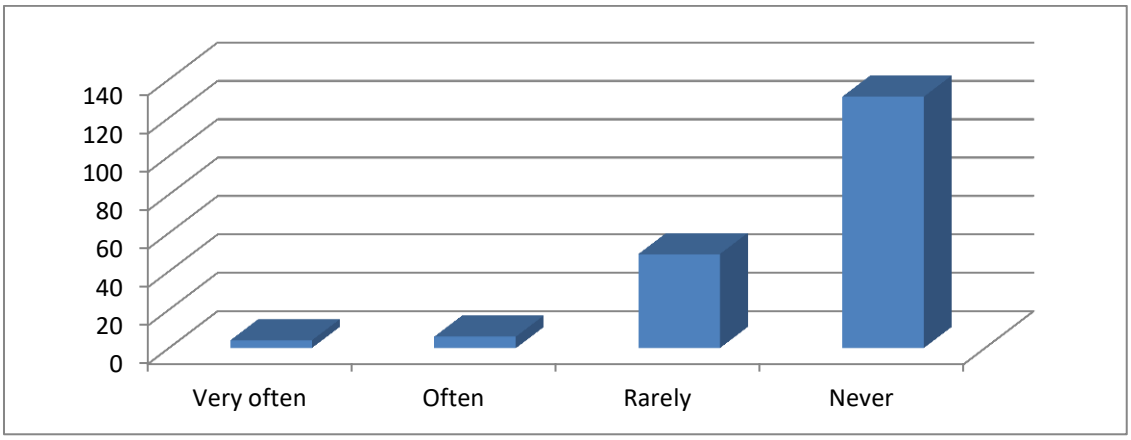


Figure 22. Student Engagement in PF

Responses reported on table (21) and figure (22) display students' engagement in PF. The results indicated that the majority of informants (68.94%) indicated that they never engage in PF. Further, (25.78%) indicated that they rarely engage in PF, (03.15%) did not answer the question.

Q: PF is much appreciated by students' than teachers' feedback.

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly agree

Table22.

Students' Attitudes towards PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Strongly disagree	21	04.21%
Disagree	62	32.63%
Neutral	49	25.78%
Agree	50	26.31%
Strongly agree	08	04.21%

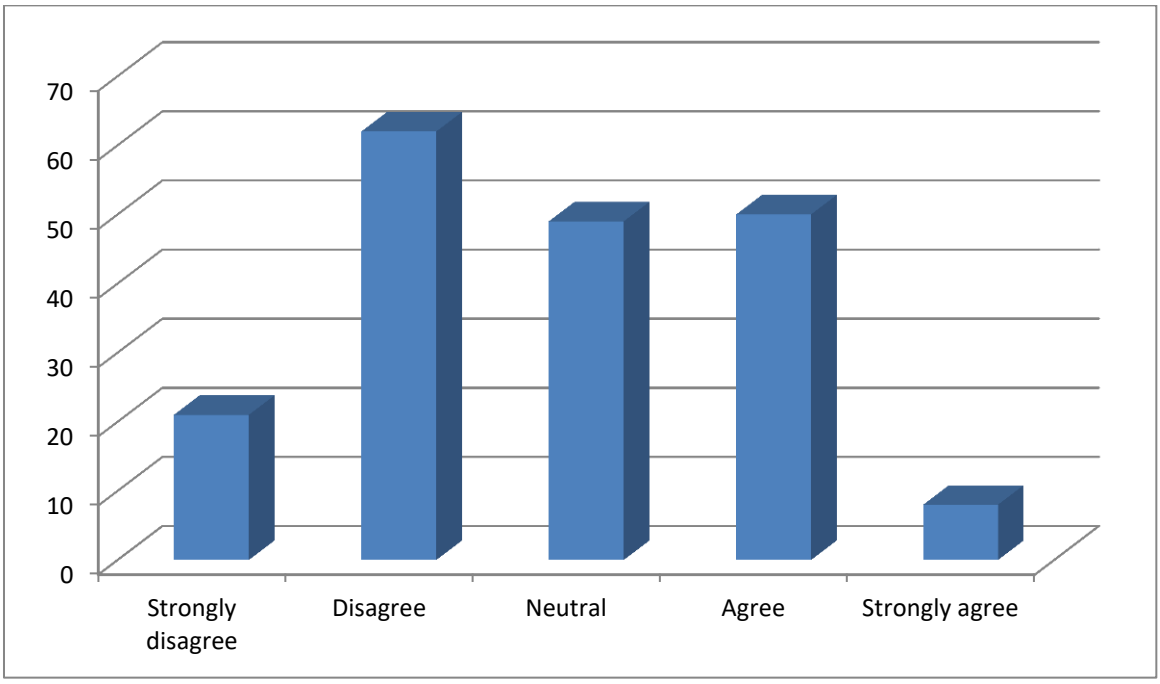


Figure 23. Students' Attitudes towards PF

In response to the statement which states that feedback is much appreciated by students' than teachers' feedback, students' responses indicated that (04.21%) opted for strongly disagree, (32.63%) opted for disagree, (25.78%) neutral, (26.31%) agree, while (04.21%) strongly agree. Seemingly, students trust more teachers' feedback over PF. That is, these findings reveal students' unawareness of the efficiency and practicality of feedback when it is treated by learners themselves.

Q: Do you think that you are prepared to give efficient PF?

Yes

No

Table 23.

Students' Preparedness to Give PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	80	42.10 %
No	110	57.89 %

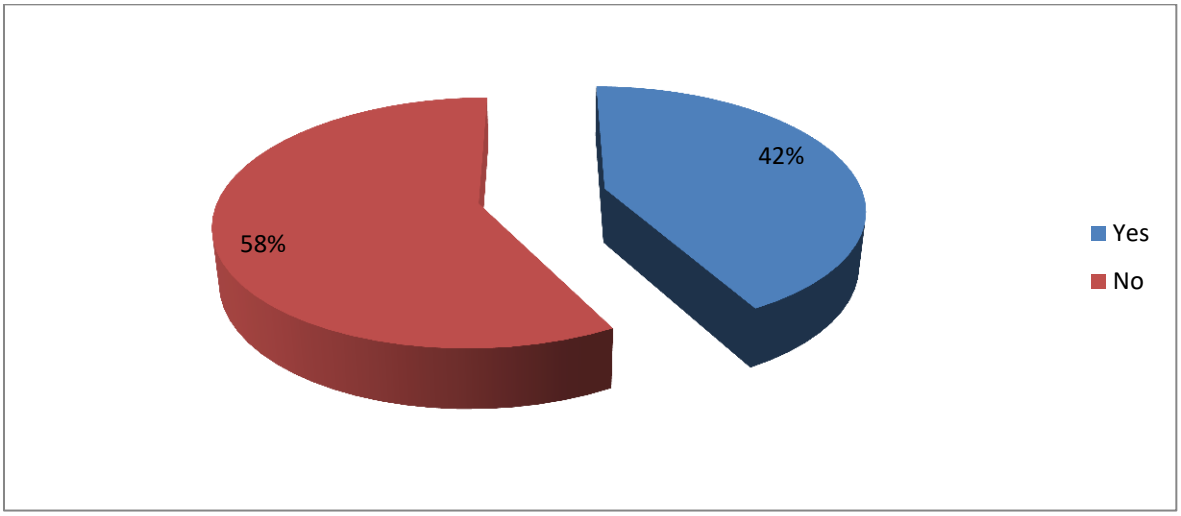


Figure 24. Students' Preparedness to Give PF

When students were asked about whether they are qualified to give PF, (57.89%) responded by no which indicates that students are not fully trained on feedback processes. On the other side, (42.10%) responded by yes. In this regard, these results could be explained in two ways: either students have a good command of English, or they simply ignore how PF is effectively provided.

Q: Do you think that PF can enhance your writing quality?

Yes

No

Table 24.

Students' Views about PF in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	115	60.52 %
No	56	29.47 %
No answer	19	10 %

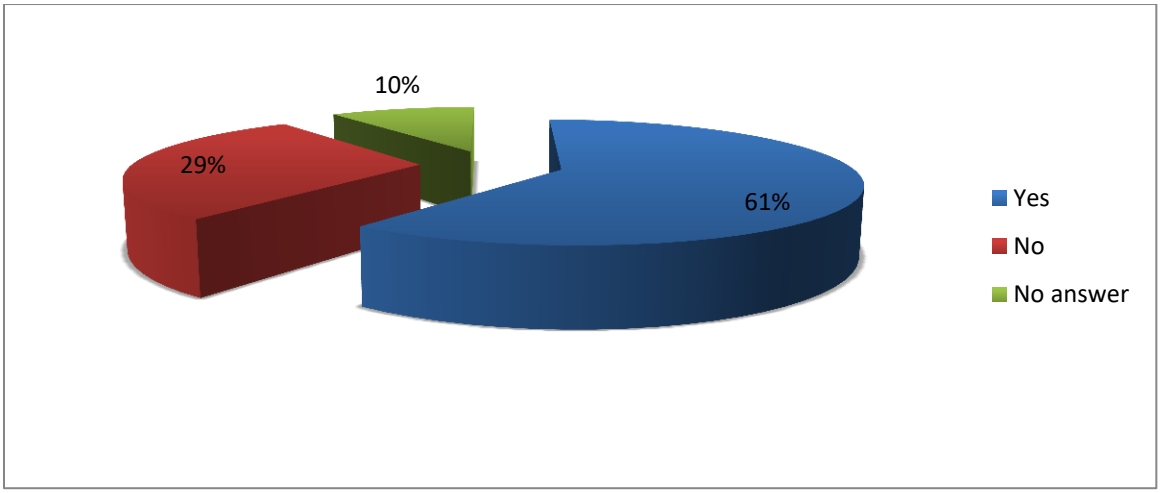


Figure 25. Students' Views about PF in Writing

The data exhibited on table (24) and figure (25) imply that the participants are not yet familiar with PF in writing classes, as they may ignore its potential effects on writing. (29.47%) respondents responded by no. Conversely, (60.52%) opted for yes. This implies that students' attitudes at English Department regarding PF are positive.

Q: Do you think that, being trained to give PF results in better written performance?

Yes

No

Table 25.

Students' Views on Training to Give Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	124	65.26 %
No	54	28.42 %
No answer	12	6.31 %

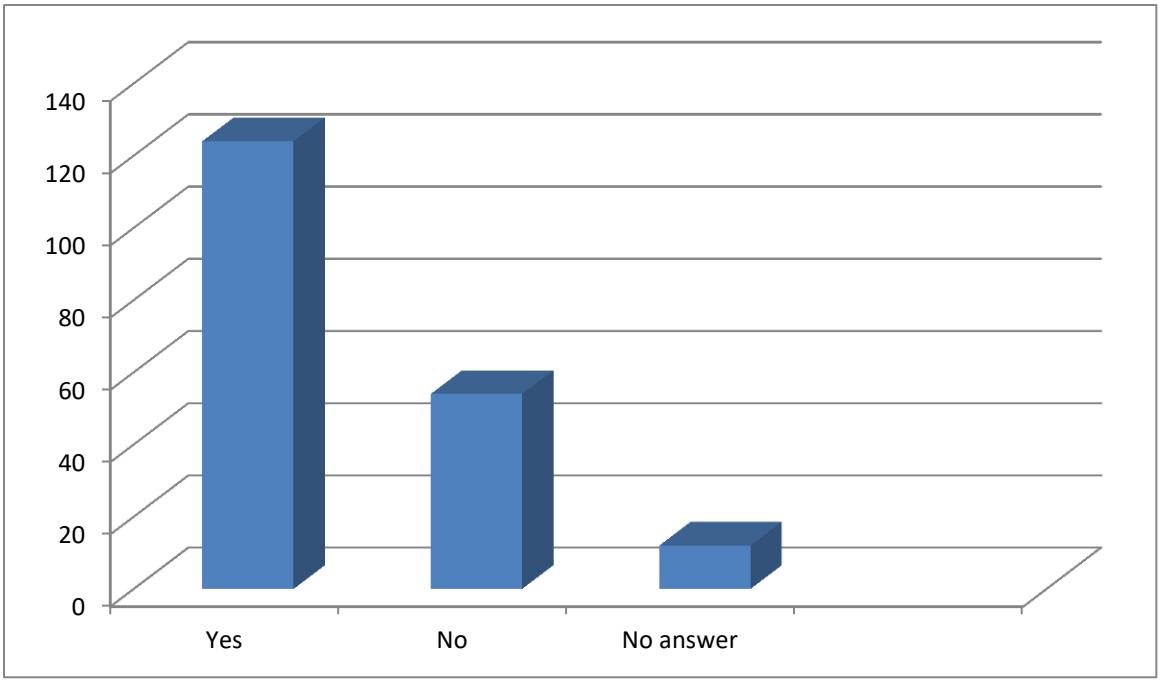


Figure 26. Students' Views on Training to Give Feedback

Responding to the statement inquired about students' views on training to give feedback, the majority of informants responded with yes (65.26%), while (28.42%) responded by no. Still, learners at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila are not accustomed with PF in writing classes. Therefore, some of students' responses of the questionnaire reflected their apprehension towards engaging in this experience.

3.1.2. Results and Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

Primarily, instructors' questionnaire was intended to probe WE teachers' perceptions of the importance of feedback in writing classes. Therefore, the questionnaire was prepared and administered to WE teachers in addition to those who have already experienced the teaching of the WE. The total number of the teachers who answered the questionnaire was nine (09) teachers.

Initially, the questionnaire provided an overview of the participants' general information including the degree held, years of experience, and the levels they frequently

teach. Then, the questionnaire provided information in concern with the teaching of WE and how teachers respond to students' errors. Finally, it dealt with PF an instructional pedagogy and its implementation in EFL writing classroom at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila.

Section One: Background Information

In the first section of the questionnaire, teachers were questioned to state their degrees, years of experience, and the levels they frequently teach. The rationale of adding this section in the questionnaire is to estimate teachers' familiarity with the teaching of WE in the sense that the more teachers are experienced with the teaching of first year, the better their answers will contribute in the attainment of study's objectives.

Degree held

Table 26.

Teachers' Grades

Degree	Freq.	Percentage
Master	4	44,44%
Magister	2	22,22%
Doctorate	3	33,33%
Total	9	100%

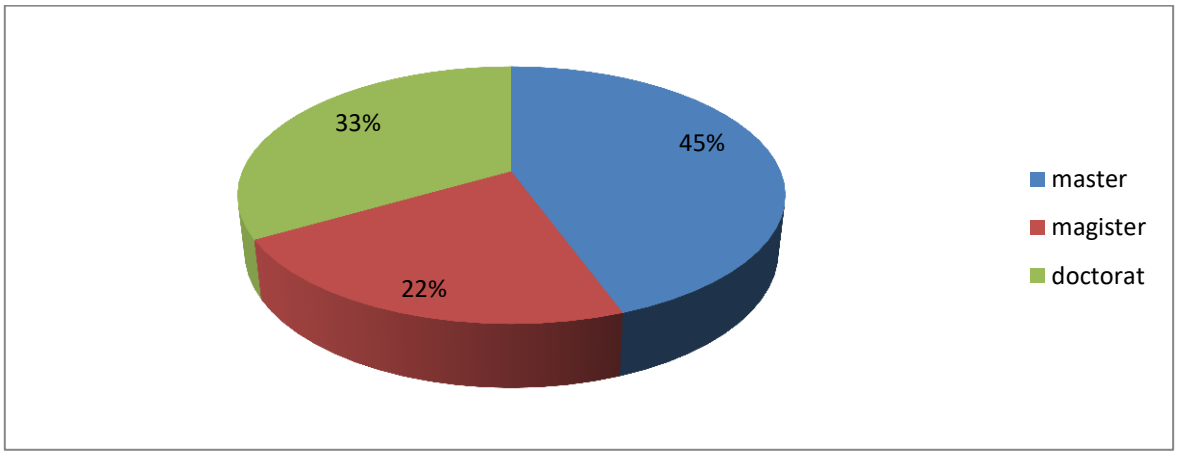


Figure 27. Teachers' Grades

The data displayed on the table (26) and the figure (27) above present teachers' grades. The findings obtained revealed that four teachers (44.44%) held the master's degree

(two of which are enrolled in PhD), two teachers (22.22%) held the magister degree, and three teachers (33.33%) held the PhD degree.

Years of Experience

Table 27.

Teaching Experience

Options	Freq.	Percentage
[1 - 5]	03	33,33%
[6 - 10]	05	55.55 %
[11- 15]	/	00%
>15	01	11,11%

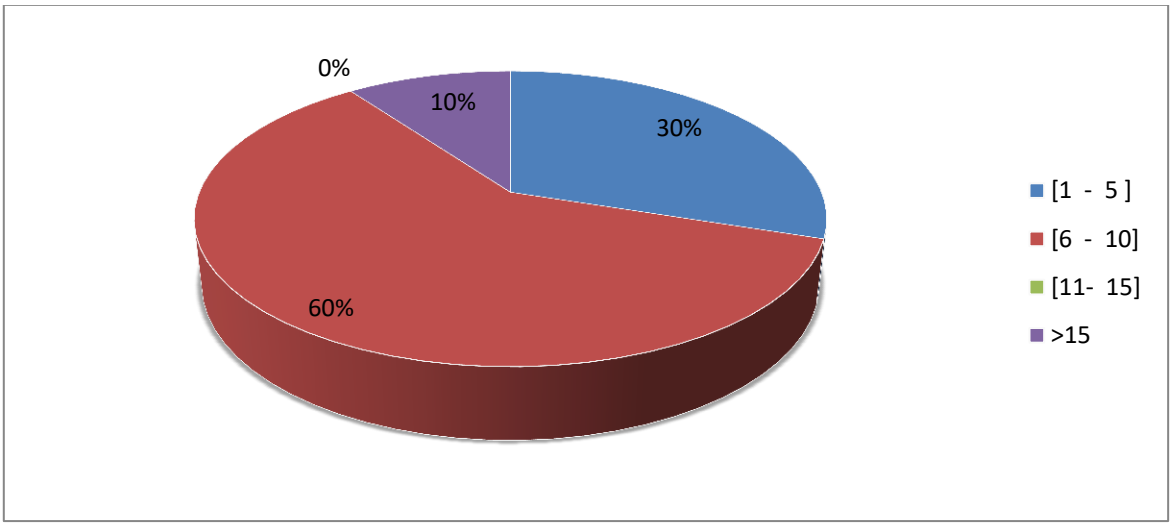


Figure 28. Teaching Experience

The above table and figure indicate the years teachers devoted for the teaching of WE. The results reported that three teachers (33.33%) have an experience of 1 to 5 years. Five teachers (55.55%) have an experience of 6 to 10 years, and one (11.11%) teacher has an experience of more than 15 years. Most of the teachers are thus experienced teachers experiencing teaching at university for more than 5 years.

Levels Being Taught

When teachers' were asked to rate the levels they frequently teach WE module, various answers were obtained.

Table 28.

Levels Being Taught

Options	Freq.	Percentage
1st year	5	55.55 %
2nd year	2	22.22 %
3rd year	2	22.22/ %

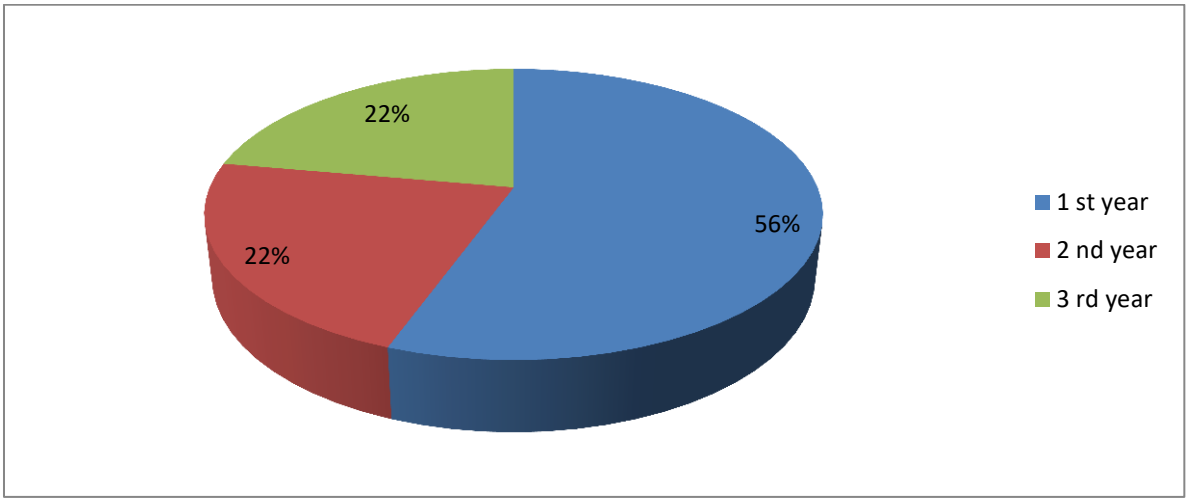


Figure 29. Levels Being Taught

As indicated by table and figure, most teachers are familiarized with the teaching of first year EFL students. Five teachers (55.55%) opted for first years while the four remaining teachers opted for both second and third years.

Section Two: Teaching writing

Responses obtained from the second section of teachers' questionnaire served in obtaining data on how teachers view Students' Level in Writing, the weaknesses marked on students' written performance, and the way teachers respond to students' writings. It also highlighted the approach teachers adopt to teaching WE.

Q: How do you evaluate your students' level in writing?

Poor

Average

Good

Table 29.

Writing Level

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Good	0	00%
average	4	44.44%
poor	5	55.55%

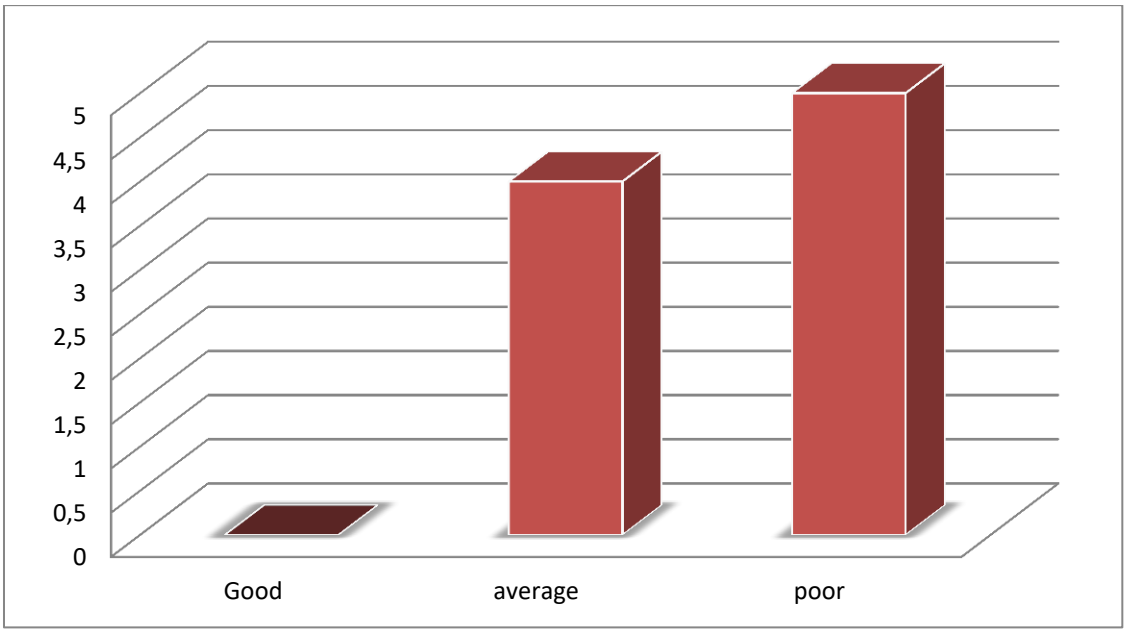


Figure 30. Writing Level

Concerning teachers' views about the level of writing that students have the results demonstrated on figure and table revealed that most teachers held negative views about their students' level of writing. (55.55%) opted for poor. (44.44%) opted for average which means that teachers are already aware of their students' current status in writing and the weaknesses the elaborate. None of the teachers opted for good.

Q: When you ask students to write an assignment, they are:

Very interested

Interested

Not interested

Table 30.

Students' Reacts towards Assignments

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Very interested	0	00%
interested	4	44.44%
Not interested	5	55.55%

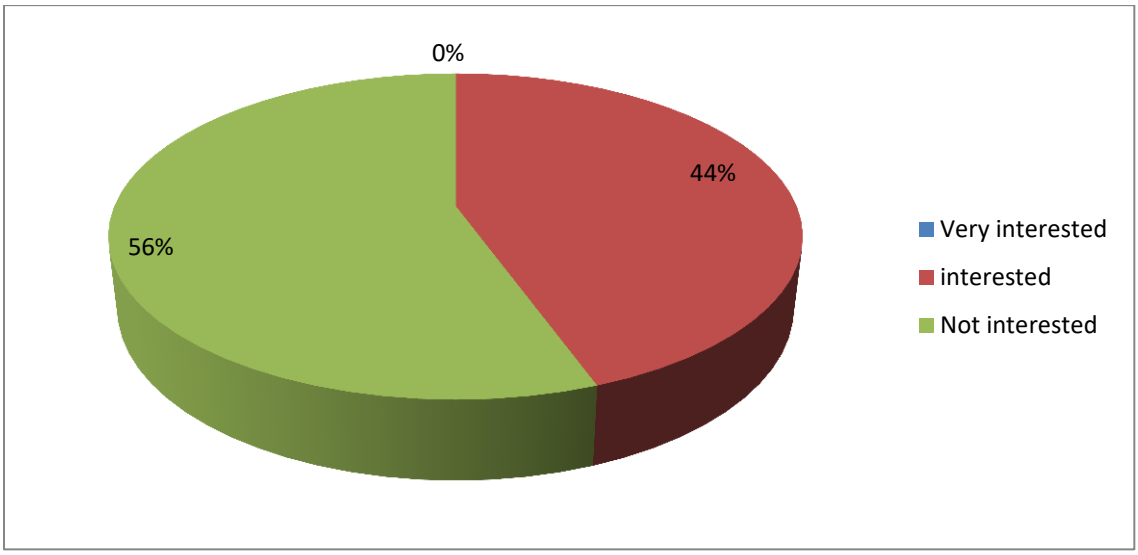


Figure 31. Students' Reacts towards Assignments

Results demonstrated on table and figure revealed that (44.44%) consider students interested towards writing assignments, while (55.55%) view them not interested. This can imply that teachers are aware of the difficulties encountered in writing which makes students not interested when given a writing assignment.

Q: Which, among the following skills, do you think that your students appreciate much?

Listening

Speaking

Reading

Writing

Table 31.

Students Skill Preferences

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Listening	2	22.22
Speaking	4	44.44
Reading	2	22.22
Writing	1	11.11

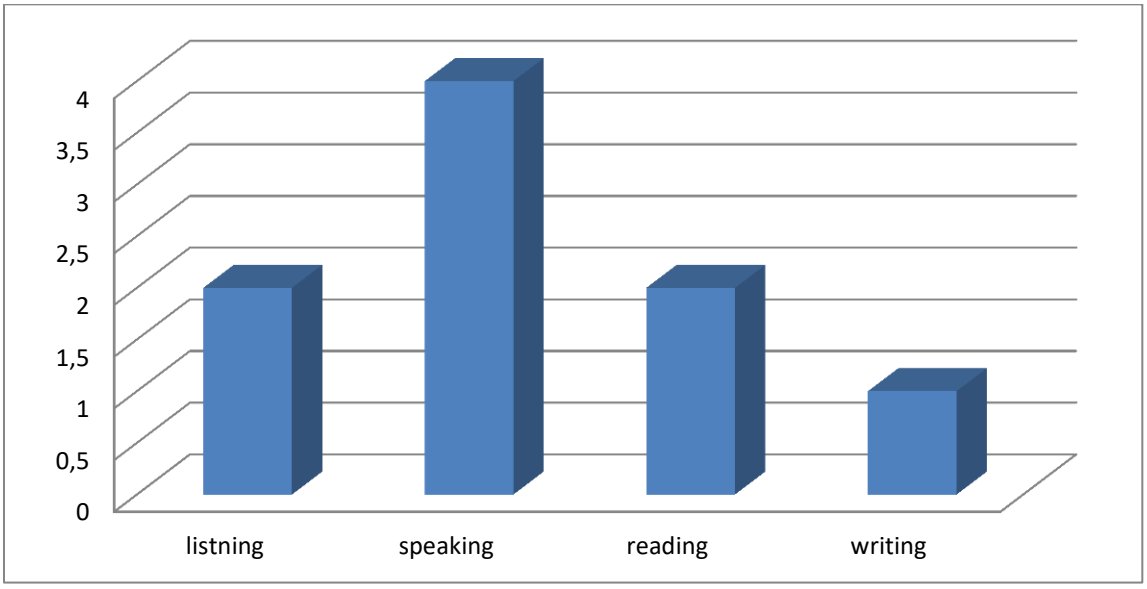


Figure 32. Students Skill Preferences

As shown in figure (32) and table (31) above, most teachers (44.44%) indicated that students are more interested in speaking. Listening and reading were given less interest (22.22%) each, though, more than writing which was selected by only one teacher. These results coincided with the results obtained from students' questionnaire where most students opted for the speaking skill as the most preferred skill.

Q: In your opinion, what are the weaknesses students frequently elaborate in their written performance?

Poor grammar

Poor vocabulary

Spelling

Inappropriate content

Poor organization of ideas

Table 32.

Students' Weaknesses in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Poor grammar	2	22.22%
Poor vocabulary	3	33.33%
spelling	2	22.22%
content	2	22.22%
organization	0	00%

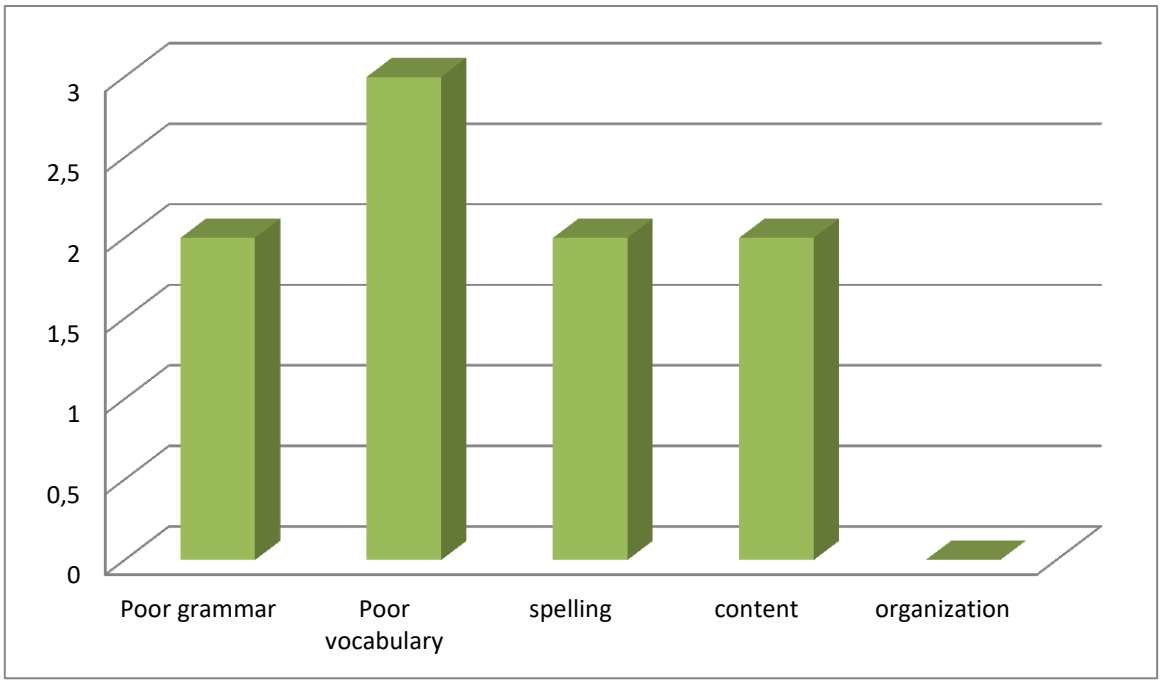


Figure 33. Students' Weaknesses in Writing

The findings illustrated on table (32) and figure (33) above related to teachers' views regarding the weaknesses students' encounter in writing. Accordingly, (33.33%) responded that students' primary weakness is related to vocabulary. (22.22%) opted for grammar, (22.22%) selected spelling, and (22.22%) selected content. These results could indicate that teachers know about the problems their leaners face in writing.

Q: In your opinion, students, when they write, tend to focus on:

Content / Ideas

Grammatical Accuracy

Table 33.

Students' Focus in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Content ideas	9	100%
grammar	0	00.00%

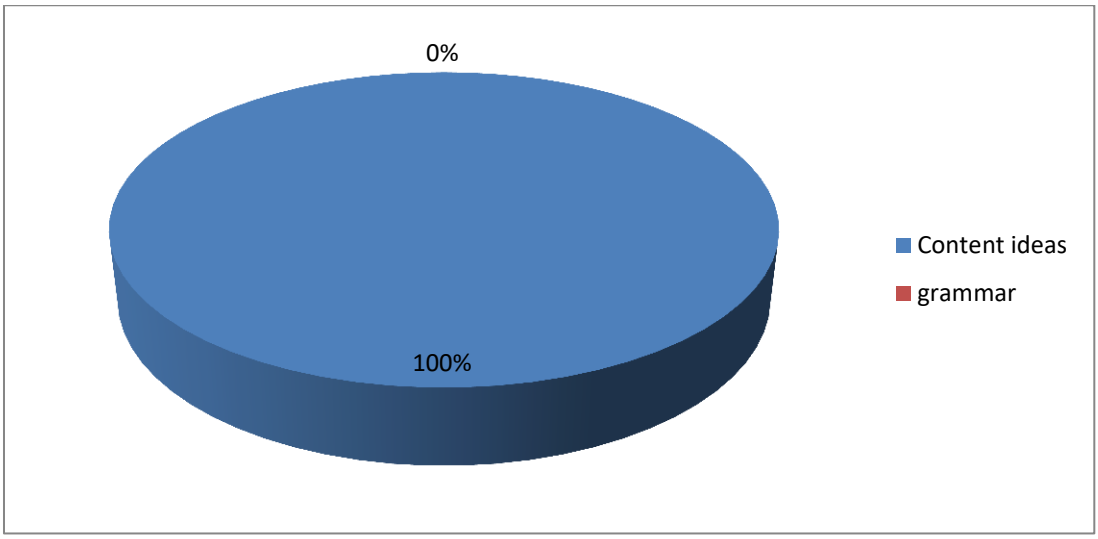


Figure 34. Students' Focus in Writing

Findings exhibited and illustrated on table (33) and figure (34) above demonstrate students' focus in writing as marked by a number of WE teachers. Remarkably, students put heavy emphasis on content and ideas and neglect the grammatical side of their writings. In this regard, all the informants (100%) opted for content and ideas.

Q: In your opinion, what are the reasons behind students' unsatisfactory written performance?

Lack of instruction

Lack of practice

Lack of feedback

Table 34.

Reasons of Unsatisfactory Performance in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Lack of instruction	2	22.22%
Lack practice	6	66.66%
Lack of feed back	1	11.11%

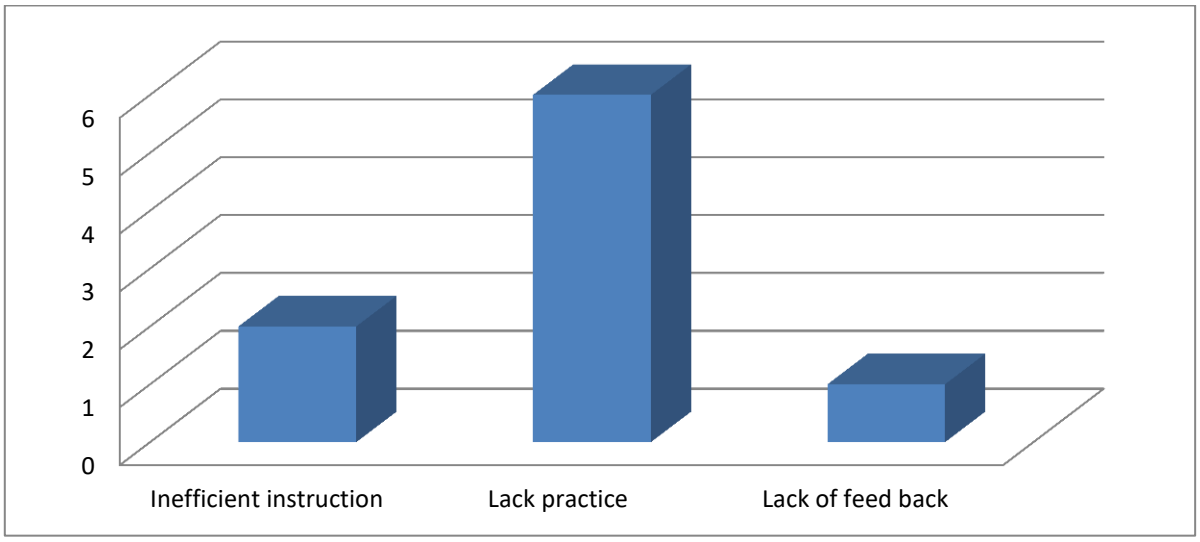


Figure 35. Reasons of Unsatisfactory Performance in Writing

The data illustrated on table (34) and the figure (35) above reported teachers' views concerning reasons of students' unsatisfactory performance in writing are concerned. So, as it is shown, teachers attributed the unsatisfactory performance to the lack of practice (66.66%). They justified their choice that written performance would improve when students' practise writing constantly. They contend that, when students write, they will better work on their weaknesses, and therefore their writing will get developed and ameliorated. On the flip side, teachers (22.22%) referred to lack of instruction. They argued that the time devoted for the teaching of WE which is one hour and a half per week is not enough. However, only one teacher (11.11%) referred to the last option which is lack of feedback. The above results indicated that teachers do not truly consider the importance of feedback in WE sessions.

Q: On which aspect you focus more when assessing students' written productions?

Grammar

Content / Ideas

Organization

Table 35.

Teachers' Focus

Options	Freq.	Percentage
grammar	0	0%
Content ideas	0	0%
both	9	100%

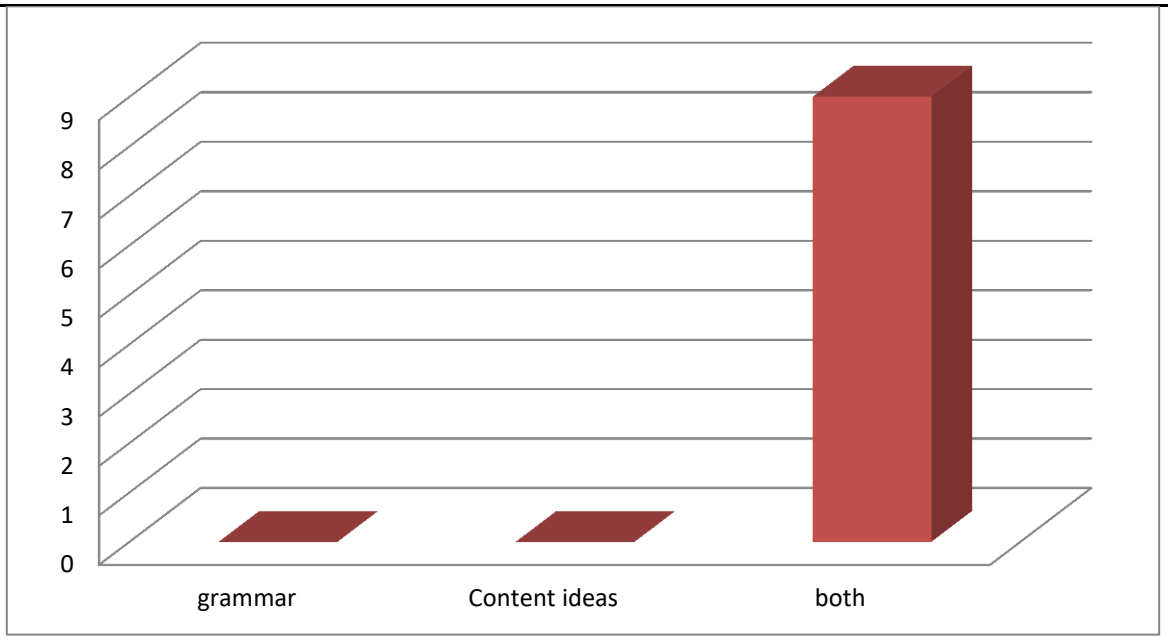


Figure 36. Teachers' Focus

When teachers were asked to respond on which aspect they focus on when assessing students' written performance they all (100%) opted for both content and grammar. That is students' written performance is not judged for its content and ideas but also for the accuracy of its grammar and correctness.

Q: Do you think that students' grammatical deficiencies affect the quality of their writing?

Yes

No

Table 36.

Teachers' View on the Effect of Grammatical Deficiencies in Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
yes	9	100%
no	0	00%

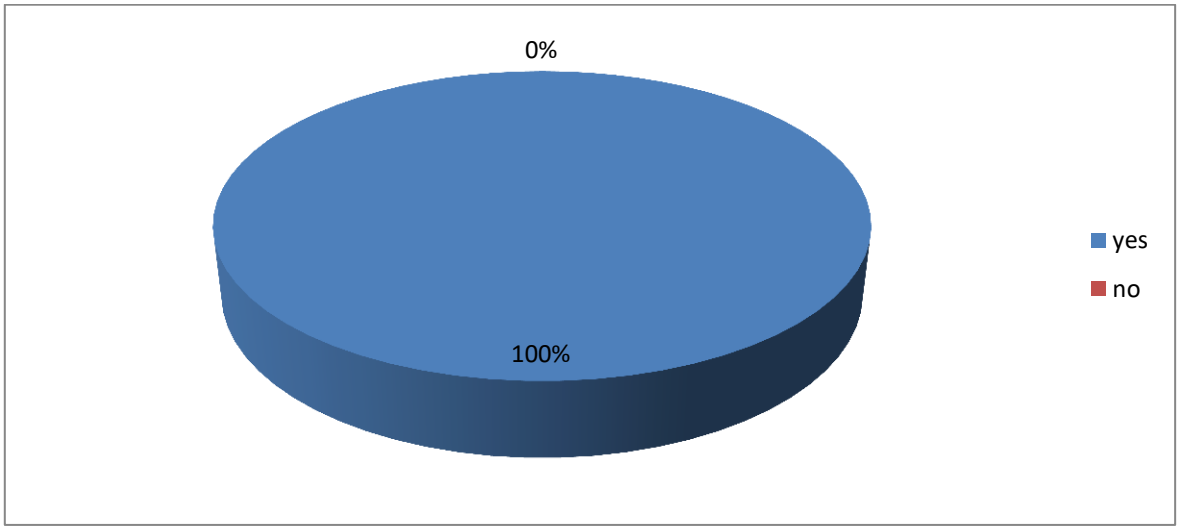


Figure 37. Teachers' View on the Effect of Grammatical Deficiencies in Writing

Table (36) and figure (37) demonstrate teachers' absolute accordance (100%) with the negative impact of grammatical deficiencies on writing. They all agreed that students' grammatical deficiencies do affect the quality of their written performance.

Q: Which approach you rely on in teaching writing?

The Product Approach

The process Approach

Both

Table 37.

Approaches to Teaching Writing

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Process approach	2	22.22%
Product approach	1	11.11%
both	6	66.66%

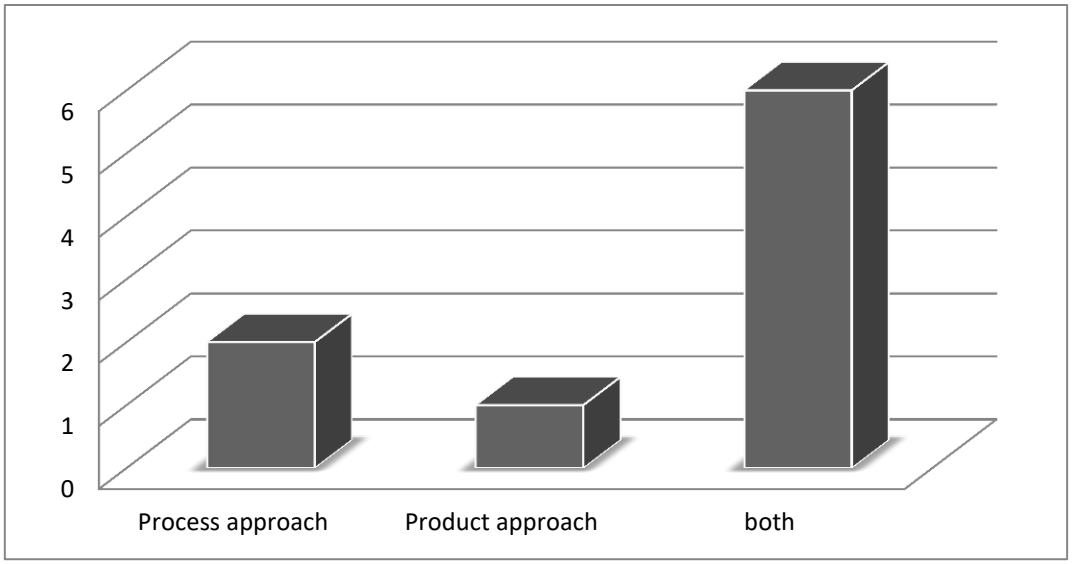


Figure38. Approaches to Teaching Writing

When teachers were questioned about the approach they rely on in teaching writing, (22.22%) responded by process approach, (11.11%) responded by product approach, while (66.66%) responded by both. Teachers justified that process pedagogy is judged to be time consuming and it does not effectively work with large classes. Yet, (66.66%) opted for both. For them the use of both process and product approaches is better than relying on only one in that both approaches are correlated and that process approach gives the path to the product approach.

Section Three: Peer feedback in L2 Writing

In this section, the researcher intended to estimate teachers' perceptions of PF and the extent to which PF is applied in writing classes.

Q: Do you provide feedback to your students during the process of writing?

Yes

No

Table 38.

Teachers' Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
yes	6	66.66%
no	3	33.33%

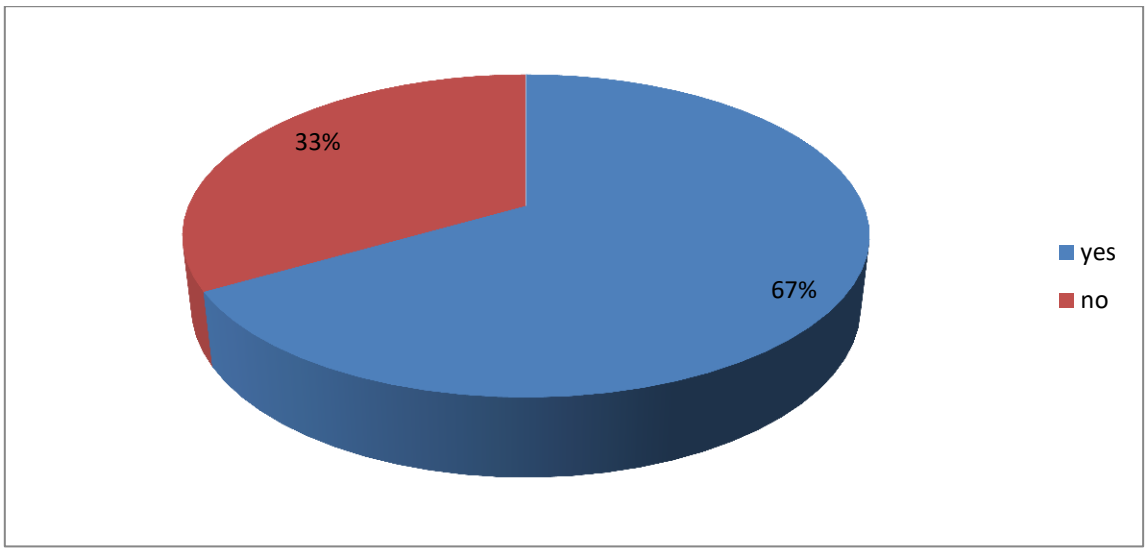


Figure 39. Teachers' Feedback

Techers responses displayed on the table and figure above indicated that (66.66%) of informants replied with yes concerning the provision of feedback in writing. However, (33.33%) responded with no. These answers indicated that teachers prefer providing feedback to their students instead of allowing students themselves to provide PF.

Q: Do you ask your students to revise their drafts before they submit the final version?

Always

Sometimes

Never

Table 39.

Students' Revision of Drafts

Options	Freq.	Percentage
always	2	22.22%
sometimes	7	77.77%
never	0	00.00%

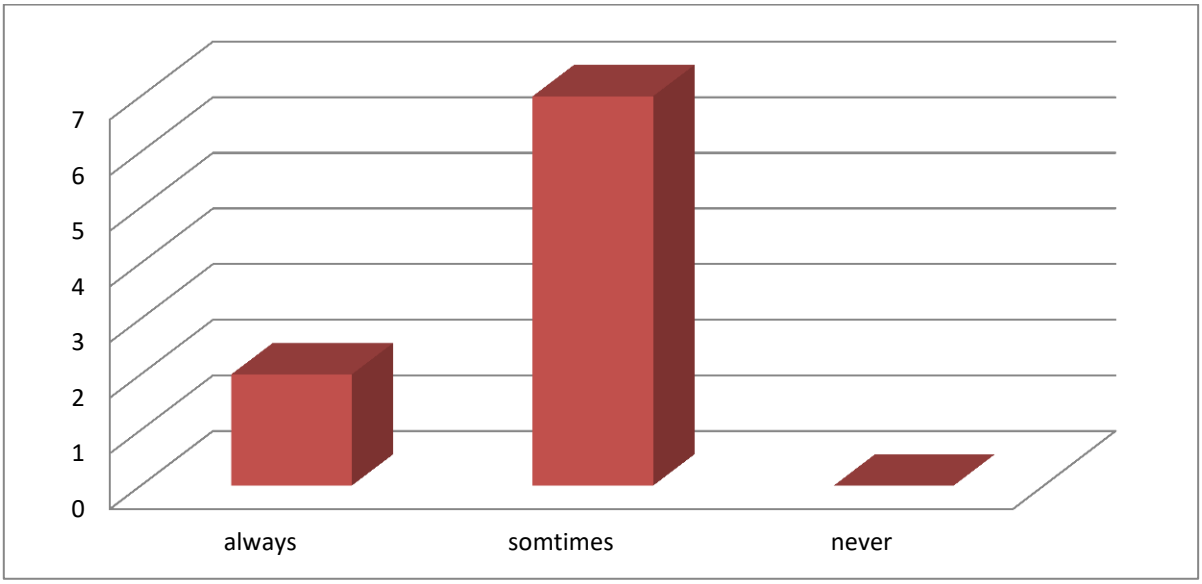


Figure 40. Students' Revision of drafts

The responses obtained from this question indicated that (77.77%) of respondents sometimes require their students to review their first drafts, whereas (22.22%) stated that they always recommend students to edit and review their texts. These responses indicated how important is revision in the writing process.

Q: In your feedback, you usually focus on:

Accuracy

Content

Organization

All of them

Table 40.

Teachers Focus in Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
accuracy	2	22.22%
Content	0	00%
Organization	0	00%
All of them	7	77.77%

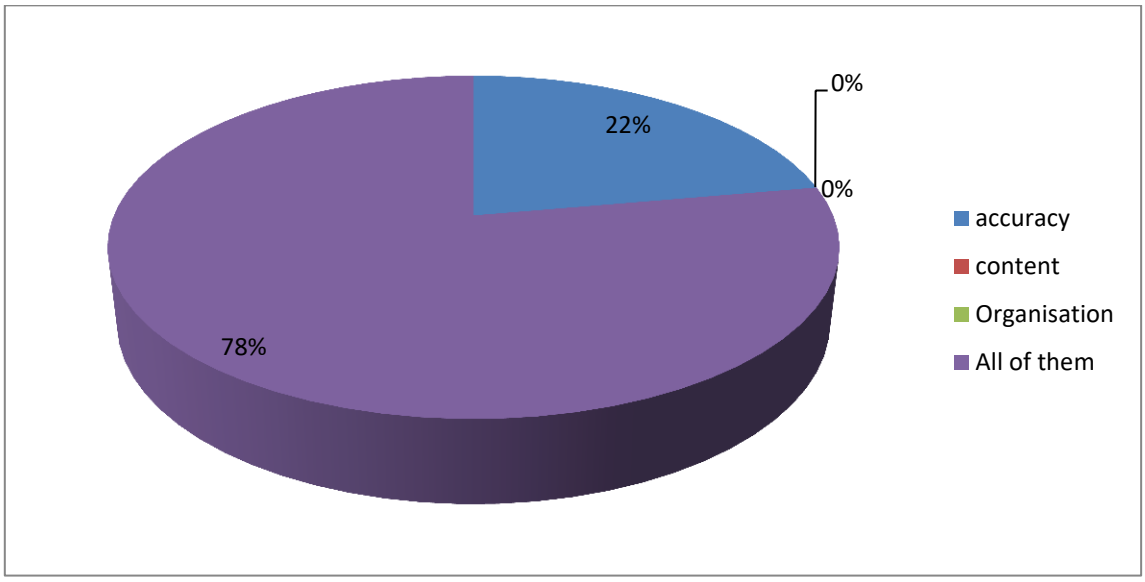


Figure 41. Teachers Focus in Feedback

This question aimed to determine the degree to which grammatical accuracy is crucial for the effectiveness of any writing. The responses obtained demonstrated that (22.22%) of teachers' feedback is oriented to grammar, while (77.77%) is directed to content, grammar and organization of ideas. Ultimately, the responses to this question clearly indicated that grammar is of great importance in writing and that teachers focus on the grammatical accuracy of students' writings.

Q: Do you encourage your students to provide feedback to one another?

Yes

No

Table 41.

Teachers' Views on Students' Feedback

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	1	11.11%
No	8	88.88%

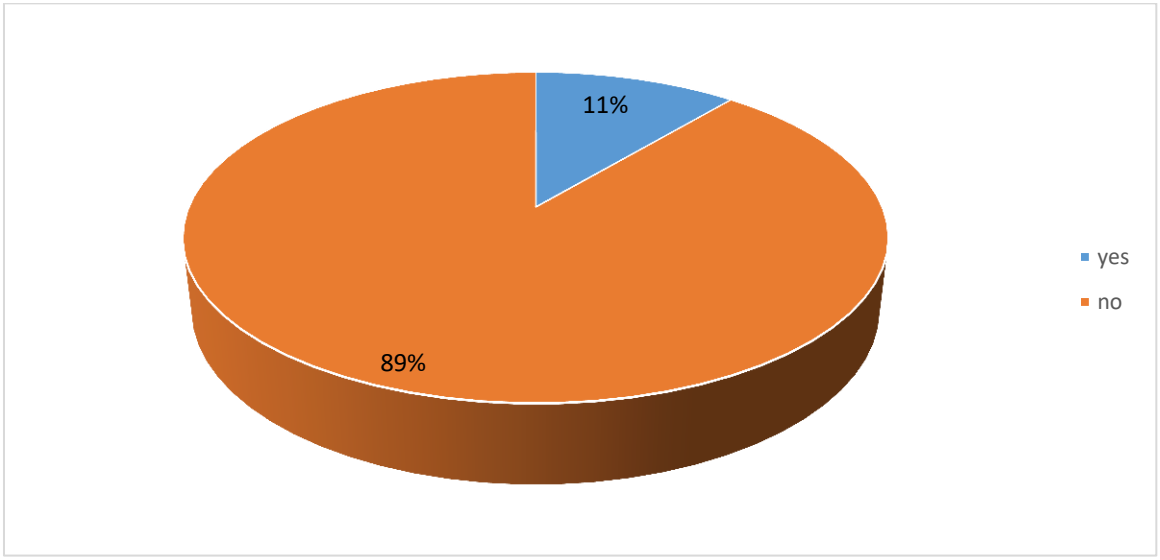


Figure 42.Teachers' Views on Students' Feedback

The responses showed that (11.11%) of informants encourage their students for PF, while the majority (88.88%) of informants do not do so. Their justification turns around the fact that students are neither qualified nor trained to provide PF.

Q: PF is much appreciated by students' than teachers' feedback.

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly agree

Table 42.

Teachers' Views on PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Strongly disagree	4	44.44%
disagree	2	22.22%
neutral	1	11.11%
agree	2	22.22%
Strongly agree	0	00%

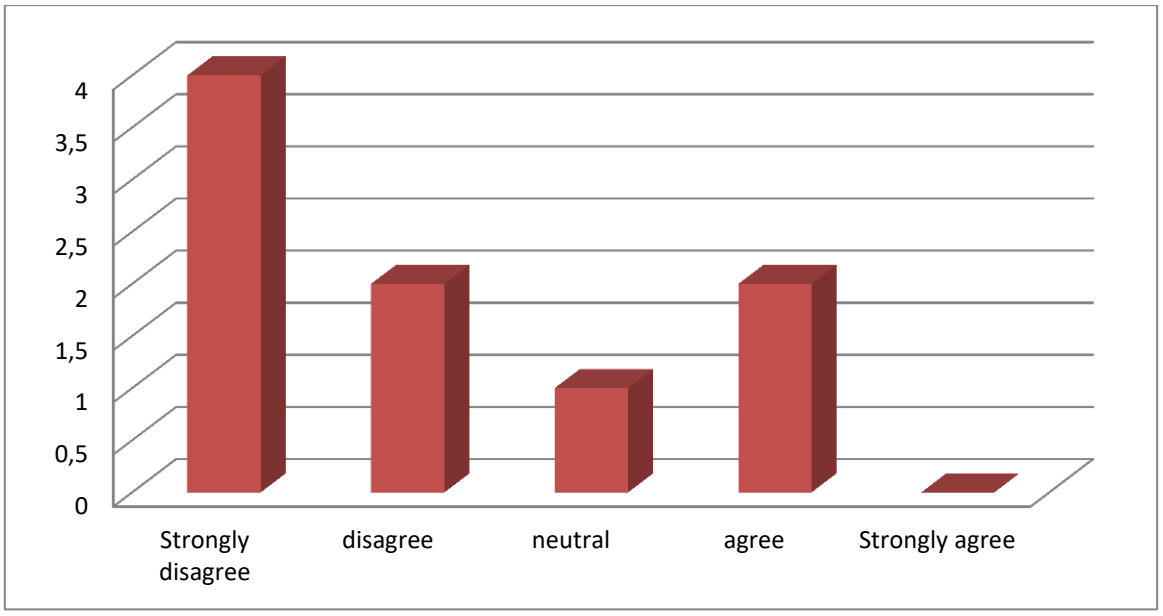


Figure 43.Teachers' Views on PF

Concerning teachers' reaction to the statement which stated that PF is much appreciated by students than teachers' feedback, (44.44%) opted for strongly disagree, (22.22%) disagree, (11.11%) neutral, (22.22%) agree, and (00%) strongly agree. These results could imply that is the feedback dominated in writing classes is teachers' feedback.

Q: Do you think that students are prepared enough to give efficient PF?

Yes

No

Table 43.

Teachers' Views on Students' PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
Yes	02	22.22%
No	07	77.77%

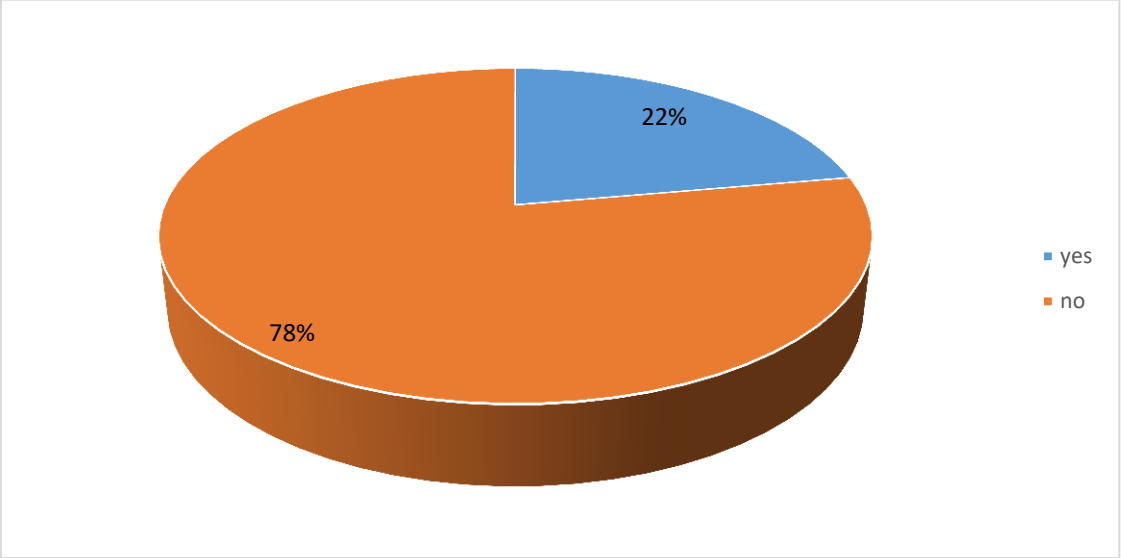


Figure 44. Teachers' Views on Students' PF

Most teachers (77.77%) answered by *no*, whereas (22.22%) answered by *yes*. These results indicate that teachers still consider students not well prepared to provide feedback. That is why students are not given an opportunity to provide feedback.

Q: In your opinion, can PF enhance students' writing accuracy?

Yes

No

Table 44.

Teachers' Views about PF and Students' Writing Accuracy

Options	Freq.	Percentage
yes	05	55.55%
no	04	44.44%

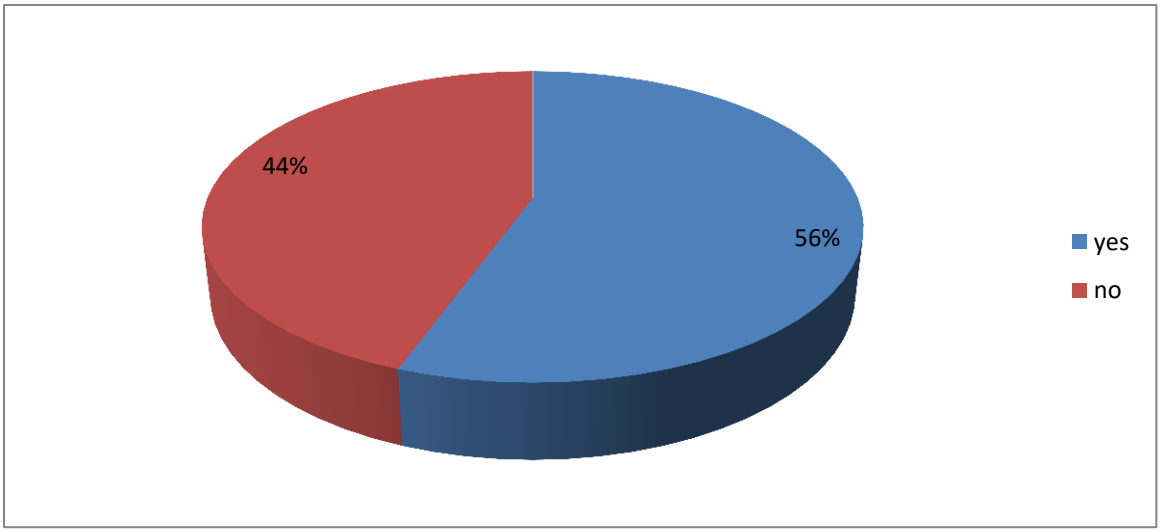


Figure 45. Teachers' Views about PF and Students' Writing Accuracy

The data obtained indicated that (55.55%) responded with *yes*. That is, PF can enhance students' writing accuracy. Yet, (44.44%) declared the reverse.

Q: Do you think that, training students to PF will result in better written performance?

Yes

No

Table 45.

Teachers' Views on Training to PF

Options	Freq.	Percentage
yes	06	66.66%
no	02	22.22%
No answer	01	11.11%

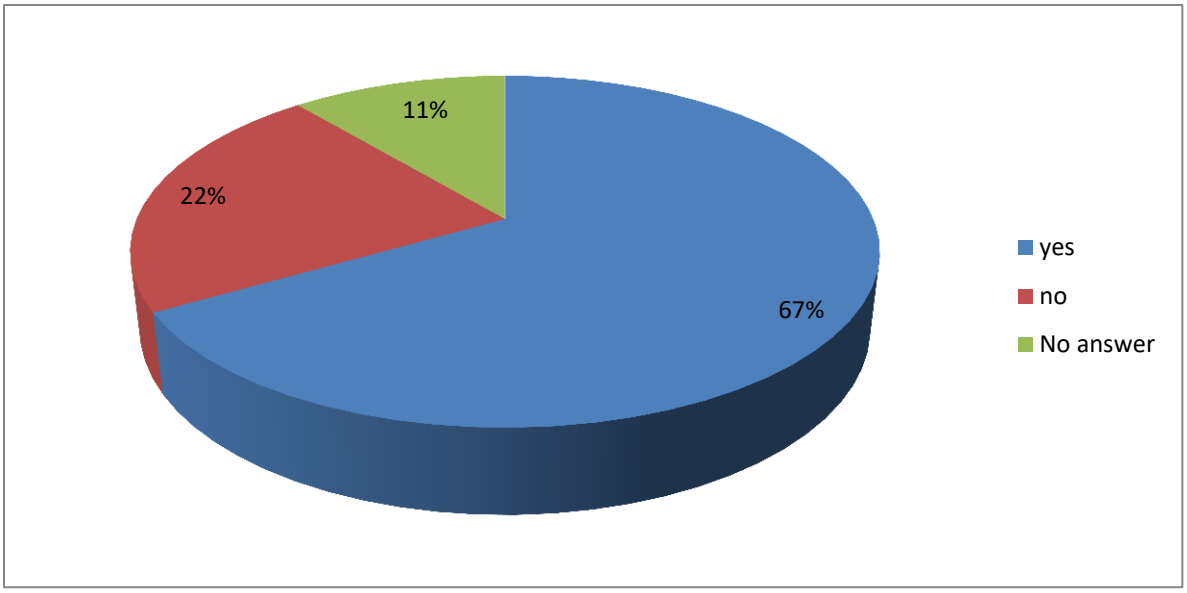


Figure 46. Teachers' Views on Training to PF

The information the researcher yielded and elucidated on table (45) and figure (46) above demonstrated teachers' views on training to PF. Responses indicated that (66.66%) opted for yes. That is training students to provide PF results in better written performance. However, (22.22%) responded by no, while (11.11%) did not respond to the question. These responses indicate that teachers held positive attitudes towards PF if it is given in the right way.

3.1.3. Discussion of Students Questionnaire Results

On the basis of the results obtained from students' questionnaire, which aimed at probing learners' perceptions regarding the PF implementation to enhance writing accuracy, various notes have been marked.

To begin with, the analysis of data demonstrated that first year EFL students at the University of M'sila have difficulties in writing. This fact is one of the attributes which makes students inclined to the oral skills. Accordingly, students judged their level in writing to be average to poor.

The difficulty of the writing skill as perceived by first year students has ultimately affected their interest towards writing assignments, as it decreases their pace of writing. In this regard, the results revealed that students practise writing only when they are asked by their teachers.

The results generated have also demonstrated that students do not fully recognize the necessity of following the different phases of writing as process. Mostly, students asserted that they do not go through the stages of the process of writing where they have to go through planning, drafting, revising and publishing. In this regard, it is worthy to note that the writing process encompasses a number of stages which all need to be considered while undertaking a writing task. Students need to refine their drafts before they come up to the final status. As stated by Hedge (2005), who insists on following the stages of writing with a particular emphasis on revision. He posits that revising refines and re-examines the written products. It also helps the writer to make the final adjustments and checks the accuracy before the piece of writing is accessible to reader.

Regarding the weaknesses that students elaborate when they write, the questionnaire revealed that students' main weakness is the lack of vocabulary, in addition to poor grammar and shortage of ideas. Accordingly, Adas and Baki (2013) discuss the issue of vocabulary in writing. They consider that students of English possess finite number of vocabularies. Ultimately, students end up recurring the same vocabularies which make their written substance poor without any of creativity. Furthermore, despite that grammar is the basis of all language skills, it is paid less attention in EFL writing as the results obtained revealed that students focus in writing is oriented towards the content and ideas rather than to form and accuracy. This fact corroborates with the view of Williams (2003) who states that students often believe that form errors do not actually affect the quality of writing. Therefore, students bare little attention to form and structure. Even in editing, students frequently tend to read for

the content not for structure. Moreover, Shintani and Ellis (2015) agreed on the status of grammar on writing. They consider that when students' grammar accuracy is improved, further pieces of writing will be eventually improved in terms of grammatical accuracy. In the same vein, through analysing students' questionnaire, it is noticed that teachers' assessments of students' writings involves both form and content. Still, with regard to the data obtained, students ignore the importance of grammar in writing, as most of students' responses indicated that poor grammar does not affect the writing quality.

As to students' awareness of their weaknesses in writing, they attributed these weaknesses and lack of improvement to the lack of practice. As evidenced, practice makes perfection. Furthermore, the results of the questionnaire revealed students' consciousness and need to feedback to enhance their writing. This view is based on the fact that feedback is essential in writing classes. It also conforms to Ferris (2012) who argues that feedback helps student writers to revise and edit their texts and eventually improve the accuracy of those texts. In a similar vein, Hyland and Hyland (2019) contend that feedback is a key construct in the teaching of L2 writing.

The results obtained from students' questionnaire indicated that the dominant form of feedback in writing classes is teacher-based. Students affirmed that their teachers do not indulge learners in PF and that they receive feedback solely from their tutors. Therefore, most of students' responses indicated that they rarely to never engage in PF. For them, teachers' feedback is more trusted. That is, students are not yet aware of the benefits of PF in writing. Typically, the usefulness of PF in L2 writing is well documented in literature particularly in the process approach. It is evidenced that PF is beneficial not only for student writers to improve their written performance, but also for student readers to develop their understanding of good writing (Ferris, 2003; Burket and wally, 2013; Lee, 1997; Lee, 2017).

Overall, the results obtained from students' interests showed their interest towards improving their writing. They also revealed that students held positive attitudes towards implementing PF in writing classes. Therefore, the need to investigate the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies is highly endeavoured.

3.1.4. Discussion of Teachers' Questionnaire Results

The questionnaire forwarded to instructors was intended to gain insights about the teaching of WE, the approaches followed and the overall teaching practices implemented by instructors to foster students' writing accuracy. It also sought to investigate teachers' perceptions of PF as a pedagogical way that might enhance students' grammatical accuracy in writing. The questionnaire allows getting in-depth data based on the views and experiences of teachers in teaching WE.

The findings obtained clearly showed that teachers of WE tend to follow both approaches to teach WE namely product and process approaches. For them, relying on more than one approach is an effective methodology of writing. Badger and White (2000) comment on the same idea. They state that both process and product approaches are complementary, in the sense that each of the approaches seeks to fill in the gaps of the other.

Once again, the challenges of the writing skill are confirmed by the views gathered from teachers' questionnaire which revealed teachers' awareness about their students' level and their weaknesses in writing. For them, the main reason behind students' unsatisfactory writing level is the lack of practice. It is noteworthy that consistent practice, along with feedback, reinforces students' grammatical rules and expands their vocabulary.

As far as the importance of grammar is considered, the findings of the questionnaire demonstrated that learners focus on content rather than on grammar and accuracy. However, in assessing writing, teachers focus on both grammar and content. Therefore, it is an ought to

for teachers to make their students' aware of the requirements of the writing skill, because as noted by Harmer (2004), writing is quite different from speaking in various respects. The levels of correctness and well-formedness are highly demanded in writing. As opposed to speaking which is often made up of smaller chunks of language, writing is generally made up of fully developed sentences. Another criterion which threats the well-formedness of writing is grammar awkwardness. While speakers cannot be judged for their use of deviant grammar, writers are severely judged. Grammatical deficiencies may influence not only the comprehensibility of the written text, but it may also mark students' inadequate language users. Therefore, it is teachers' responsibility to equip learners with knowledge and tips that help them cope with the problems they encounter in writing namely grammar problems (Ferris, 2012).

The last part in the questionnaire intended to gauge teachers' attitudes and viewpoints regarding PF in L2 writing classes. Therefore, the data obtained indicated that teachers frequently ask students to reflect on and revise their papers. As noted by teachers, the feedback they provide to their students encompasses all of grammar, organisation, and content. This denotes that grammatical errors manifested in students' writing do relatively affect the quality of their writing.

Regarding PF, the results revealed that teachers do not ask their students to provide PF to one another. For them, students are not yet qualified to give feedback. Additionally, teachers contended that PF is time consuming, and cannot be effective in overcrowded classes. Moreover, teachers viewed students not fully trained for PF and eventually their feedback would not be effective. In this context, Kuyyogsuy (2019) investigated the efficacy of PF. He claims that for PF to be more effective for learners, training is an essential to enable them to improve their writing with accurate grammar use. That is, training students is likely to result in an effective PF practice.

Overall, the researchers' basic assumption is that students encounter a number of difficulties in writing. One of the major problems, which if not treated from earlier stages, will certainly affect students' writing quality in later stages, is grammar. PF is one of the potentially effective techniques that is neglected in EFL writing classes to treat students grammatical deficiencies. It is argued that feedback is better approached when it goes on in an interactional context where students interact and communicate with one another to negotiate forms and meanings (Okyar and Ekşi, 2019). Hence, the results of teachers' as well as students' questionnaires set the groundwork for the interventional treatment of PF.

3.2. Section Two: The Experimental Phase

As indicated previously, the foremost aim that this study tended to achieve is investigating the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing of first year students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The learners who took part in the experiment were sixty (60) students divided into one EG (30 students) and another CG (30 students). The experiment lasted for a whole semester; from January, 2023 to May, 2023. The students of both groups were subjected to a pre-test; before the treatment begun, progress tests during the treatment phase, and a post-test after the experimental phase.

3.2.1. Results and Analysis of the Pre-test

The rationale behind conducting the pre-test was to diagnose students' level of grammatical accuracy in writing before pursuing them with the treatment. The following table displays the frequency of grammatical errors students commit in the pre-test. It is worth noting that the most frequent grammatical errors committed by the students include subject-verb disagreement, pronoun errors, preposition errors, plural-singular forms, misplaced modifiers, choices of verb forms, and fragment sentences.

Table 46.

Students' Error Frequency in the Pre-test

Pre-test			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	10	1	4
2	8	2	5
3	9	3	4
4	4	4	3
5	3	5	4
6	5	6	4
7	4	7	7
8	5	8	2
9	6	9	4
10	8	10	6
11	5	11	8
12	4	12	4
13	5	13	7
14	5	14	3
15	4	15	4
16	9	16	4
17	10	17	8
18	5	18	6
19	4	19	6
20	2	20	10
21	9	21	4
22	8	22	5
23	3	23	9
24	5	24	8
25	5	25	5
26	9	26	9
27	4	27	8
28	8	28	6
29	5	29	7
30	10	30	9
Σ	181	Σ	173

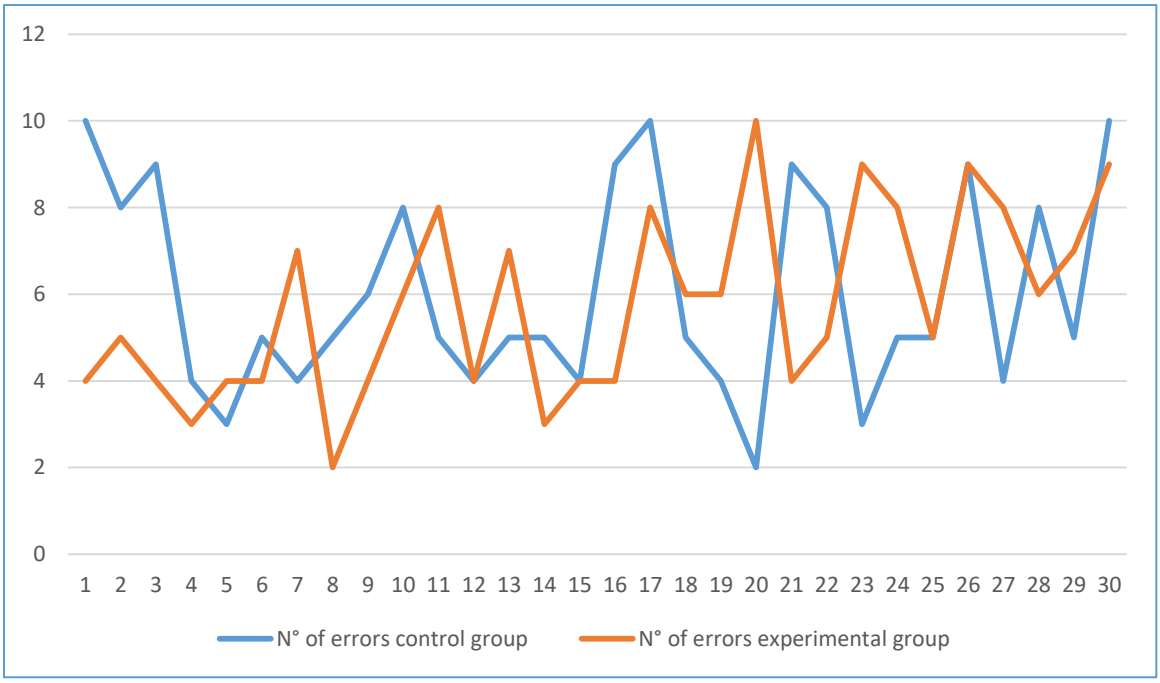


Figure 47. Students' Errors in the Pre-test

Table (46) and figure (47) above display the frequency of grammatical errors of students in the pre-test. The sum of errors is 181 in the CG, while in the EG the sum of errors is 173. The statistical analysis of the pre-test result is clearly displayed in the following table and figure.

Table 47.

Statistical Description of the Pre-test Results

Pre-test		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Group	EG	5.7667	30	2.14449	0.443	29	0.661
	CG	6.0333	30	2.39947			

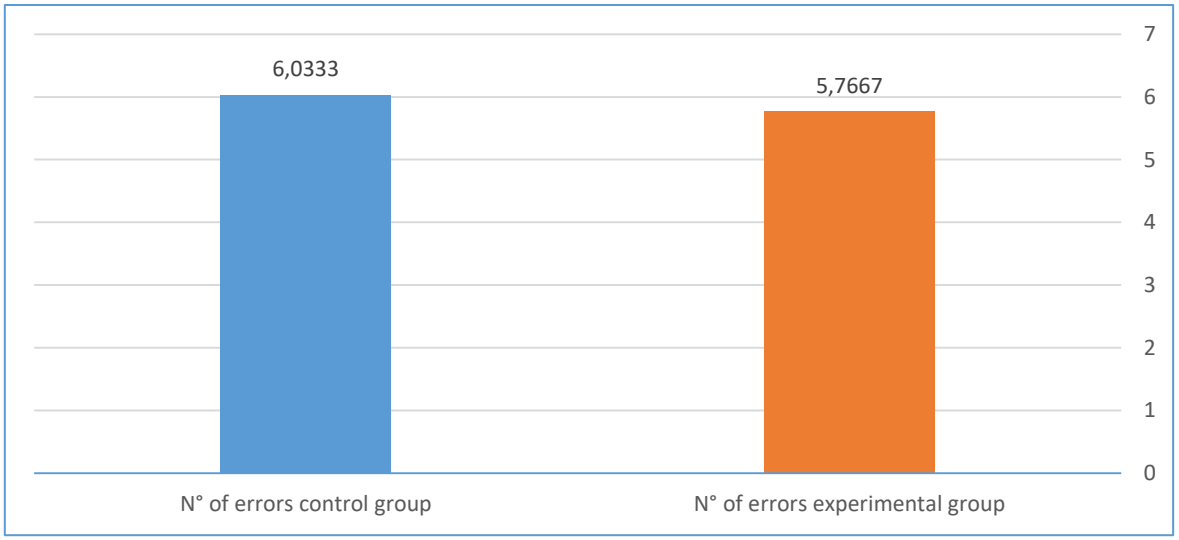


Figure 48. The Mean of Students' Errors in the Pre-test

The findings of the pre-test served in providing the following results. The mean of the number of errors in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=5.7667) with a noticed standard deviation of (*SD*=2.14449). However, the mean of errors in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=6.0333), with a remarkable standard deviation of (*SD*=2.39947). The T-test value is indicated (t=0.443), and it is associated with a positive sign. These data clearly denote that there is no difference significantly marked in the number of errors between the experimental and CGs. The degrees of freedom are 29. Concerning the significance (Sig) value, it is (Sig=0.661), which is higher than the conventional significance level of (Sig=0.05). This indicates that the variance in the number of grammatical errors of the EG learners and the CG learners is not statistically significant. These results could imply that there is no statistically significant difference between the EG and CG in terms of grammatical accuracy in the pre-test.

3.2.2. Results and Analysis of Progress Tests

Throughout the course of the experiment, the participants undertook seven progress tests according to the developmental patterns of paragraph writing that students are supposed to deal with in first year. Accordingly, the seven patterns of paragraph development are sequenced as the following: specific details, exemplification, definition, classification, cause

and effect, comparison and contrast, and opinion. Progress tests were designed in order to check students' grammatical accuracy improvement in writing.

- **Progress Test One Results**

In progress test one, students received instruction on how to develop a paragraph following specific details pattern. She supplied the lesson with an illustrating example. Students' performances in both groups were corrected and analysed by the instructor concerning grammar outperformance. Clearly, the table below shows the frequency of students' grammatical errors in both groups.

Table 48.

Results of Progress Test One

Progress Test 1 : Paragraph Developed by Specific Details			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	5	1	2
2	4	2	2
3	3	3	2
4	3	4	2
5	5	5	6
6	5	6	1
7	3	7	1
8	3	8	3
9	7	9	3
10	7	10	3
11	1	11	3
12	6	12	2
13	10	13	2
14	3	14	2
15	3	15	2
16	3	16	4
17	6	17	4
18	6	18	4
19	7	19	4
20	5	20	4
21	2	21	4
22	8	22	4
23	5	23	4
24	8	24	5
25	2	25	5

26	6	26	2
27	4	27	4
28	6	28	4
29	2	29	6
30	2	30	7
Σ	141	Σ	101

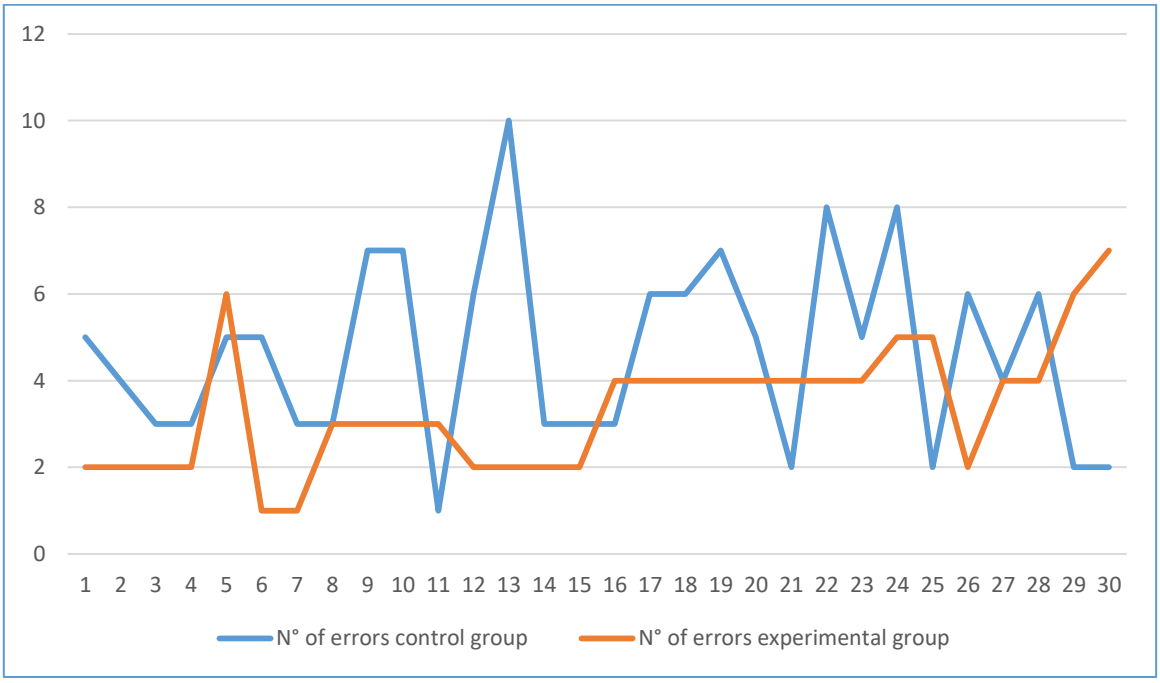


Figure 49. Results of Progress Test One

As the above table indicates, the frequency of grammatical mistakes of the CG is more than in the EG. It seems from the table that there is a difference in achievement in both groups.

Table 49.

Statistical Description of Progress Test One Results

Progress test 1: Paragraph Developed by Specific Details		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Groups	EG	3.3667	30	1.49674	2.572	29	0.016
	CG	4.6667	30	2.18669			

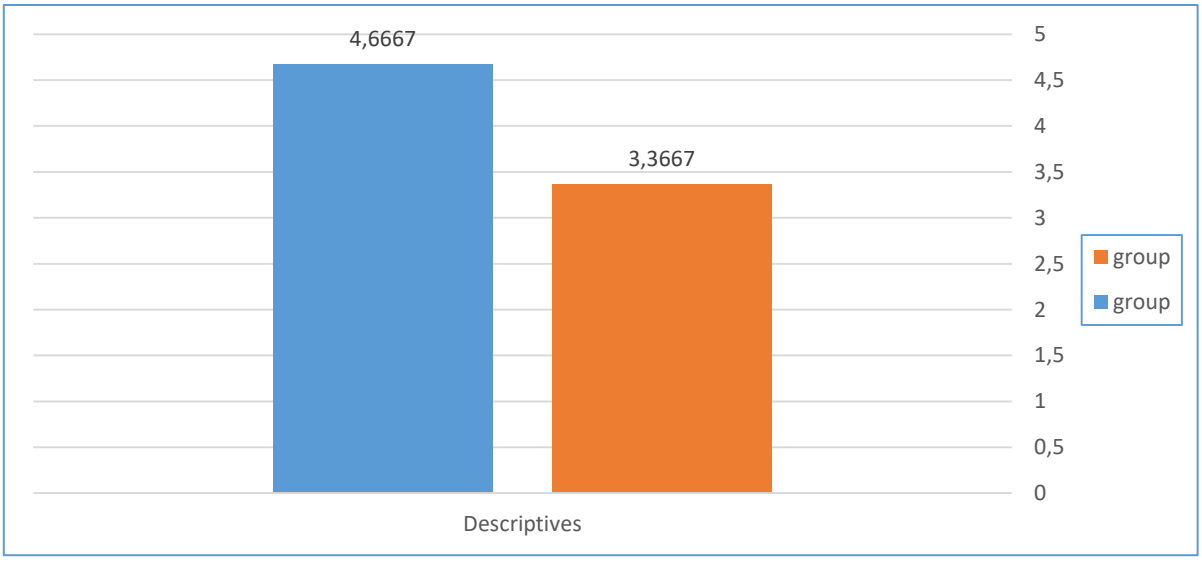


Figure 50. The Mean of Errors in Progress Test One

The above table clearly displays students' performance in progress test one. The results are illustrated in the following way: For the EG, the mean for the errors' number in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=3.3667), with a standard deviation of (*SD*=1.49674), while the mean for the number of errors in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=4.6667), with a standard deviation of (SD=2.1866). Accordingly, the T-test value is (t=2.572), which is a positive value. This indicates that a statistically significant difference existed between the EG and the CG. In this test, the degree of freedom is valued as (df=29). The significance (Sig) value represents 0.016, which is lower than the standard level of significance of (Sig=0.05). This indicates the existence of a difference that statistically significant between the two groups regarding their grammatical errors. That is, the EG performed statistically better than the CG

- **Progress Test Two Results**

In progress test two, the participants were required to write a paragraph developed by exemplification pattern. After receiving the necessary instruction, and guidelines on how to write an exemplification paragraph, students were tasked with developing a paragraph on the topic suggested by the teacher and agreed upon by the whole groups.

Table 50.

The Frequency of Errors in Progress Test Two

Progress test 2 : Paragraph Developed by Exemplification			
CG	Frequency of Errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	3	1	2
2	6	2	2
3	2	3	2
4	6	4	2
5	3	5	4
6	5	6	4
7	4	7	4
8	3	8	4
9	8	9	1
10	4	10	1
11	10	11	1
12	2	12	1
13	3	13	5
14	2	14	5
15	6	15	5
16	8	16	5
17	4	17	1
18	2	18	1
19	4	19	1
20	3	20	1
21	3	21	2
22	4	22	3
23	3	23	2
24	3	24	5
25	2	25	4
26	2	26	4
27	4	27	6
28	4	28	8
29	2	29	2
30	7	30	5
Σ	122	Σ	93

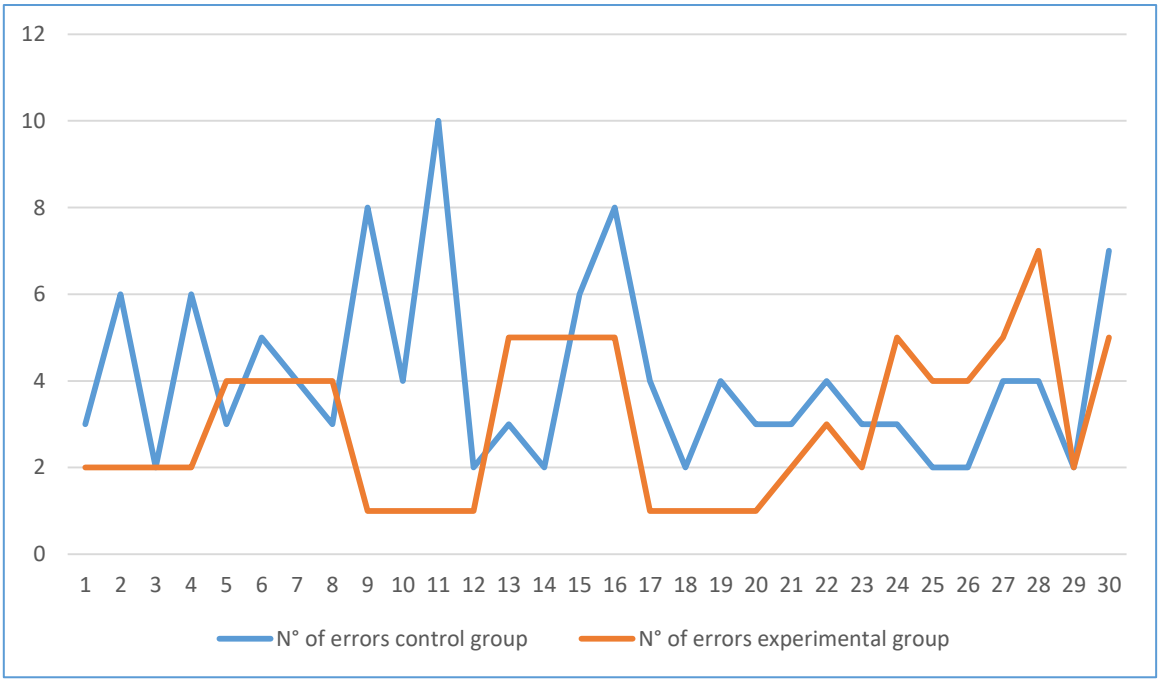


Figure 51. Students achievement in the progress test two

It is evidently demonstrated in table (50) above that the frequency of students' grammatical errors reduced in progress test two in both groups. Though, the EG is still prepotent.

Table 51.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Two Results

Progress Test 2 : Paragraph Developed by Exemplification		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
groups	EG	3.0333	30	1.75152	2.060	29	0.04
	CG	4.0667	30	2.08332			8

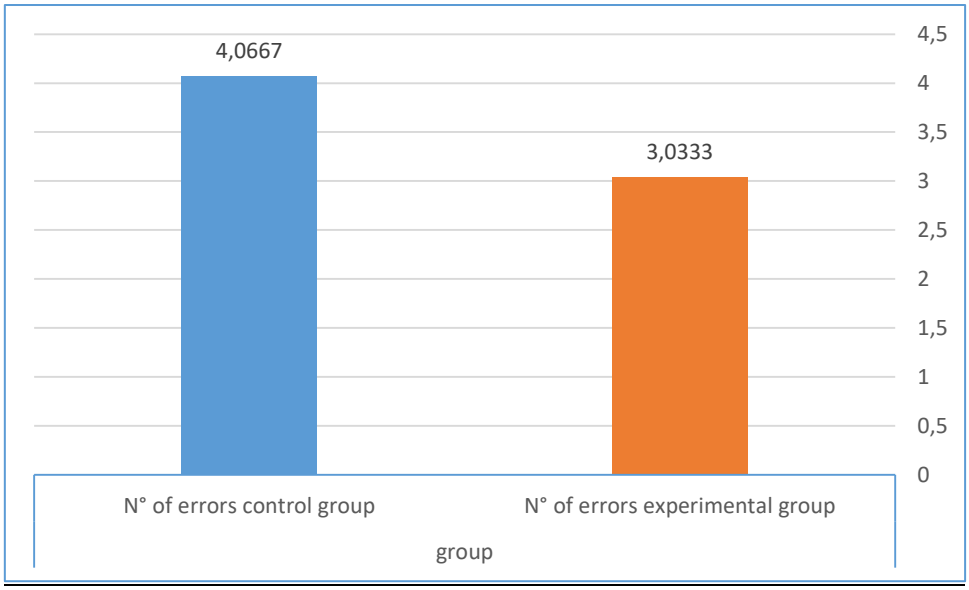


Figure 52. The Mean of Grammatical Errors in Progress Test Two

The table and the figure above show both experimental and CG achievement is progress test two. The frequency of grammatical errors is remarkably high in the CG paragraphs as opposed to the EG. On this basis, the mean of errors in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=3.0333), with a standard deviation of (*SD*=1.75152). However, the mean of errors in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=4.0667), with a standard deviation of (*SD*=2.08332). Correspondingly, the T-test value is (t=2.060), which suggests that a potential difference do exists with concern to grammatical errors of the EG and CG. Hence, the degrees of freedom is (df= 29). Typically, the significance value is (Sig=0.048), which is less than the standard significance level of 0.05. This implies that there is a statistically significant difference in the number of errors between the control and the EGs. The results obtained might be interpreted in the following way: The positive T-test value (t=2.060) and the significance (Sig) value of (*Sig*=0.048) indicate the potential difference in the example(s) paragraph between the experimental and the CGs. The statistically significant p-value also suggest that PF had a positive impact and therefore it led to reducing errors for the EG in comparison to the CG.

- **Progress Test Three Results**

In progress test three, the EG and CG participants were tasked with writing a paragraph following the definition pattern. The test was handles after finishing the lesson.

Table 52.

Results of Progress Test Three

Progress test 3 : Paragraph Developed by Definition			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	2	1	2
2	3	2	1
3	3	3	2
4	4	4	4
5	3	5	1
6	4	6	2
7	3	7	1
8	5	8	2
9	6	9	2
10	3	10	3
11	5	11	2
12	4	12	5
13	3	13	6
14	5	14	1
15	5	15	2
16	3	16	4
17	2	17	2
18	1	18	5
19	4	19	6
20	8	20	2
21	7	21	2
22	3	22	4
23	5	23	3
24	4	24	5
25	7	25	2
26	3	26	3
27	4	27	2
28	5	28	3
29	6	29	3
30	7	30	4
Σ	127	Σ	86

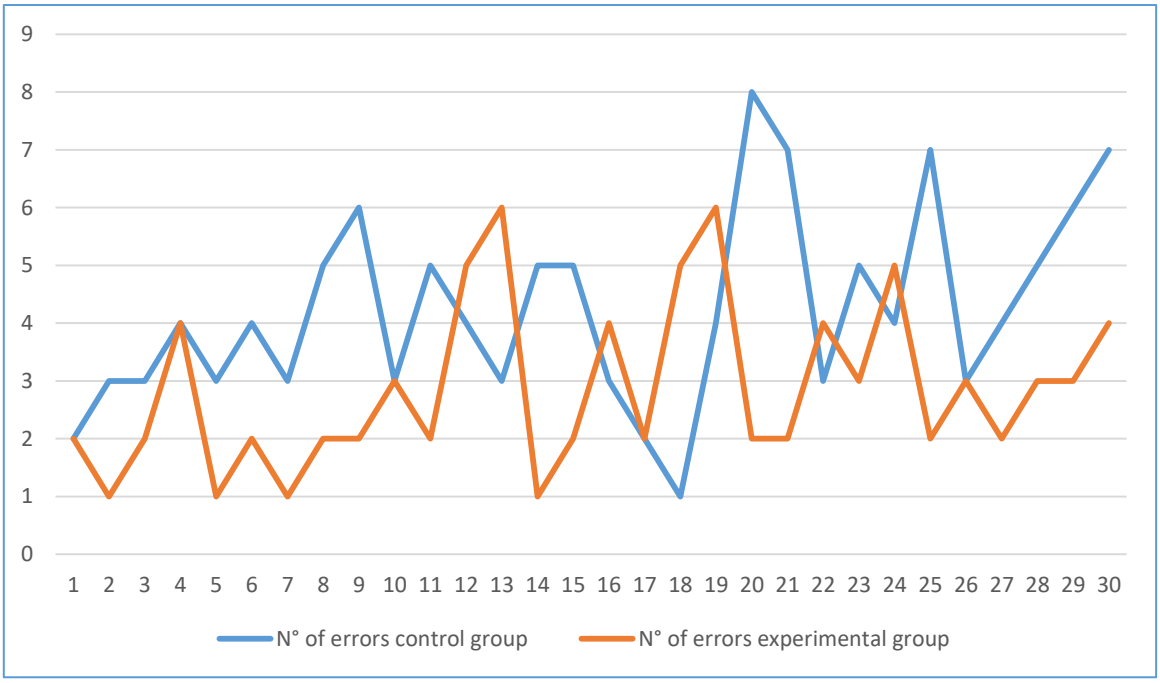


Figure 53. Results of Progress Test Three

As the table above shows, the obtained data revealed that students still encounter difficulties in grammar when they write particularly in the CG. However, the data demonstrate improvements in grammatical accuracy within the EG. Statistically speaking, the results of progress test three are displayed in the following way.

Table 53.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Three

Progress test 3: Paragraph Developed by Definition		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Groups	EG	2.8667	30	1.45586	3.101	29	0.004
	CG	4.2333	30	1.67504			

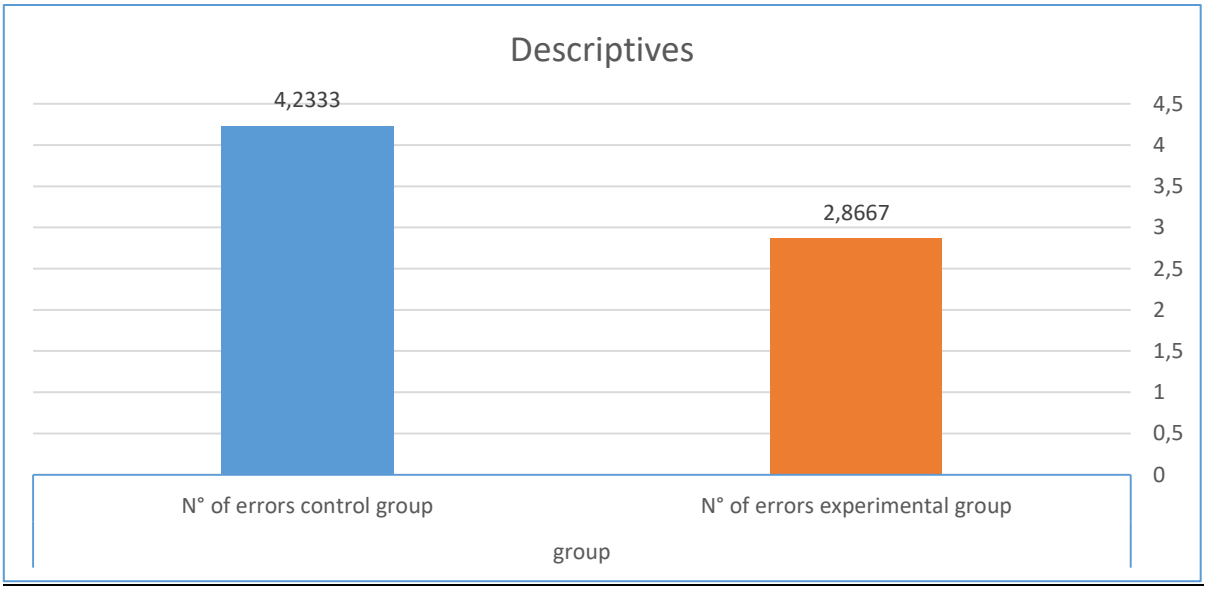


Figure 54. The Mean of Errors in Progress Test Three

From the table and the figure (53) above that elucidate students' performance in progress test three which sought to examine students' achievement in definition paragraphs. As indicated, the mean for the number of errors in the EG is ($\bar{x}$=2.8667), with a notable standard deviation of (*SD*=1.45586), whereas the mean for the number of errors in the CG is ($\bar{x}$=4.2333), with a standard deviation of (*SD*=1.67504). As for the difference in achievement between the CG and the EG, the T-test value is (3.101), and it is positive. These results indicate the existence of a difference that is statistically significant between the EG and CG in terms of grammatical accuracy in writing. For the degrees of freedom, it was found 29, while the significance value is (*Sig*=0.004), which is less than the standard significance level of 0.05. This clearly shows that a statistically significant difference exists between the two groups regarding the number of grammatical errors.

- **Progress Test Four Results**

In the fourth progress test, the participants of both groups were also asked to write a paragraph developed by classification pattern. The test was done during the session of WE after receiving all the guidelines and explanations concerning classification paragraph.

Table 54.

Results of Progress Test Four

Progress test 4 : paragraph developed by classification			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	4	1	5
2	6	2	2
3	4	3	5
4	5	4	1
5	3	5	3
6	2	6	4
7	3	7	2
8	4	8	4
9	5	9	5
10	4	10	2
11	3	11	2
12	6	12	5
13	7	13	3
14	2	14	4
15	4	15	6
16	5	16	5
17	3	17	4
18	4	18	2
19	5	19	3
20	7	20	5
21	5	21	4
22	4	22	3
23	5	23	3
24	3	24	2
25	7	25	1
26	3	26	2
27	2	27	1
28	1	28	3
29	7	29	4
30	8	30	2
Σ	131	Σ	97

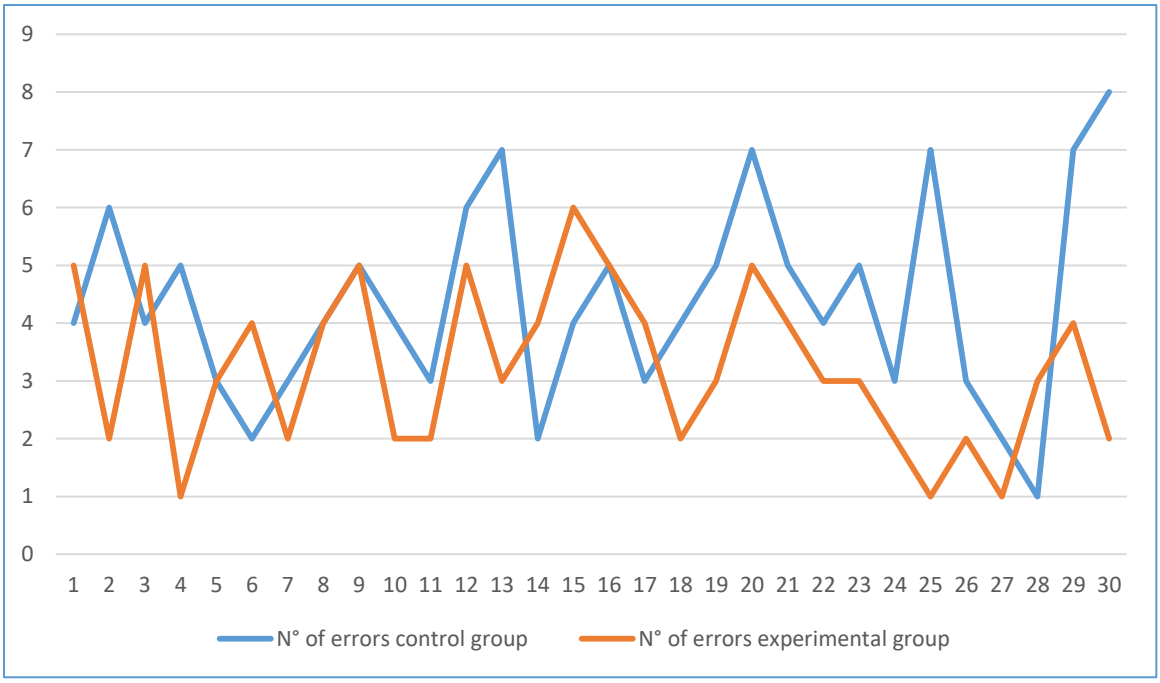


Figure 55. Results of Progress Test Four

As depicted in table (54) and figure (55) above, the obtained data revealed differences in grammatical errors between the CG and the EG. Clearly shown, the total number of grammatical errors in the CGs' paragraphs exceeded its alternative in the EG. Correspondingly, the statistical description of data is shown in the following table and figure.

Table 55.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Four

Progress test 4: Paragraph Developed by Classification		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
group	EG	3.2333	30	1.40647	2.85	29	0.008
	CG	4.3667	30	1.75152	1		

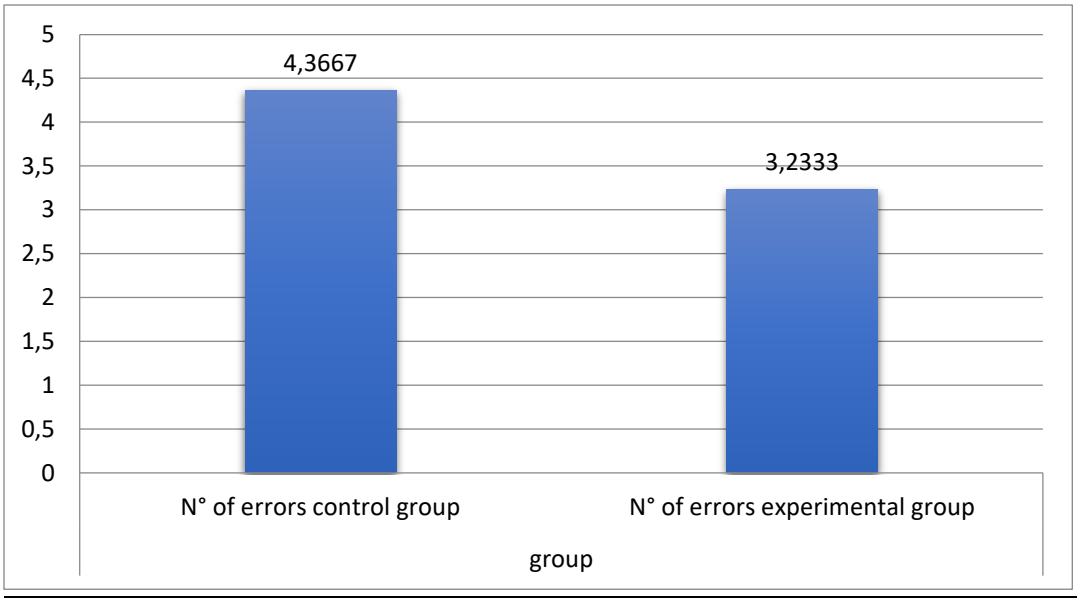


Figure 56. The Mean of Errors in Progress Test Four

According to the findings retrieved from progress test four and exhibited on the table and the figure (55) above, the mean for the number of errors in the EG is ($\bar{x}$=3.2333), with a standard deviation of (SD=1.40647), while the mean for the number of errors in the CG is ($\bar{x}$=4.3667), with a standard deviation of (SD=1.75152). The T-test value, thus, is (t=2.851), representing a positive value. Therefore, a statistically significant difference between the experimental and CGs is identified. The degrees of freedom are 29, with significance (Sig) value of (Sig=0.008), which is not more than the standard significance level of (Sig=0.05). This suggests a statistically significant difference between the two groups regarding the number of errors in the paragraphs developed by classification. To interpret the results, the T-test value (t=2.851) and the significant (Sig=0.008) value indicate that the EG, with an average number of errors of (3.2333), performed statistically better than the CG, which had an average number of errors of (4.3667).

- **Progress Test Five Results**

In the fifth progress test, students developed a cause and effect paragraph. The frequency of errors occurred in students' paragraphs is displayed in the table that follows.

Table 56.

Results of Progress Test Five

Progress test 5 : Paragraph Developed by Cause and Effect			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	4	1	4
2	3	2	3
3	4	3	4
4	5	4	2
5	5	5	2
6	2	6	3
7	3	7	4
8	4	8	2
9	2	9	2
10	1	10	2
11	1	11	4
12	7	12	3
13	4	13	2
14	6	14	3
15	6	15	7
16	8	16	3
17	4	17	6
18	3	18	1
19	5	19	2
20	3	20	4
21	2	21	2
22	6	22	5
23	4	23	2
24	4	24	2
25	4	25	2
26	5	26	4
27	2	27	3
28	3	28	5
29	4	29	2
30	4	30	3
Σ	118	Σ	93

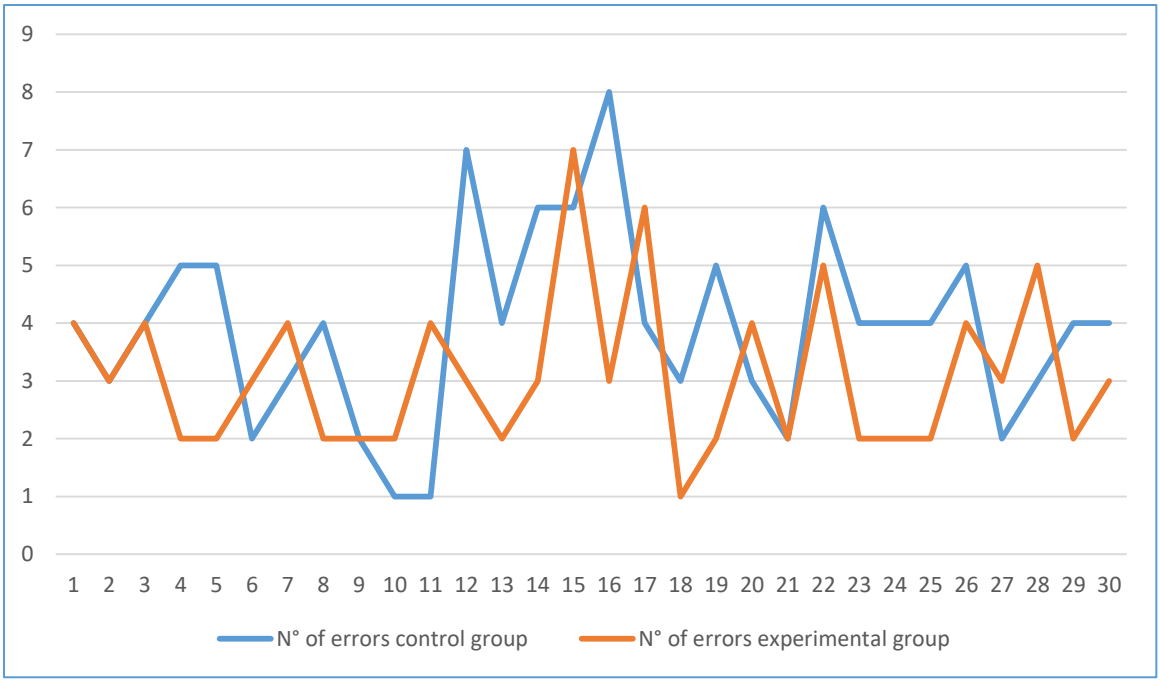


Figure 57. Results of Progress Test Five

It is apparent from table (56) above that the sum of the grammatical errors committed by the students in the CG is higher than in the EG. Evidently, the results of both groups are better explained in a statistical way as follow:

Table 57.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Five

Progress Test 5: Paragraph Developed by Cause and Effect		Descriptive statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
group	EG	3.1000	30	1.37339	2.342	29	0.026
	CG	3.9333	30	1.65952			

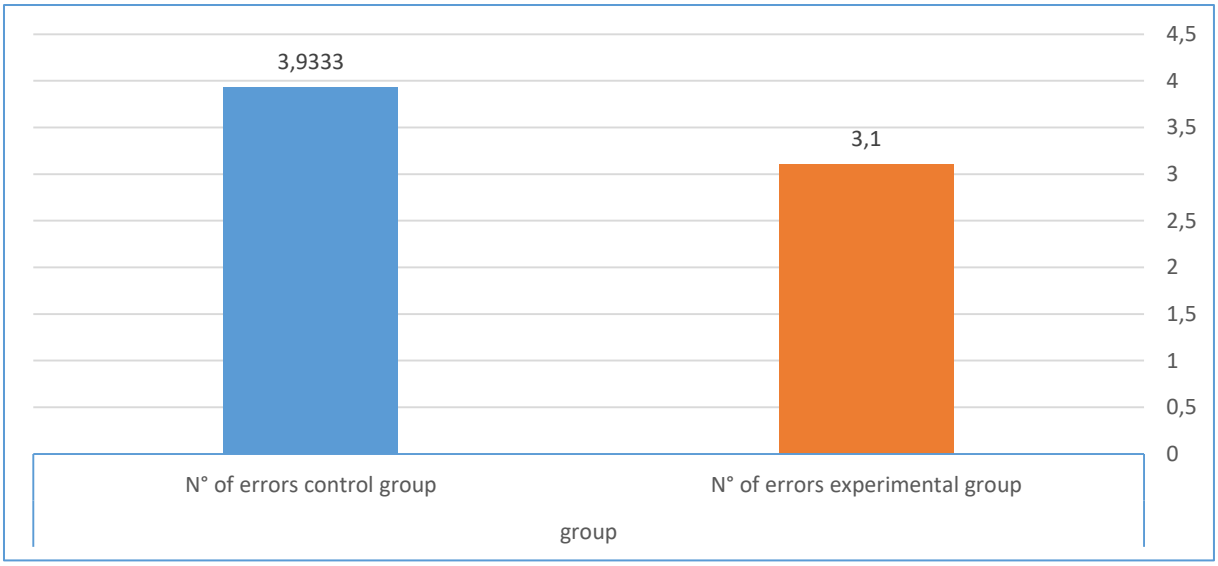


Figure 58. The Means of Errors in Progress Test Five

It is evident from the data displayed above that the mean for the number of errors in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=3.1000), with a standard deviation of (SD=1.37339). Alternatively, the alternative mean for the number of errors in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=3.9333), with a standard deviation of 1.65952. The T-test value is (t=2.342), which is a positive value. This indicates a statistically significant difference in grammar development between the EG and CG. The degrees of freedom are (df=29). For the significance (Sig) value, it is (Sig=0.026), which is totally less than the standard significance level of 0.05. This suggests a statistically significant difference between the two groups regarding the frequency of errors. Therefore, the T-test value (2.342) and the significant Sig (0.026) value indicate that the EG statistically outperformed the CG in developing cause and effect paragraphs.

- **Progress Test Six Results**

In the progress test six, the participants were taught and then tested on writing a comparison and contrast paragraph. Analysing and correcting students' paragraphs resulted in the following data.

Table 58.

Results of Progress Test Six

Progress test 6 : Paragraph Developed by Comparison and Contrast			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	4	1	2
2	6	2	5
3	2	3	3
4	4	4	2
5	2	5	4
6	1	6	3
7	5	7	2
8	3	8	2
9	3	9	2
10	6	10	4
11	2	11	2
12	4	12	2
13	3	13	2
14	2	14	3
15	5	15	4
16	4	16	3
17	3	17	3
18	2	18	4
19	4	19	3
20	1	20	1
21	5	21	3
22	4	22	3
23	6	23	2
24	5	24	3
25	3	25	2
26	4	26	2
27	5	27	0
28	5	28	1
29	2	29	3
30	4	30	4
Σ	109	Σ	77

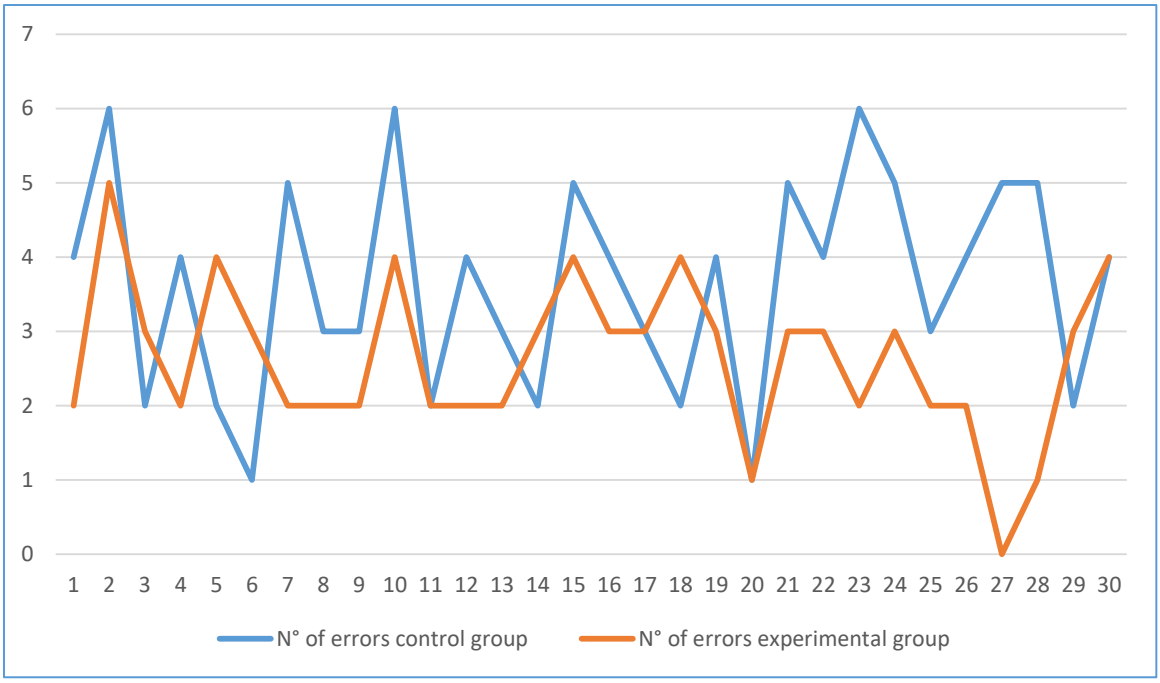


Figure 59. Students' Errors in Progress Test Six

This table shows students' grammatical errors in the comparison and contrast paragraph. Although, the frequency of errors committed in CG and the EG reduced, the CG's sum of errors is still higher than the EG.

Table 59.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Six

Progress test 6: Paragraph Developed by Comparison and Contrast		Descriptive statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Group	EG	2.6333	30	1.06620	3.14	29	0.004
	CG	3.6333	30	1.44993	4		

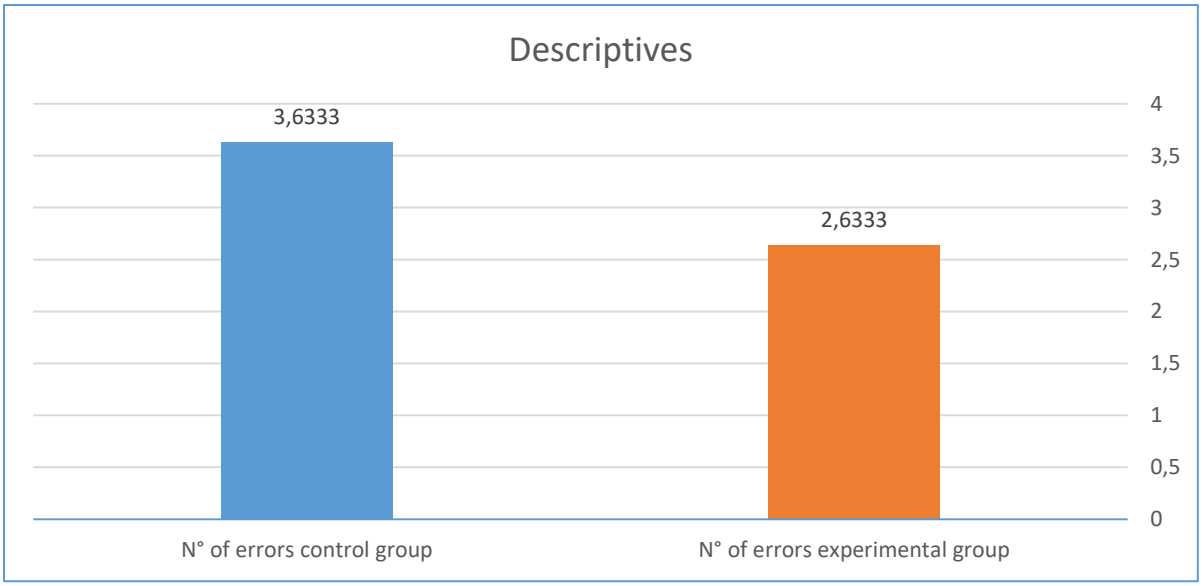


Figure 60. The Mean of Errors in Progress Test Six

It appears from data of progress test six above that the mean for the number of errors in the EG is ($\bar{x}$=2.6333), with a standard deviation of (SD=1.06620). However, the mean for the number of errors in the CG is (3.6333), with a standard deviation of (1.44993). The T-test value is (3.144), and it is positive. This indicates a significant difference existed between the EG and CG. The degrees of freedom are (df=29) and the significance (Sig) value is (0.004), which is not higher than the standard significance level of (Sig=0.05). This suggests a statistically significant difference between the two groups regarding the number of errors. These results can be interpreted in this way: The T-test value (t=3.144) and the significant (Sig=0.004) value indicates that the EG, with an average number of errors of ($\bar{x}$=2.6333), performed statistically better than the CG, which had an average number of errors of ($\bar{x}$=3.6333), in developing paragraphs through comparison and contrast.

- **Progress Test Seven Results**

In progress test seven, the participants were instructed and then tested with writing an opinion paragraph. The researcher's analysis of the students' paragraphs yielded the following results.

Table 60.

Results of Progress Test Seven

Progress Test 7: Opinion Paragraph			
CG	Frequency of errors	EG	Frequency of errors
1	6	1	2
2	5	2	4
3	2	3	3
4	4	4	2
5	2	5	4
6	2	6	3
7	5	7	2
8	3	8	4
9	3	9	2
10	6	10	4
11	5	11	2
12	4	12	6
13	3	13	2
14	2	14	3
15	5	15	4
16	4	16	3
17	3	17	3
18	6	18	3
19	4	19	3
20	1	20	4
21	5	21	3
22	4	22	3
23	6	23	2
24	5	24	2
25	3	25	2
26	4	26	2
27	6	27	1
28	5	28	1
29	6	29	5
30	4	30	2
Σ	119	Σ	85

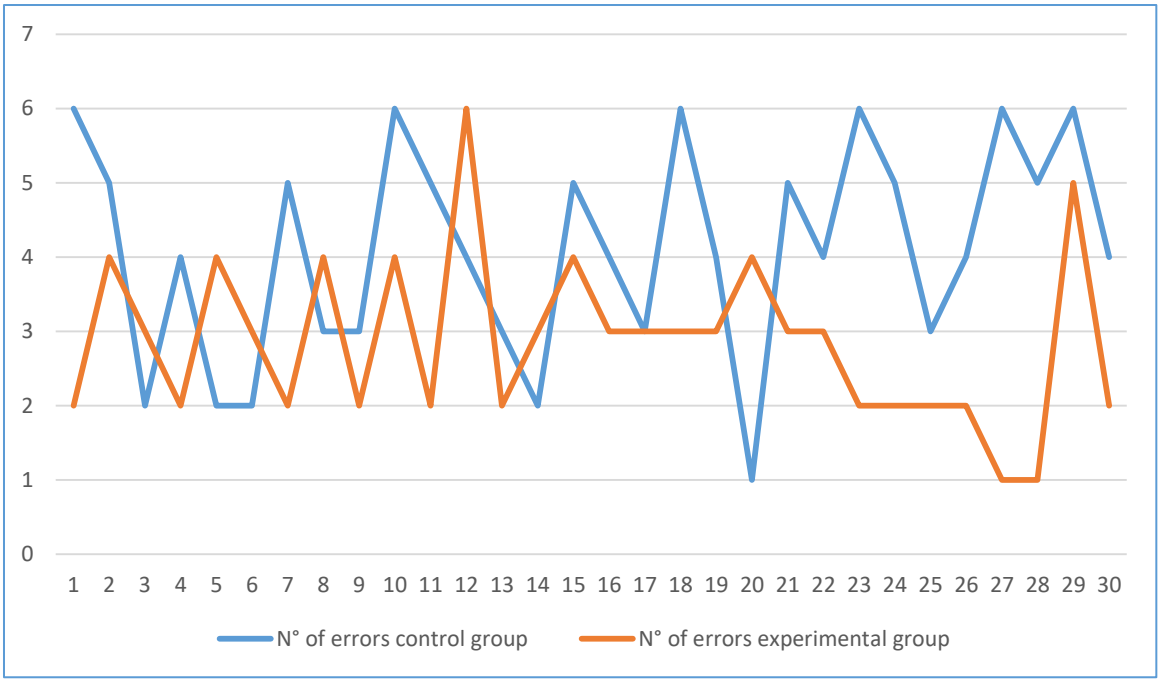


Figure 61. Results of progress Test Seven

According to the results displayed on table (60), it is apparent that the CG total number of errors outweighed the number of errors in the EG.

Table 61.

Statistical Description of Progress Test Seven

Progress test 7: Opinion Paragraph		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Group	EG	2.8667	30	1.13664	3.417	29	0.002
	CG	4.1000	30	1.44676			

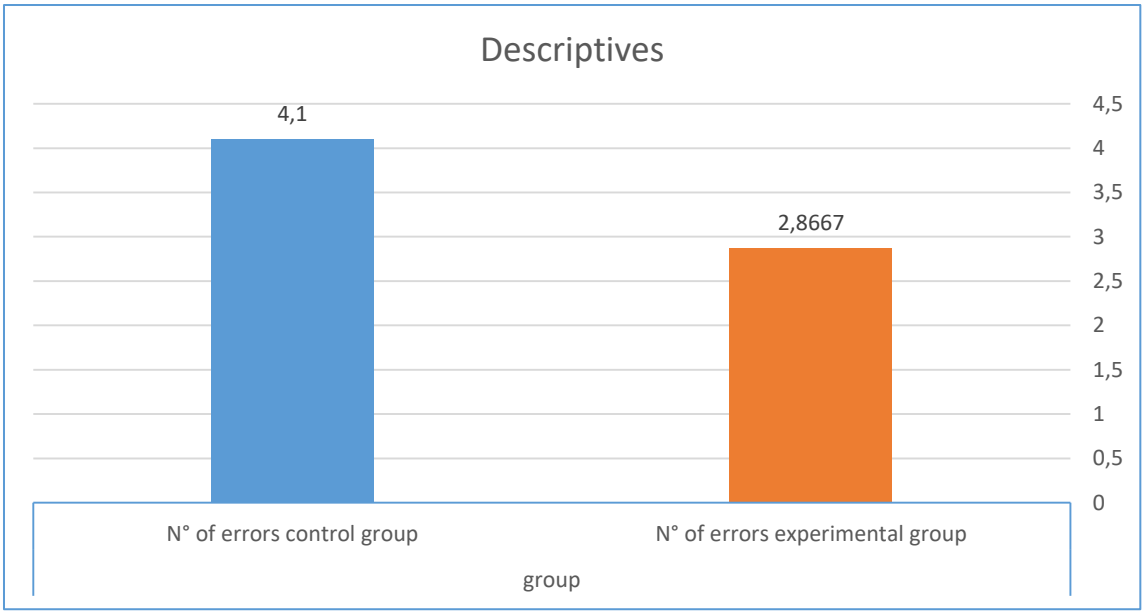


Figure 62. The Means of Errors of Progress Test Seven

According to the results elucidated above, the statistically significant difference between the CG and the EG is explained. In that, the mean of errors total number in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=2.8667), with a corresponding standard deviation of (SD=1.13664), whereas the mean of errors number in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=4.1000), with a corresponding standard deviation of (SD=1.44676). The T-test value is (t=3.417), and it is therefore considered positive. For the sig value, it is (Sig=0.002), which is quite less than the standard significance level of (Sig=0.05). This suggests a statistically significant difference between EG and CG regarding the number of errors. The T-test value (t=3.417) and the significant Sig (0.002) value indicate that the EG, with an average number of errors of ($\overline{x}$=2.8667), performed statistically better than the CG, which had an average number of errors of ($\overline{x}$=4.1000), in developing opinion paragraphs.

From the illustrating tables and figures that display the results of progress tests, it is noticed that the CG and EG showed significant differences right from the beginning (from

progress test one). After undergoing these progress tests, both groups were subjected to a post test.

3.2.3. Results and Analysis of the Post-test

The post treatment test which was intended to check students' grammatical accuracy improvement after the treatment they received. Both the control and the EGs undertook the post test. The data obtained as far as students' grammatical errors are concerned are displayed in the subsequent table.

Table 62.

Results of the Post-test

Post-test			
CG	Frequency of Errors	EG	Frequency of Errors
1	2	1	3
2	4	2	3
3	2	3	0
4	5	4	2
5	7	5	1
6	6	6	2
7	6	7	2
8	7	8	2
9	4	9	3
10	5	10	3
11	5	11	0
12	6	12	3
13	6	13	5
14	2	14	3
15	3	15	1
16	4	16	5
17	5	17	6
18	6	18	2
19	2	19	2
20	8	20	3
21	6	21	3
22	5	22	2
23	3	23	1
24	5	24	3
25	9	25	3

26	6	26	2
27	3	27	2
28	4	28	1
29	7	29	2
30	5	30	4
Σ	147	Σ	74

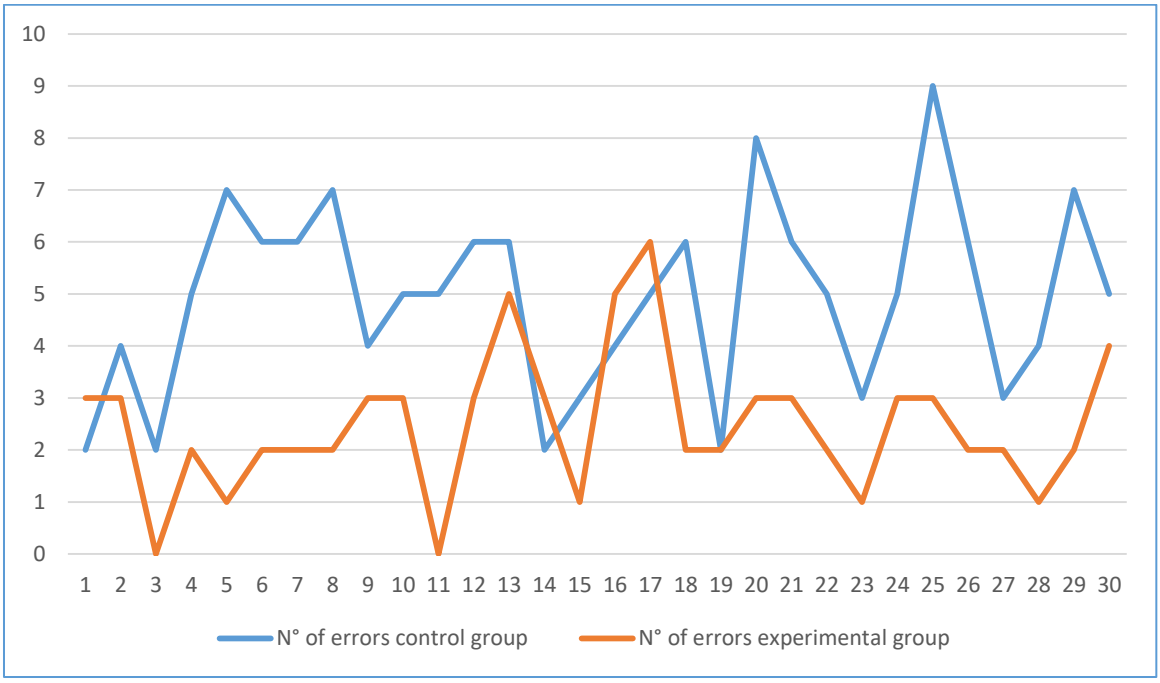


Figure 63. Results of the Post Test

It is indicated from table (62) and the figure (63) above that the CG's grammatical errors in the post test exceeded the EGs. Students in the CG still commit grammatical errors when they write paragraphs.

Table 63.

The Statistical Description of the Post-test Results

Post-test		Descriptive statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
Group	EG	2.4667	30	1.35782	6.444	29	0.000

	CG	4.9333	30	1.81817			

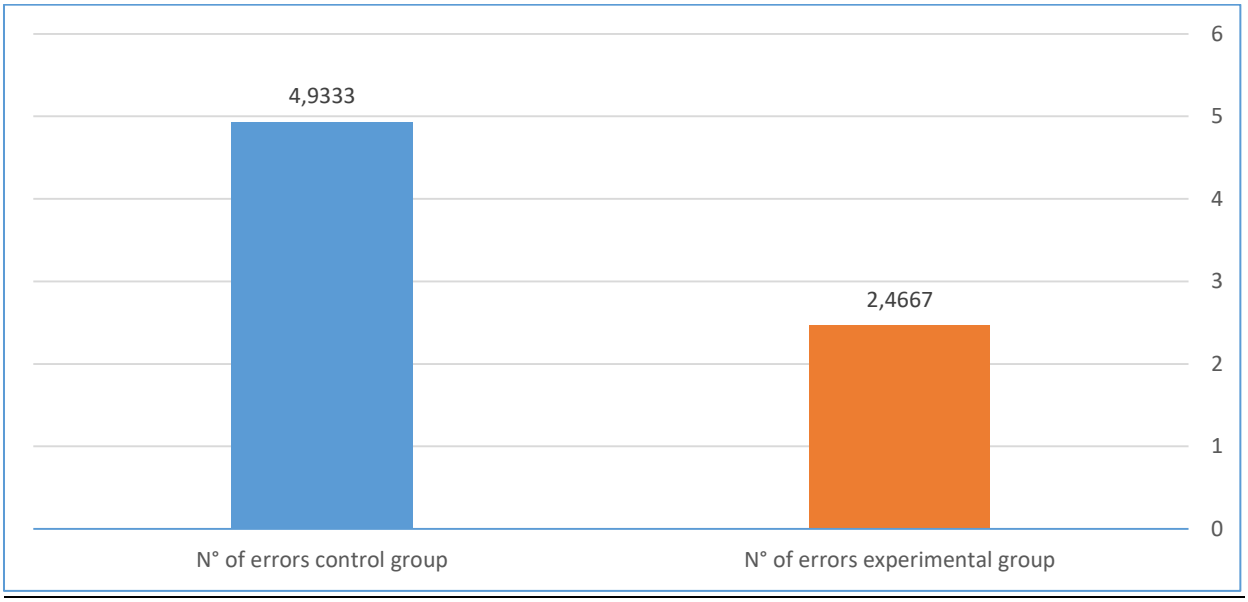


Figure 64. The Mean of Errors in the Post-test

The table and the figure above illustrate the results retrieved from the post-treatment test for both the CG and the EG. As far as grammatical accuracy development is concerned, the results indicated the frequency of grammatical errors committed by students in both groups. In this regard, the mean of errors in the EG is ($\overline{x}$=2.4667), with a corresponding standard deviation of (SD=1.35782). On the other side, the mean of errors in the CG is ($\overline{x}$=4.9333), with a standard deviation of (SD=1.81817). Concerning the difference between the two groups, the T-test value is (t=6.444), and it is associated with a positive sign. This indicates a statistically significant difference in terms of grammatical errors between the EG and CG.

3.2.4. Pre and Post-tests Difference Tests

In order to ascertain students' grammatical accuracy improvement between the pre-treatment test and the post-treatment tests, Difference test was carried out for both CG and EG.

3.2.4.1. Control Group

Table 64.

Control Group Difference Test

Control Group		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
	Post Test	4.9333	30	1.81817	1.795	29	0.083
	Pre test	6.0333	30	2.39947			

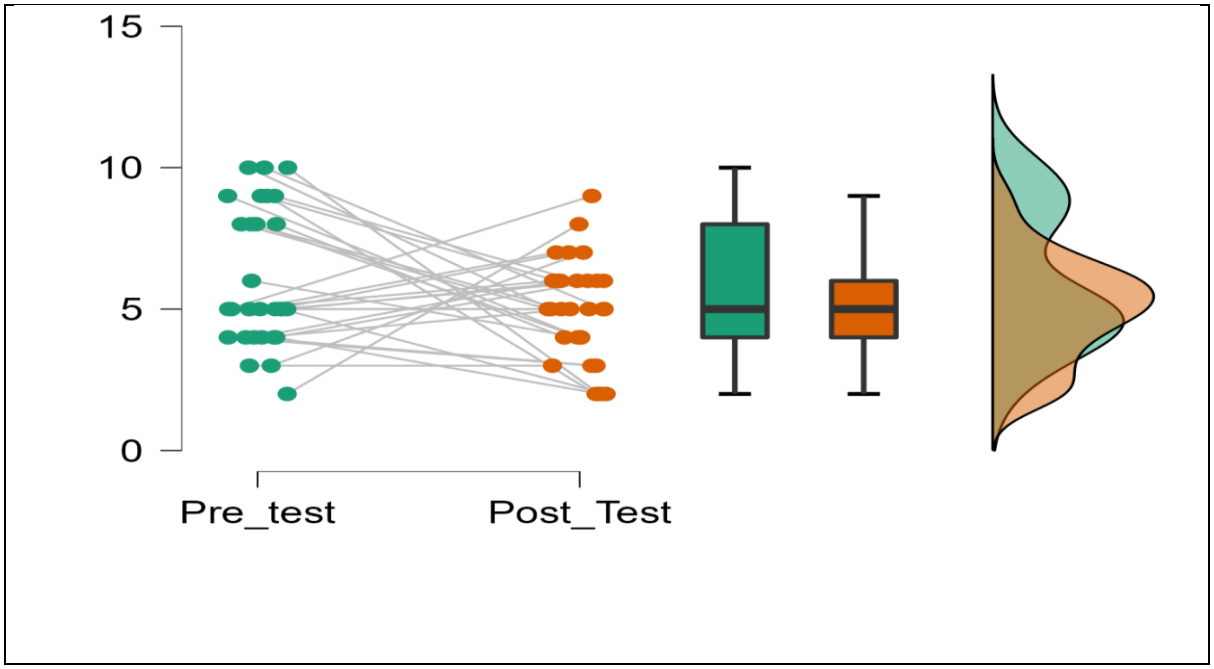


Figure 65. Control Group Difference Test

Basing on the findings in table (64) and figure (65), the mean of the pre-test errors for the CG is ($\bar{x}$=6.0333), with its standard deviation of (SD=2.39947). Yet, the mean of errors in the post-test for the CG is ($\bar{x}$=4.9333), with a notable standard deviation of (SD=1.81817). Although the T-test value is (t=1.795) which indicates a positive sign, the p-value (Sig) is (0.083), which is greater than the conventional significance level of (Sig=0.05). That is, the difference observed in the number of errors between the initial test and the final test for the CG is not statistically significant.

3.2.4.2. Experimental Group

Table 65.

Experimental Group Difference Test

Experimental group		Descriptive Statistics			Paired Samples Test		
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig
	Post Test	2.1000	30	1.09387	8.165	29	0.000
	Pre test	5.8333	30	2.11861			

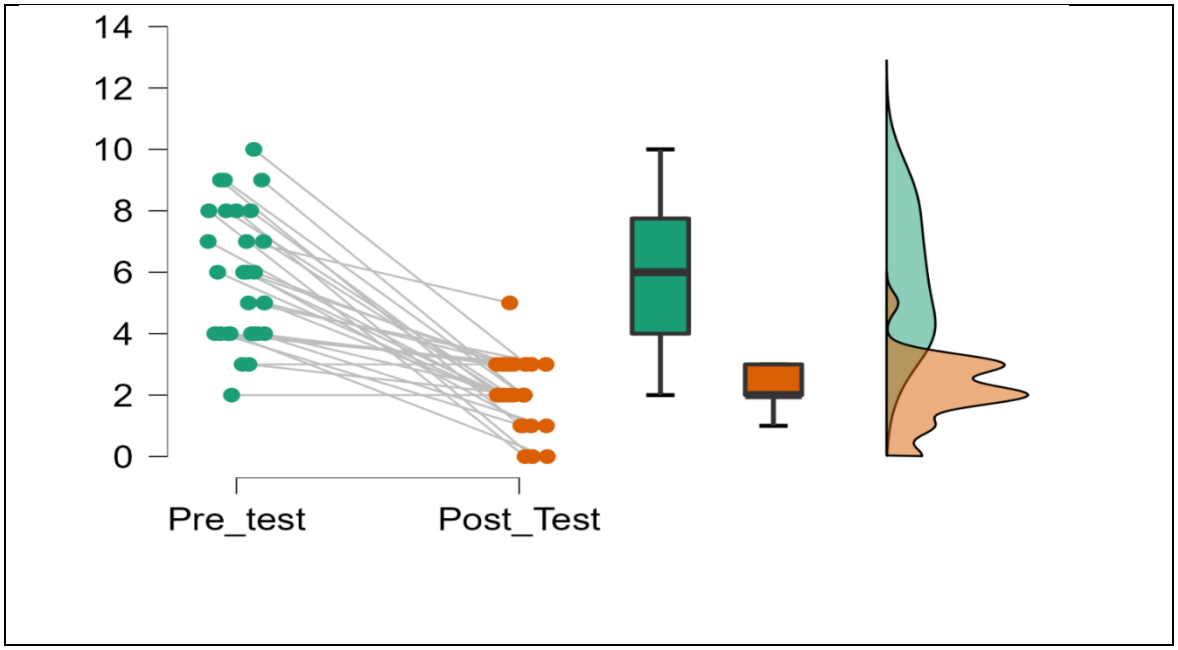


Figure 66. Experimental Group Difference Test

As table (65) and Figure (66) clearly demonstrate, the mean of errors in the pre-test for the EG is ($\bar{x}$=5.8333), with a value of standard deviation of (SD= 2.11861), whereas the mean for the number of errors in the post-experiment test for the EG is ($\bar{x}$=2.1000), with a remarkable standard deviation of (SD=1.09387). Accordingly, T-Test value is (t=8.165), and the p-value (Sig) is (0.000), which is typically less than the conventional significance level of (Sig=0.05). On this basis, the difference in the number of errors between the initial test and final test for the EG is statistically significant. To sum up, PF contributed to enhancing

students' grammatical accuracy in writing as an observed significant difference is marked between the first and the last tests.

3.2.5. Pre-, Progress, and Post-tests Results Discussion

The major aim behind the current research work was to investigate the role of PF in overcoming grammar deficits in writing of first year EFL students at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. Before the treatment begun, students were initially pre-tested in order to determine their level of grammatical accuracy in writing. The results of the pre-test showed that the CG and the EG are not statically different in terms of the level of grammatical accuracy they manifested in their paragraphs.

To interpret the findings the pre-test yielded, it can be assumed that students frequently write the same way they speak. That is they pay much consideration on the message itself rather than the medium; that is language and structure. In this context, Harmer (2004) posits that writing is determined by a defined discourse organisation, typical English paragraph writing guidelines, and the foremost criterion is the level of well-formedness. Although deviant grammar can be permitted in speaking, it is severely judged in writing in as much as grammatical awkwardnesses affect the quality of the written text and therefore they may affect its comprehensibility as well (Ferris, 2012). Hence, students' poor grammar may be attributed to either focus on the content as the data obtained from both questionnaires revealed, lack of awareness of certain grammatical features, or lack of awareness of the importance of grammatical accuracy in determining the quality writing. It may also be attributed to the fact that teaching grammatical structures in isolation results in a poor mastery of their actual use be it in writing or in speaking. In support of this view, Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) consider feedback to more effective when it is presented within a meaningful context of use. That is, feedback might be less effective when it is provided in isolation.

According to Ferris (2012), writing teachers need to purvey in-class grammar instruction in addition to editing strategies training to help students learn how to recognize, self-correct, and ultimately avoid committing various error patterns.

After the pre-test, the researcher immediately launched the treatment phase with the EG where students were given the opportunity to experience PF in the editing stage of the writing process. However, the CG received no PF treatment. The treatment phase was permeated with a series of progress tests on paragraph development on the basis of the various developmental patterns to paragraph writing.

The results retrieved from the progress tests evidenced that gradual enhancements were noted down particularly in the performance of the EG. Through the T-test, EG and CG showed statistically significant differences in terms of the level of grammatical accuracy. In the post-test, results of EG supported the progress test results. The researcher observed that the recurrence of grammatical errors in the EG has largely been reduced. This is probably due the fact that students' constant revision of their and their peers drafts in addition to the feedback they constantly receive allowed them to give much importance to revision in the writing process. In addition, constant revision allowed students to reconsider the importance of grammar in writing. In this essence, it can be stated that PF implementation in writing sessions had positive impacts on students writing accuracy. These findings corroborate with Lyster and Ranta (1997) who suppose that providing feedback can lead to the production of comprehensible output. Apparently, during PF, students receive useful and consistent comments on language features which are likely to be more salient for them. Consequently, learners' attention will be oriented towards language forms which, in turn, will later on be used when producing an output. Furthermore, another outcome of negotiation of form during the provision of PF is students' self-repair which leads to more accuracy.

As far as the mean of errors of EG is considered in the post-test, it was quite decreased (2.4667) as to its alternative in the pre-test (5.7667). That is, students still commit grammatical errors but in a slighter way. In this regard, Ferris (2012) asserts that the ultimate aim of PF should not be so that the peer editor has to fix all the problems in his peer's paragraph. That is to say, PF contributed to reduce the number of grammatical errors committed and not to definitely abolish them.

Based on the findings of the difference tests of the pre and post tests for both control and EG, significant difference was marked within the EG before and after treatment. Hence, it can be concluded that participants in the EG achieved a very acceptable level of accuracy in their paragraphs. They minimized their grammatical errors. It is worthy to note that students' writing performance has improved at the level of accuracy as well as content and organisation. We can deduce that the implementation of PF played a positive role in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. In what follows, the researcher tried to provide explanations to the results obtained in the post-test.

3.3. Section Three: Post Experimental Phase

3.3.1. Results of the Interaction Analysis Method

The analysis of students' interactions was primarily intended to find out justifications and explain how PF contributes in overcoming students' grammatical deficiencies in writing. It is worthy to note that recording the interactions that go on in PF took place during the experimental phase. However, the analysis of data was delayed to post experimental phase in order to justify the results obtained in the post-test. The recordings of students' interaction were restricted to the editing phase in which students exchanged their drafts with their peers in order to reflect on and comment on them. Then, they provided feedback on the basis of the

written comments they already marked. Hence, the recording was mainly limited to students' interaction and discussion of the comments during PF.

The total number of the recordings the researcher obtained reached forty nine (49). However, the analysis of students' interaction was not the main aim of the current work, rather it was undertaken to seek explanations for the results obtained from the experiment. Therefore, the researcher decided not to analyse all the obtained records. The researcher deliberately picked up one recording for each of the peer groups. She also premeditated to take the recordings related to the final stages in the experiment. The reason behind choosing these recordings laid in the fact that students, over the course of experiment, got familiar as well as matured in terms of feedback provision. Also, students' roles within groups have been quite determined and organized. Overall, students' way of providing feedback has been greatly evolved. On the other side, group participants, over time, developed a sense of acceptance and tolerance. Therefore, the results that the researcher sought to obtain would be better got from latest recordings in the treatment phase.

As noted earlier, it was quite hard to decide upon an interaction analysis system that seems convenient to the requirements of the current study. Finally, the BIAS was selected and adapted to cope with the study's main objectives; that is providing explanations for the results obtained in the experiment. It is worthy to note that, although interaction analysis method is qualitative in nature, it may have allowed for some quantity. Through BIAS, the researcher could estimate the recurrences of the speech functions assigned previously, so that she could provide valid explanations to students' improvements in grammatical accuracy.

The speech functions used to analyse students' interaction were decided on the basis of a consecutive and an elaborated listening to all the recordings from the first session of the treatment phase. Therefore, the researcher's decision to include these speech functions other

than others stemmed from their recurrences in students' interactions. So, after listening to and analysing all the recordings, the researcher has ended up with the following conclusions:

- The purpose of this interaction analysis was to determine the prevalent speech functions students use during PF.
- Students paid much consideration to the grammatical aspect and this was manifested in their extensive use of these speech functions: correcting grammar structures, providing explicit grammar explanation, and negotiating form.
- The researcher also marked the occurrence of other speech functions during students' interaction but in a slight way; for instance, negotiating meaning and ideas, agreeing, and disagreeing. Therefore, they were not included in the adapted model of IA.
- The researcher marked that providing grammar explanation about the target forms came sequentially after correcting the form or suggesting another. That is students benefited from a grammar explanation for each correction or suggestion they receive.
- Students also benefitted from grammar explanation after questioning or asking for clarification.
- It is worth noting that students occasionally refer to their mother tongue in order to thoughtfully communicate their ideas in a more successful manner. The teacher noticed that while interacting, students refer to their mother tongue. However, when listening to all the recordings the teacher remarked that students' use of mother tongue had decreased. This fact is likely to imply that students while writing also think in their L1. Therefore, mother tongue

interference was remarkable in students' errors particularly in the early stages of the experiment.

The following table details the recurrence of various speech functions that comprise students' interaction.

Table 66.

The Frequency of Speech Functions

Speech functions	Questioning	Repairing grammatical Forms	Negotiating	Asking for clarification	Explaining	Responding	Suggesting	Silence
The Frequency of Occurrence	04	11	08	05	11	05	09	04
	02	07	04	03	08	04	08	01
	01	10	03	01	07	05	07	02
	03	08	07	04	08	03	06	03
	03	05	05	08	07	03	05	01
	02	06	07	03	06	02	06	00
	05	07	06	01	08	03	07	00
Total	20	54	40	25	55	25	48	11

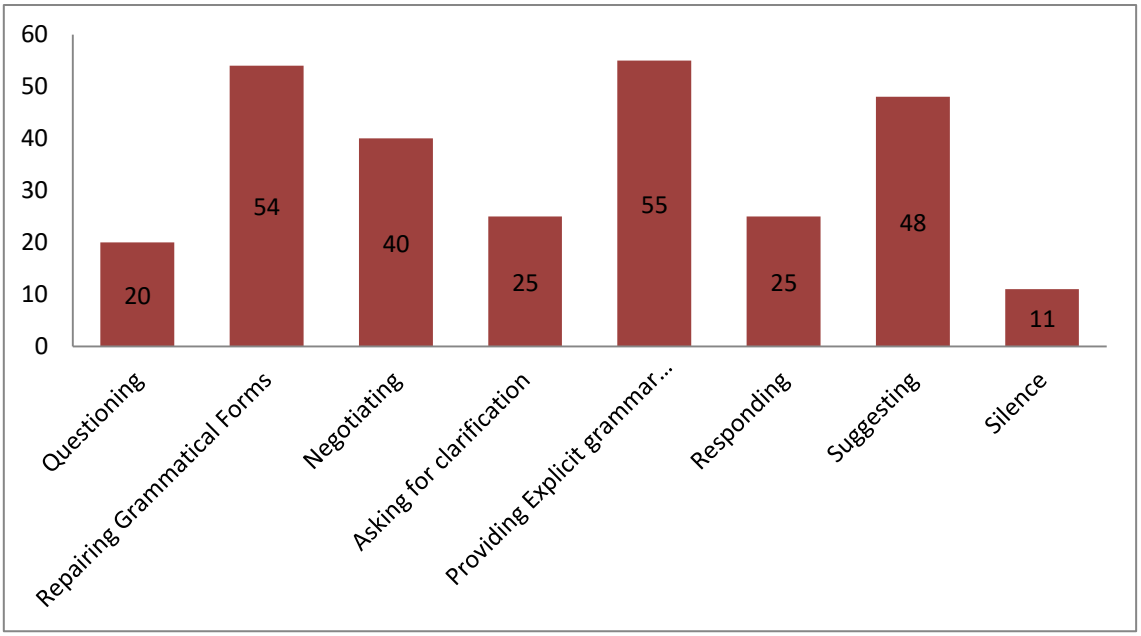


Figure 67. The frequency of speech Functions

According to table (66) and figure (67), the speech functions that were marked recurrent in students' interactions are *repairing grammatical forms, providing explicit grammar explanation, suggesting,* and *negotiating*. Hence, it can be deduced that students when correcting erroneous forms, they provide explanations and evidence. The latter were also negotiated by students. That is to imply, grammar was implicitly integrated in writing classes when students make reference to some grammar features that other students know little about. Therefore, the acquired features of grammar can be used successfully in further writings.

3.3.1.1. Discussion and Interpretation of Interaction Analysis Method Results

For the sake of finding out explanations for the results of the experimental procedure, a comprehensive analysis of students' interaction was carried out following an interaction analysis system that was adapted to meet the requirements of the study' objectives. Therefore, students' interactions were analysed to estimate the occurrence of the speech functions previously assigned and to check out their probable effect on students' recognition and use for further written productions.

As far as speech functions are considered, both correcting grammatical errors and providing explicit grammar instruction were highly marked during the flow of interaction. This is likely to induce that students' interest to grammar is raised. Besides, the results obtained could imply that students have also marked the effect of grammatical deficiencies on their written texts. In various research studies where grammar instruction was deliberately incorporated within error feedback, students' written accuracy highly increased (Bitchner & Knoch, 2008; Ferris, 1995a; Frantzen & Rissel, 1987; Lalande, 1982; Sheen, 2007, as cited in Ferris, 2012). In this regard, Ferris (2012) was in favour with grammar feedback. She asserts that grammar instruction is extremely beneficial when it is imbedded within CF and paired with other opportunities to further produce language.

Students' interaction during PF has also involved speech functions such as negotiation. It was marked that students engage in negotiation of form in order to reach modifications of some structures, and therefore to achieve a sort of comprehension.

Throughout the analysis of students' interactions, the researcher has also pointed out the occurrence of asking for clarification speech function. Asking for clarification is intended to achieve a mutual understanding of the participants. The students used this speech function in order to clarify and sometimes seek justification for their uses of certain structures. In literature, clarification requests are one way of indicating the ill-formedness of a linguistic structure. It is intended to refine the problematic structures. In this regard, it is noted that the interaction of students during PF was purposed to make changes in the written texts. These changes encompass form as well as content.

As to responding, which is a key construct in the process of writing, as well as in feedback practices, it was marked several times during the process of feedback. It can be

deduced that students became quite aware of the effective strategies that allow student-writers to diagnose the strengths, clarity, and the accuracy of their written texts.

Concerning the suggesting speech function, it considerably occurred in students' interaction. Students tended to suggest correct structures instead of the grammatically problematic structures. This could imply that certain students' knowledge of grammar and rules contributes in fostering others' grammatical knowledge and therefore their writing accuracy.

As for silence as a speech function, it was also marked. Silence is a way which allows students to think and concentrate. This implies that students also involved their cognitive processes to think about the linguistic structures and to reflect on their as well as their peers' texts.

What is noteworthy is that students, during PF, tend to devote all their grammatical knowledge for the sake of revising their/ their peers' texts. The fact that students discussed problematic structures served in developing students' knowledge in grammar which is likely to be reinvested later on in future writings.

Students' reflection upon their peers' linguistic problems served in raising students' consciousness about the necessity of revision in the writing process. Students have also developed a sense of responsibility towards enhancing their writing quality, and producing a piece of writing with less grammatical problems.

3.3.2. Results of Focus Group Discussion

Being conducted after the treatment phase was over, the rationale behind conducting a FGD was to explore students' attitudes developed after the implementation of PF and its effects on writing performance globally and on writing accuracy particularly. It was also

intended to gain insights about the overall experience students underwent during the experimental part. On this basis, the data gathered from FGD were in concordance to what the post-test and the interaction analysis method yielded. The points that the researcher evoked during FGD were mainly in the following concerns:

- Students' attitudes towards PF
- Students' views on their level of writing during and after PF
- Students' benefits from the interaction
- The effect of PF on their writing motivation
- The effect of PF on students' collaboration and interest
- The effect of PF on students' autonomy

1. Students' Attitudes towards PF

The data depicted from FGD indicated that students held positive attitudes towards PF. Students satisfactorily expressed their positive impression on the implementation of PF. In other words, students' positive attitudes were attributed to the impact PF had on their writing performance. That is, their attitudes were shaped by their improved writing quality.

2. Students' Views on their Level of Writing During and After PF

Based on the FGD results, students pointed out that the constant feedback they received from their peers as well as the constant reading of their peers' writings had potentially contributed in enhancing their level of writing.

3. Students' Benefits from Interaction

The FGD showed that students considerably benefitted from group interaction. Students highlighted the point that discussing the use of some grammatical features while writing has greatly benefitted their writing outcomes. They also ensured that interaction is more effective than just pointing at the errors. Among students' responses which indicated the effectiveness

of interaction are *"sometimes, we cannot correct the mistakes highlighted by the teacher"*. Further, students declared that interaction allowed them to receive explanations of grammatical forms which, therefore, enabled them to repair their erroneous structures.

4. On the Importance of Editing

The obtained results from FGD also revealed students' changed views about the importance of editing and revising. Students claimed that before the experience of PF which they undertook, they used to bare limited attention to editing. This may be explained by Ferris (2012) who contends that students may pay little attention to editing their works because they may find it tedious, unimportant, or simply because they mostly rely on teachers to correct their work. However, after the treatment, students' interest towards revision has positively changes. One of students replies was "*I think that revision is very important and I recognized this when I revised my colleagues paragraphs"*

5. On the Effect of PF on Students' Writing Motivation

Besides impacting their writing quality, FGD results indicated that PF has also impacted students' writing motivation. Students declared through the FGD that PF helps them to become more connected to writing when they actively read and reflect on their peers' writings. In a similar vein, students' highlighted that PF not only contributed in motivating them to write, but also contributed to motivate them to revise.

6. On the Effect of PF on Students' Collaboration

On the basis of FGD results, it was revealed that PF contributed in developing a sense of community within the classroom. FGD showed that students, through PF, recognized that they share a common learning goal which is improving writing quality. This mutual objective contributed in fostering students' collaboration.

7. On the Effect of PF on Students' Autonomy

The FGD results demonstrated that PF fosters students' autonomy to very great extent. According to participants' views, PF helped them become more independent and responsible and no more dependent solely on teachers' support and feedback. Students said that they could correct their mistakes and look for correct structures without asking for teachers' help.

3.3.2.1. Discussion and Interpretation of Focus Group Discussion Results

The findings obtained from FGD uncovered students' attitudes towards PF experience. They also contributed to a very great extent to worthen the findings obtained from the experiment and the interaction analysis method. Potentially, FGD results confirmed the usefulness of PF in enhancing students' writing quality in general and writing accuracy in particular. Students held that their writing accuracy improved after PF implementation. They contended that the metalinguistic explanations they consecutively received on the different aspects of grammar during PF were very crucial in enhancing the grammatical accuracy of their writing. In this regard, it is pivotal to integrate grammar instruction within the teaching of writing. This view supports Ferris (2012) who claims that teaching grammar in isolation does not necessarily improve and ameliorate the accuracy and effectiveness of students' written performance. That is, students emphasized grammar to be focused in writing classes.

On the efficacy of PF on students' writing motivation, positive claims have been generated from the FGD in that PF does not only improve students' writing quality but also it becomes a real incentive which encourages them to write. This claim is highly supported by Reitbauer (2013) who views PF as a real intensive for students' writing and revision.

Concerning the effect of PF on student' autonomy, FGD results indicated students' consensus about the role PF plays in fostering autonomous learning. Implementing PF means equipping learners with responsibilities which increase their efforts to improve their learning.

Teachers' role here shifted to supportive, as they drive learners to be more responsible for their own knowledge' progress. Students indicated that autonomy is manifested in taking the full responsibility to revise their own as well as their peer's texts. In this viewpoint, Lee (1997), as cited in Burket and Wally (2013), claims that interacting with one another during PF gives students the opportunity to occupy the roles of both a writer and a peer critic instead of waiting for the delayed critics from the teacher. Students, therefore, become more responsible towards their learning. These actions will further help students become more self-confidents.

Lastly, FGD results revealed that students when experienced PF in WF classes developed a sense of collaboration and cooperation to learning. It is claimed that PF provides students with the best environment to interact and develop relationships. Learning, thus, extends from the private sense to a more overt and public sense where students share their experiences with others, ask for feedback, read others works, and provide feedback to other students (Liu and Carless, 2006).

The aim behind conducting a FGD was primarily to obtain students views and opinions after the experiment was held. The researcher sought to gain students' attitudes as far as PF implementation in WE classes is concerned. Further, FGD indicated that besides improving students' writing accuracy, students benefitted from PF in various respects. According to the results obtained from FGD, PF, besides improving students writing accuracy, fostered students' autonomy, boosted their self-confidence, and developed the sense of community. Students also highlighted the role of PI in supporting writing through discussing and negotiating grammar forms. That is PF provided students with an opportunity to benefit from grammar instruction during writing classes.

Conclusion

The current research problem necessitated relying on a variety of research instruments to gather the necessary data that are potential to answer the research questions and test the raised hypothesis. Accordingly, data were collected through two questionnaires designed and administered to first year EFL students and WE teachers at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. Besides, an experiment was conducted involving a pre, progress, and a post-test designed to test the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. After that, an analysis of students' interaction was carried out crucially in order to find out how PF contributed in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Finally, FGDs were directed for further gains in terms of students' attitudes and opinions on the implementation of PF.

This chapter, hence, was concerned with analysing and discussing of the results obtained along the course of this research. Firstly, the analysis of both teachers' and students' questionnaires allowed the researcher to get insights about the state of students' writing, in addition to teachers' overall practices within the WE classroom. Therefore, the results obtained paved the way for the experiment to take place. In this chapter, the results of the pre, progress, and post tests were also displayed, analysed, and discussed. Also, the chapter exhibited the results obtained from the analysis of students' interaction as well the analysis of FGDs. The next chapter will be devoted to general discussion of findings, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FOUR

RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Chapter Four: Implications and Recommendations for Further Research

Introduction

4.1. General Discussion of Results

4.2. Pedagogical Implications

- **4.2.1.** Implications for Teachers
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4.3. Recommendations

4.4. Recommendations for Further Research

4.5. Limitations of the Study

4.6. Delimitations of the Study

Conclusion

Introduction

The current chapter is primarily intended to offer some pedagogical implications and recommendations concerning the worthwhileness of incorporating PF in writing classes for the sake of enhancing students' grammatical accuracy in writing. Implementing PF in writing classes has potentially yielded the following benefits:

- It was a potential source of students' motivation
- It promoted students' interaction.
- It promoted cooperation and collaboration in writing classrooms.
- It boosted revision and reflection upon one's written productions.
- It worked on maximizing students' TL use.
- It promoted student-centered pedagogy.
- It improved students' writing performance.
- It worked on reducing grammatical deficiencies in writing.
- It allowed students to benefit from grammar instruction during writing classes.
- It allowed students to negotiate forms.
- PF helped in maintaining high interest in the lesson.

Hence, after successfully implementing PF in writing class, and on the basis of the results being obtained and analysed, a set of implications and recommendations that are likely to sustain teachers as well as students are presented.

4.1. General Discussion of Results

The current study scrutinized the role of PF in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing of first year students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The successful implementation of PF in WE class and the results obtained along the three phases of the study contributed in figuring out some important points. Initially, the results yielded from teachers and students' questionnaires revealed that first year students encounter many difficulties in writing. These difficulties affected in a negative way their interest as well as motivation to write. More importantly, the questionnaires results indicated that among the factors affecting students' writing quality is the poor mastery of grammar forms. As noted by Azar (2007), students who lack grammatical knowledge, have difficulties in writing even though they manifest fluency in speaking and listening. They cannot understand how sentences are formed and how they are related in the whole paragraph. These preliminary results urged for a pedagogical intervention where students can benefit from grammar instruction within WE classes as numerous studies assured that the grammar instruction is more effective when students receive it within a meaningful context of use (Richards and Rappen, 2014; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Ferris, 2012). Moreover, the results that teacher's questionnaire obtained revealed that PF is not implemented by WE teachers. However, the majority of responses that the researcher obtained indicated students' readiness to engage in this experience.

Expectedly, the findings that the researcher reached through the administration of both questionnaires were highly ascertained by the results of pre-test where both the EG and the CG showed poor writing quality particularly in terms of grammatical accuracy. Following the pre-test, the researcher launched the treatment phase where PF was implemented with the EG, whereas the CG was taught following the habitual way. Within this period, the students were constantly tested to check their progress in terms of grammatical accuracy after receiving PF.

It is well documented in literature that PF provides students with greater opportunities to direct their attention to language forms (Sato, 2017). That is to say, PI offers an atmosphere where FL students benefit from an opportunity to engage in meaningful output practice (Lyster & Sato, 2013, as cited in Sato, 2017). Subsequently, the results of the post-test pinpointed that PF contributed to a very high extent in reducing grammatical deficiencies in writing. These results were consent with Burket and Wally (2013) who argue that PF allows for processing and negotiating input of various sources. Consequently, formal aspects of language become more salient and applicable in future productions.

In attempting to provide explanations to the positive role feedback played in enhancing students' grammatical accuracy, it was crucial to examine how PF affects grammatical accuracy. In this respect, an interaction analysis was conducted where students' interactions which were going on during PF were analysed for the sake of finding out the reasons of students' improvement in grammar. The results of the interaction analysis method indicated that students during PF benefitted from explanations of grammar forms. That is, grammar instruction was explicitly integrated within the writing class through PF. Also, Interactional feedback involved the negotiation of form which is thought of to greatly contribute in raising students' consciousness to language forms, and therefore use them in subsequent written productions. In this regard, Gass and Selinker (2008) confirm the efficacy of interaction in language classes, and its potency in directing learners' attentions to language forms. These forms will likely be internalized in learners' language developing system. Therefore, they assert that through interaction, students' attention is likely to be directed to some elements of language with the possible intent to incorporate these elements into their developing system.

Finally, the results yielded from the FGD which was conducted after the experimental phase showed students' positive attitudes towards PF implementation in writing. Students showed their satisfaction as PF impacted positively many other aspects other than grammar

namely motivation and autonomy. Consistent with this view, Burket and Wally (2013) argue that students who take part in PF become more autonomous in that they occupy both roles of the writer and the critic instead of passively receiving critics from their teachers. Furthermore, PF also fosters students' self-confidence (Lee, 1997 as cited in Burket and Wally, 2013).

Hence, on the basis of the aforementioned findings, it can be said that the hypothesis which states that *PF can help EFL students overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing* is approved. Additionally, the research findings served in finding answers to the previously stated research questions as follow:

RQ1: To what extent is PF implemented in WE classes?

The results the researcher yielded from teachers' as well as students' questionnaires reported that feedback is important to improve students' written performance along with practice. However, as far as PF is considered, the results of the questionnaires demonstrated that TF is dominant in writing classes and that PF is not implemented to enhance students' writing quality. These results are built on the belief that most of the writing classes are still teacher-centered. Meanwhile, students and teachers accorded with the statement which states that PF can potentially foster students' grammatical accuracy in writing. In this essence, the responses of the questionnaire revealed that students and teachers held positive perceptions towards PF.

RQ2: To what extent can PF overcome students' grammatical deficiencies in writing?

The results of teachers' questionnaire indicated that the more students are well trained for PF practices, the better the results they will yield. That is, if PF is processed in a good and an effective way, students' writing accuracy will be improved. EFL teachers at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila view that PF is likely to yield positive outcomes in terms of grammatical accuracy in writing.

RQ3: What is the impact of PF on students' grammatical accuracy in writing?

Initially, the results obtained from the pre-test indicated that both the EG and the CG encountered problems in grammar when they write. The statistical analysis of the pre-test showed that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of grammatical errors they committed. It is worthy to mention that, before embarking in a treatment, both groups should manifest similar levels of accuracy in writing so that the changes that appear after the treatment are likely to be attributed to the researchers' pedagogical intervention. The post-test results indicated that participants in the EG benefitted from the interaction occurred during PF as significant improvements were noted down in terms of the mean of grammatical errors of EG. To this end, PF plays a significant role in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing.

RQ4: How can PF contribute in reducing grammatical errors in writing?

In response to this question, the results obtained from the analysis of students' interaction revealed that when students engaged in PF on their written performance, they tended to discuss certain grammatical features of language. That is, grammar instruction was incorporated within PF. Therefore, students benefitted from an explicit explanation of grammar forms as they receive CF on their erroneous structures. Hence, it can be deduced that providing grammar instruction within a meaningful context of use is likely to have positive impact on students' writing accuracy.

4.2. Pedagogical Implications

4.2.1. Implications for Teachers

Based upon the literature reviewed, as well as the results obtained from this empirical study, some instructional practices are needed to be addressed to be undertaken in similar teaching contexts.

- **On the Necessity to Write Accurately**

In the present study, the findings revealed that students in the EG could produce more accurate texts than their fellows in the CG. This outperformance is better justified by the fact students in the EG became more aware and conscious of the necessity of grammatical accuracy in writing. Therefore, teachers are recommended to raise students' awareness of the importance of grammatical accuracy in writing since the good quality of students' pieces of writings is judged by its accurate grammar.

- **On the Significance of Revision**

When students revise their written products, they may reflect on their writings, and thus make the necessary adjustments. They tend also to check the accuracy of the text before it is accessible to the reader. Hence, it is worthy to recommend teachers to reconsider the time spared to revision in their lesson plans in order to purvey students with more opportunities to revise and reflect upon their texts.

- **On the Importance of Classroom Interaction**

The teaching/ learning process is not a linear, straightforward process which involves transmitting knowledge and information from the instructor to his instructees. Rather, it is an interactive process which involves interaction, discussions, and negotiations between the

teacher and students or between students themselves. Therefore, teachers should create more opportunities to indulge students in classroom interaction. Interactional feedback is such a technique which is likely to direct students' attention to linguistic forms that will be later on internalised in their language developing system.

- **On the Importance of Student-Centered Classes**

Remarkably, recent approaches to teaching and learning have witnessed a massive change in the teaching/ learning pedagogies from teacher-centred to learner-centred. Reasonably, classroom practices has become more interactive and personalized where the teacher is no longer the core of the teaching learner process. In a learner centered classroom, students become more responsible on their own learning. They are more involved in building up their own knowledge and skills. Gradually, students become more autonomous. In the current study, learner centeredness is embodied in students taking parts feedback practices through PF. Therefore, the findings, indicating that PF is fruitful, encouraging, and motivational recommend teachers to give L2 learners the opportunity to engage in various assessment and feedback practices.

- **On the Importance of PF in EFL Writing**

The usefulness of PF in EFL writing has largely been discussed and evidenced in literature particularly with the shift from the pure product approach to the process approach where students become increasingly encouraged to engage in revisions. Students, both readers and writers, are likely to develop their critical thinking, become more autonomous, get more understanding of the writing difficulties that they or their peers encounter, and boost their self-confidence and become more independent writers (Lee, 2017; Burket and Wally, 2013). Accordingly, PF can be recommended as a fruitful, motivational strategy to first year EFL students. Therefore, students should be given an opportunity with sufficient training to use PF

in writing classroom because it is in this year that, which is first year, that students start dealing with the basics of the writing skill. PF can, therefore, serve in better writing outcomes.

- **On the Need for Training to PF**

  PF is more effective and fruitful if students know how to give it in a good way. In this regard training students to PF ensures both its efficacy as well as future written achievements. Actually, training students for PF has many benefits from various respects; it promotes collaboration and cooperation, it also fosters a supportive environment for learning, and it empowers students to master efficient skills and deepen their understanding. Therefore, teachers may raise the effectiveness of PF when they make their learners aware of the basics of how to give feedback. That is, training students on various assessment and feedback practices has become a need for better proficiency development.

4.2.2. Implications for Students

Writing accurately and effectively is highly demanded from EFL students. Therefore, EFL students are requested to make special efforts to attain this aim. Students have to broaden their rhetorical as well as grammatical knowledge for better performance. Students, therefore, are recommended to increase practice in writing. They are also recommended to edit and revise their written works based on the feedback they were provided with. Constant revision allows for lasting improvements in writing as well as in proficiency development. Therefore, students should no longer rely on their teachers to support them with the necessary feedback to improve their writing accuracy. Rather, they should diversify feedback sources to incorporate peer, and also technology based feedback.

4.3. Recommendations

In the light of the existing findings, some worthwhile recommendations should be identified:

- The results of this study indicated that WE teachers at the University of M'sila do not coordinate together to design effective lesson plans which involve devoting time for students to revise and reflect on their and their peers written products. Notably, teachers should give more attention to PF in WE classes by training and encouraging students to give PF. To state it differently, students should be offered more enough opportunities to give effective PF.
- In this research, it was elucidated that engaging students in PF makes students more interested and motivated. Hence, it is pivotal for instructors to address students' needs to teach WE.
- As PF evidenced its potential role in enhancing students' writing quality, it is crucial for teachers to varying feedback sources and assessment practices from traditional, teacher-centered to more student-centered feedback.
- Another pedagogical outcome is that PF is instant, and provided on students' in-process writing. Traditionally speaking, students receive feedback on their final products, probably after many days. Conversely, the interactive nature of PF allows students to receive instant feedback. Hence, PF is recommended for its instant nature.
- University teachers may be resistant to change and they prefer to continue following their traditional teaching and assessment practices. Henceforth, it is recommended to encourage and motivate teachers to adopt PF as a newly and challenging instructional pedagogy in teaching writing through organizing and conducting study days, conferences to address the potentiality of PF.

- Actually, classroom management plays a pivotal role in the successful implementation of PF in writing. However, large size classes can hinder this successful implementation. To this end, it is recommended to reconsider classroom management and students' distribution in groups.

4.4. Recommendations for Further Research

The current research has identified several areas where further research studies can be conducted.

- This research work was restricted to the population of first year EFL students at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. Further empirical studies can be conducted outside this research area. That is, PF can be further investigated with a level other than first year.

- Since the research was limited to investigating the role of PF to enhance grammatical accuracy in writing, extended research can be conducted to tackle another language areas other than grammar.

- Further research is highly recommended to examine the impact of variables such as gender and age on the effectiveness of PF in writing.

- Extended research is further needed to investigate the correlation between PF and students writing motivation.

- With the recent advances of modern technologies, a research on the impact computer/ mobile mediated PF on students' writing performance is also recommended.

4.5. Limitations of the Study

Among the limitations which are worthy to mention are attributed to the physical conditions surrounded the present study. Notably, the study was conducted on two intact groups at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila; therefore, random sampling was quite impossible. In this essence, the results obtained from the study cannot be generalized to the entire population.

Some pre-existing differences resulting from the pre-determination of the CG and EG may act as a threat to the study's internal validity.

With regard to the time spared for the experiment, the researcher allocated the second semester of the academic year due to the appropriateness of the course content to the objectives the researcher sought to realize. This period of time may be considered short.

4.6. Delimitations of the Study

Concerning the delimitations, this research is delimited to first year EFL students' at English Department at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. It involves sixty (60) students enrolled in the academic year 2022 – 2023. Besides, the study focused on the grammatical accuracy of students' written performance other than another aspect in writing. Furthermore, the emphasis is this study was placed on developing paragraphs that students dealt with in the second semester of their first year. It is worthy to note that PF was provided face-to-face during WE regular sessions with no intervention of any technological devices.

Conclusion

The current research investigated the role of PF in enhancing grammatical accuracy in writing. The results obtained were optimising in terms of increasing students' writing accuracy and reducing the flow of grammatical errors in writing. Therefore, some pedagogical implications have been highlighted and recommended in as much as this study is considered a starting point in EFL research as far as writing, grammar proficiency, and PF are concerned.

General Conclusion

Writing is perceived a difficult skill that L2 learners are required to master effectively. L2 students are expected to attain a proficient level in writing when they reach the end of their L2 instruction. However, attaining this requirement is highly challenging; students still encounter difficulties which make their written texts appear inappropriate and do not communicate their ideas in a clear way. One of these areas of difficulty that students face when they write is grammar. Evidently, teaching grammar in isolation does not guarantee the accuracy of students' writings. Successful writing is judged by the ability to produce clear and correct sentences. Therefore, instructors must question themselves of what strategies to apply for the sake of improving students' accuracy in writing. Therefore the researcher, in the current study, sought to investigate how PF contributes in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing.

The current study, in fact, sought to confirm or reject the hypothesis assuming that *if PF is used in WE classes, students will overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing.* That is, it leads to promoting the accurate and appropriate use of grammatical structures while writing. In this respect, the fundamental purpose of this research is to show whether the incorporation of PF in writing classes can help in overcoming first year EFL students' grammatical deficiencies in writing.

To attain the stated objectives, a mixed-methods approach to data collection and analysis was adopted in order to successfully answer the questions raised.

- To what extent is PF implemented in WE classes?
- To what extent can PF overcome grammatical deficiencies in writing?
- What is the impact of PF on EFL students' grammatical accuracy in writing?
- How can PF contribute in reducing grammatical errors in writing?

The answer to these questions necessitated the use of different data gathering tools (questionnaires, experiment tests, interaction analysis method, and FGDs). The variety of data that the researcher obtained allowed her to get insightful findings which, in turn, contributed in gaining an in-depth understanding of the problem under scrutiny.

In the first phase, that is, the pre-experimental phase, two questionnaires were designed and administered to first year EFL students, and WE teachers at the Department of English at Mohamed Boudiaf University of M'sila. The preliminary findings of both questionnaires showed that first year EFL students are in need to develop their writing accuracy. Besides, the results revealed that there is a lack of feedback practices in writing classes, namely PF. Meanwhile, both teachers and students showed a positive attitude and willingness towards the incorporation of PF in WE classes. For this, the results of the phase paved the way for the experimental phase.

In the experimental phase, an experiment was conducted wherein the EG benefitted from the treatment involving the implementing PF in WE module in attempt to probe its efficacy in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. The results of the T-test revealed a significant progress in students' writing accuracy in the EG. Student's progress in writing accuracy is, therefore, attributed to the implementation of PF. The results led to confirming the stated hypothesis. In order to better explain and justify the results obtained in the experiment, students' interaction was analysed. The analysis of students' interaction led to the recognition that students, during PF, benefited from repairing of their problematic grammar structures. Besides, students benefitted from explicit grammar explanation. Therefore, the results obtained from the analysis of interaction during PF served in a better explanation of the results yielded in the experiment.

In the final stage of this research, the researcher opted for FGDs with the students who underwent the treatment to probe their attitudes towards the implementation of PF in writing classes. It also served to gain insights about the usefulness of PF on students' writing accuracy. The results obtained from FGD served in drawing conclusions on the benefits of PF on various aspects namely writing motivation, autonomy, self-confidence, independence, and collaboration among students.

Based upon the aforementioned findings, the following conclusions can be drawn. PF is a useful instructional pedagogy to enhance students' writing accuracy. Also, the incorporation of PF in writing classes fosters students writing motivation. Furthermore, students developed a sense of responsibility, collaboration, and autonomy.

The successful implementation of PF in WE classes has called for some pedagogical implications for both teachers and students. WE teachers ought to raise students' awareness of the importance of grammatical accuracy in writing in as much as the quality of any piece of writing is typically determined by its accurate grammar. Further, teachers are recommended to reconsider the time allocated to revision in their lesson plans in order to provide students with more opportunity to revise and reflect upon their texts. Moreover, provide L2 learners with the opportunity to engage in various assessment and feedback practices. Finally, teachers should train their students to give effective PF to enhance their writing accuracy. As for students, writing accurately becomes an imperative for EFL students who are required to diversify the sources of PF. Other sources of feedback including PF, automated feedback are highly demanded.

Notwithstanding, incorporating PF in writing classes is not the end of the episode. Rather, it can be the starting point for many research studies. In this regard, some recommendations for further research have been identified. Firstly, it is recommended that further empirical studies

can be conducted outside this research area. That is, PF can be further investigated a level other that first year. Secondly, extended research can be conducted to tackle other language areas other than grammar. Thirdly, further studies are also recommended to scrutinize the impact of variables like gender and age on the effectiveness of PF in writing. Finally, extended research is also required to investigate the correlation between PF and students' writing motivation.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Students' Questionnaire

You are kindly invited to answer this questionnaire which is part of a research work that aims at investigating the role of peer feedback in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Your participation will be very contributive for the attainment of the study's objectives. The information provided will be treated confidentially. Please, tick the choice that better communicates your answer, or write a full statement whenever required.

Section One: Background Information

1. Gender Male ☐
   Female ☐
2. Age 18 to 25 years ☐
   More than 25 years ☐
3. How long have you been studying English? .....
4. How can you evaluate your English Languge level?

Section Two: The Writing Skill

4. Which, among the following skills, do you appreciate much?

   Listening ☐
   Speaking ☐
   Reading ☐
   Writing ☐

5. How do you evaluate your level in writing?

   Poor ☐
   Average ☐
   Good ☐

6. When you are asked to write an assignment, are you?

   Very interested ☐

Interested ☐

Bored ☐

Not interested ☐

6. When you write, do you follow the stages of the writing process?

Always ☐

Sometimes ☐

Never ☐

7. What are the weaknesses you frequently elaborate in your written performance?

Poor grammar ☐

Poor vocabulary ☐

Spelling ☐

Inappropriate content ☐

Poor organization of ideas ☐

Poor spelling ☐

Others: .....

8. When you write, you tend to focus on:

Content / Ideas ☐

Grammatical Accuracy ☐

Others: .....

9. In your opinion, what are the reasons behind your unsatisfactory written performance?

Lack of instruction ☐

Lack of practice ☐

Lack of feedback ☐

Others: .....

10. On which aspect your teachers focus more when assessing your written productions?

Grammar ☐

Content / Ideas ☐

Organization ☐

Others: .....

11. Do you think that your poor grammar affect the quality of your writing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

12: How often do you revise your writing?

Always ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

Section Three: Peer feedback in L2 Writing

13. How often do you receive feedback on your written productions?

Very often ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

14. When teachers provide feedback, they tend to focus on:

Accuracy ☐

Content ☐

Organization ☐

Coherence ☐

Cohesion ☐

Others: .....

15. Do your teachers encourage you to provide feedback to one another?

Yes ☐

No ☐

16. How often do you engage in peer feedback practice?

Very often ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

17. Peer feedback is much appreciated by students' than teachers' feedback.

Strongly disagree ☐

Disagree ☐

Neutral ☐

Agree ☐

Strongly agree ☐

18. What do you want to achieve behind peer feedback?

Improve your written performance ☐

Improve your communication skills ☐

Others: .....

19. Do you think that you are prepared to give efficient peer feedback?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Justify: .....

20. Do you think that peer feedback can enhance your' writing Quality?

Yes ☐

No ☐

How? .....

21. Do you think that, being trained to peer feedback will result in better written performance?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Justify .....

Appendix B: Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

You are kindly invited to answer this questionnaire which is part of a research work which aims at investigating the role of peer feedback in overcoming grammatical deficiencies in writing. Your participation will be very contributive for the attainment of the study's objectives. The information provided will be treated confidentially. Please, tick the choice that better communicates your answer, or write a full statement whenever required.

Section One: Background Information

1. Degree held: Master ☐
   Magister ☐
   PhD ☐
2. How long have you been teaching?
   1 to 5 years ☐
   6 to 10 years ☐
   11 to 15 years ☐
   More than 15 years ☐
3. Which levels you frequently teach? .....

Section Two: Teaching Writing

4. How do you evaluate your students' level in writing?
   Poor ☐
   Average ☐
   Good ☐
5. When you ask students to write an assignment, they are:
   Very interested ☐
   Interested ☐
   Not interested ☐
6. Which, among the following skills, do you think that your students appreciate much?

Listening ☐

Speaking ☐

Reading ☐

Writing ☐

7. In your opinion, what are the weaknesses students frequently elaborate in their written performance?

Poor grammar ☐

Poor vocabulary ☐

Spelling ☐

Inappropriate content ☐

Poor organization of ideas ☐

Others: .....

8. In your opinion, students, when they write, tend to focus on:

Content / Ideas ☐

Grammatical Accuracy ☐

Others: .....

9. In your opinion, what are the reasons behind students' unsatisfactory written performance?

Lack of instruction ☐

Lack of practice ☐

Lack of feedback ☐

Others: .....

10. On which aspect you focus more when assessing students' written productions?

Grammar ☐

Content / Ideas ☐

Organization ☐

Others: .....

11. Do you think that students' grammatical deficiencies affect the quality of their writing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

12. Which approach you rely on in teaching writing?

The Product Approach ☐

The process Approach ☐

Both ☐

Section Three: Peer feedback in L2 Writing

13. Do you provide feedback to your students during the process of writing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

14. Do you ask your students to revise their drafts before they submit the final version?

Always ☐

Sometimes ☐

Never ☐

15. In your feedback, you usually focus on:

Accuracy ☐

Content ☐

Organization ☐

Others: .....

16. Do you encourage your students to provide feedback to one another?

Yes ☐

No ☐

17. How often do you engage students in peer feedback?

Very often ☐

Often ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

18. Peer feedback is much appreciated by students' than teachers' feedback.

Strongly disagree ☐

Disagree ☐

Neutral ☐

Agree ☐

Strongly agree ☐

19. Do you think that students are prepared enough to give efficient peer feedback?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Justify: .....

20. In your opinion, can peer feedback enhance students' writing quality?

Yes ☐

No ☐

How? .....

21. Do you think that, training students to peer feedback will result in better written performance?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Justify

Appendix C: First Year Written Expression Syllabus

Part One: PARTS OF SPEECH

Lesson One: Parts of Speech: General Discussion: All Parts, Types, Examples.

Part Two: SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Lesson Two: Sentence Classification (Composition)

Lesson Three: Phrases

Lesson Four: Clauses

Lesson Five: Sentence fragments

Lesson Six: Wordiness

Lesson Seven: Parallelism

Lesson Eight: Dangling /misplaced modifiers

Part Three: MECHANICS

Lesson Nine: Punctuation

Lesson Ten: Punctuation (Follow up)

Lesson Eleven: Capitalization

Part Four: LARGER ELEMENTS: PARAGRAPH WRITING

Lesson Twelve: Paragraph writing (Definition and structure)

Lesson Thirteen: Step process to paragraph writing (Writing phases/ stages)

Lesson Fourteen: Paragraph Development (Descriptive, narrative, cause and effect,

specific details)

Lesson fifteen: Paragraph Development: Follow up (Comparison and contrast, classification, exemplification, definition)

Lesson Seventeen: Paragraph Development: Follow up (Process, problem /solving,

Opinion paragraphs).

Appendix D: The Pre-test

Full Name: …… ***Group: ……***

Exercise 01: Identify the independent clause ***(Indep.)*** and the dependent clause ***(Dep.)*** in each sentence.

Exercise 02: Identify ***the problem*** of each of the following sentences, then, rewrite them in a more correct way.

Exercise 03: Eliminate ***wordiness*** in the following sentences.

Exercise 04: **A)** write a topic sentence for each of the following topics.

1- Smart Phones **2- Movies** **3- Technology**

1. ……

2. ……

3. ……

B) Develop ***one*** of the topics into a paragraph.

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Appendix E: The Post-test

<u>Task 01:</u> The following paragraphs contain sentences which are not directly related to the topic sentence. Underline the *<u>irrelevant</u>* sentence in in the paragraph.

<u>Task 02:</u> Write a good topic sentence for each of the following paragraphs. Remember to include both the topic and the controlling idea.

<u>Task 03:</u> Write supporting sentences for the following topic sentences.

<u>Task 04:</u> Write the concluding sentences for the following paragraphs.

<u>Task 05:</u> Develop one of the following topics into a paragraph.

1. The Bad Effects of Smoking.
2. Reasons of School dropout.

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Appendix F: Sample Lesson Plan Control Group

Sample Lesson Plan of the Control Group

Level: First Year LMD **Timing:** 90 mns

Course: Written Expression

Lesson: Paragraph Developed by Comparison and Contrast

Objectives: SWBAT write a well-structured paragraph developed by comparison and contrast.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus
10 mn	**Warm up**	T/ reconsiders the basic components of the paragraph: topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence. -T/ introduces a sample paragraph developed by comparison and contrast (See Appendix:) T/ sets students to identify the topic sentence and the concluding sentence. Then, she sets them to analyse the supporting sentences and helps them to identify the pattern.	**T** → **Ss**
	Presentation	T/ explains how the comparison and contrast paragraph is constructed.	
10mn	**Pre-writing**	T/ introduces the topic about which students will write the paragraph developed by comparison and contrast. T/ sets students to brainstorm ideas about the topic and helps them to gather as much ideas as possible.	**T** **Ss**

25mn	**Drafting**	-T/ sets students to write their first drafts individually. Students transform the ideas they already gathered into a paragraph.	**S**
30mn	**Revising**	-In this phase, T/ sets students to read their own drafts for revising and making the necessary changes. -In his phase, T/ provides feedback whenever necessary.	**S**
15mn	**Final Version**	-T/ sets students to re-write their paragraphs on the basis of the revisions they made. -By the end of the session, T/ sets students to develop another paragraph following the same pattern.	**S**

Appendix G: Sample Lesson Plan Experimental Group

Sample Lesson Plan of the Experimental Group

Level: First Year LMD **Timing:** 90 mns

Course: Written Expression

Lesson: Paragraph Developed by Comparison and Contrast

Objectives: SWBAT write a well-structured paragraph developed by comparison and contrast.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus
10 mn	**Warm up**	T/ reconsiders the basic components of the paragraph: topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence.	**T** ↘ **Ss**
	Presentation	-T/ introduces a sample paragraph developed by comparison and contrast (See Appendix:) T/ sets students to identify the topic sentence and the concluding sentence. Then, she sets them to analyse the supporting sentences and helps them to identify the pattern. T/ explains how the comparison and contrast paragraph is constructed.	**T** ↘ **Ss**
10mn		T/ introduces the topic about which students will write the paragraph developed by comparison and contrast.	**T** **Ss**
	Pre-writing	T/ sets students to brainstorm ideas about the topic and helps them to gather as much ideas as possible.	

25mn 30mn 15mn	**Revising/** **Peer** **Reviewing** **Final Version**	-T/ sets students to write their first drafts individually. Students transform the ideas they already gathered into a paragraph. -In this phase, T/ sets students already assigned into groups to exchange their drafts for revising each other's draft. Students read and make comments. -T/ sets students to interact orally to discuss their comments together. -T/ sets students to re-write their paragraphs on the basis of the revisions they made, and on the basis of the comments they receive from their peers. -T/ sets students to write a comparison and contrast paragraph to be evaluated by the teacher.	**S** **Ss** → **Ss** **S**

T: Teacher

S: Student

Ss: Students

Appendix H:

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

MOHAMED BOUDIAF UNIVERSITY OF M'SILA

FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Name: Benmadani Sara

Email: sara.benmadani@univ-khenchela.dz

To: The Head of the Department of English Language

Dear Sir,

I am Mrs Sara Benmadani, a doctoral student of Didactics of English as a Foreign Language at the University of Abbes Laghrour, Khenchela. I am carrying out a research study entitled **"Investigating the Role of Peer Feedback in Overcoming Grammatical Deficiencies in Writing"** under the supervision of Pr. Djafri Leila, Batna2 University.

The purpose of this research work is to investigate the effectiveness of peer feedback as a teaching/ learning strategy to enhance students' writing accuracy, and hence their written performance.

I am writing to ask for approval for conducting this research study on the targeted participants which are first year LMD students at the Department of English Language at M'sila University whom I am currently teaching the Written Expression module for the academic year 2022 – 2023.

I hold the full responsibility as I respect all the ethical guidelines for conducting a research work. I am also committed to ensure safety and confidentiality of all participants involved in this research. Many thanks in advance for your time and consideration of this research.

Regards

Sara Benmdani

Signature

Mr. Mohammed Dejemoui Saber

رئيس قسم الاداب واللغة الانجليزية

أ. محمد الجموعي صابر

Appendix I: Sample Paragraphs

Pre-test CG

B) Develop ***ONE*** of the topics into a paragraph. (5pts)

Technology in Our Life

Our life it was very hardly in the past. But in the modern and new time become easy and comfortable because there are many factors helped us. This factors called "The ethnology".

Technology is a inventions, like a the Smart phones and the computers which helped us is the connect and communication between each other. Secondly, The movies of Transport, such as, cars, flights and trains, which helped us in the travel.

The Technology has many importance in Our life, we must protect their.

B) Develop ***ONE*** of the topics into a paragraph. (5pts)

development.

Smart phones, has an important role in people's life. first of all, everyone must have a personals smart phone, So he can keep all his personal informations in it, and no one can share it with him. Smart phones gives to people the ability of communicating with others wherever they are, and also it makes the researchs more easier, So they can search for Anything they want to know About when the phone is connected with Wi-Fi or cellular data. After all what technology has done now Smart phones Can show you also how much steps did you walk today, and how much time did you spend on Social Media today, So it helps you to know your moves, with its camera you can picture what ever you want, and save the beautiful moments, and also make nice Videos, it is important for Studying, Too.

To conclude, Smart phones are so important recently in everyone's life, it has alot to do.

Pres-test EG

B) Develop ***ONE*** of the topics into a paragraph. (5pts)

Firstlly, Technology and disavantage in this world. it have so many disavantage like polution of the earth, leave barks, they use in a bad behauver, people buisse is the smart and new phones they don't get out to the outsaid and play like the past, a ding erous Game like "Mearyem" ect. the type of the pol polution it Caused by Technology is: the air polution, water polution and earth. To Sum up, Technology have many disavantage and this is very ding erous but we stille have avantage.

B) Develop ***ONE*** of the topics into a paragraph. (5pts)

Mavies, are artistic production produce To make story or legend more detailed. and it produce To send a message for the ethers, and To shaw same thing Useful for the watchers. Mavies are Typs we have Drama, Comic, Tragidy. the most exited one is the drama because it produce Same thing close To our real lives. Comic Mavies are amazing if you want To laugh and have fun I advice you To watch Some Famous Comic mavie. Tregedy Mavies it is So Depressed and Sad make you inter To the Sadness world, So If you want To cry watch this Type of mavies. Actually I prefer the Comic mavies it make me happy really, ofcourse we are not the same everyone have his cheise. As what we say Mavies are artistic production and I'am Sure it produced To make Us enjoy and do Some thing different in our daily live and change Same thing From our routine.

Post-test CG

Task 05: Develop one of the following topics into a paragraph.

1. The bad effects of Smoking. ✓
2. Reasons of school dropout.

Smoking is unhealthy habit. It causes a lot of bad effects to the person who smoke and the society. First, the person who smoke will have the breath deases. Second, he feel all time that he is unconfortable and he can't sleep also. the stress all time. In addition, Smoking caused of the changing of the color of the skin and the teeth. Moreover, it caused of the sickness of the other person who lives with him and he will caused the air pollution. Finally, Smoking is very dangerous that's why it is Haram, so stay away from it.

Post-test EG

Task 05: Develop one of the following topics into a paragrapn.

1. The bad effects of Smoking.
2. Reasons of school dropout.

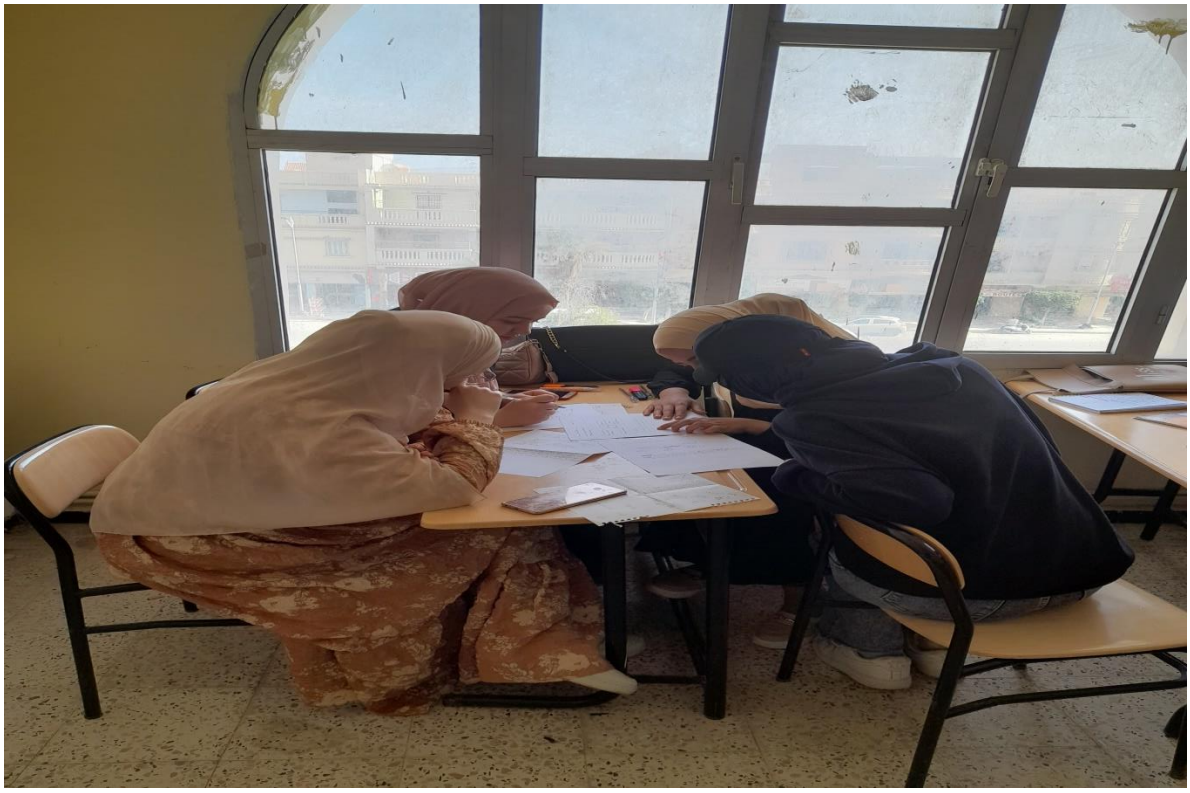
School dropout is a phenomenon that has become wildely spread lately and other reasons for that differ from one to another. Firstly, most students quit school because of their lack of awareness of the necessity of education in life. Secondly, droping out of school could be the result of feeling lonely or being less smart than the other kids. Finally, bullying is one of the main reasons for school dropout.

Lastly, whatever is the reason for that, droping out of school is the worst decision, to take, that most of people regret for. so no matter how hard school is, stay strong and focus on studying while trying to enjoy school life.

Appendix J: Peer feedback Groups











Résumé:

Cette étude tente d'investiguer le rôle des retours entre pairs dans la correction des lacunes grammaticales en écriture chez les étudiants de première année du Département de Langue et Littérature Anglaises de l'Université Mohamed Boudiaf de M'sila. Pour atteindre cet objectif, une approche mixte de collecte et d'analyse des données a été adoptée. En effet, la recherche a été réalisée en trois phases. Dans la phase pré-expérimentale, des données préliminaires ont été collectées pour préparer le terrain pour l'expérience à l'aide de deux questionnaires conçus et administrés aux étudiants de première année en EFL et aux enseignants d'expression écrite à l'Université de M'sila. Dans la phase expérimentale, deux groupes intacts (groupe témoin et groupe expérimental) ont passé un pré-test, des tests de progression et un post-test afin de prouver ou réfuter l'hypothèse énoncée. Dans la phase post-expérimentale, afin d'expliquer davantage les résultats obtenus dans l'expérience, une méthode d'analyse de l'interaction a été mise en œuvre pour analyser l'interaction des étudiants lors des retours entre pairs. De plus, des discussions en groupe ont été menées pour obtenir des perspectives qualitatives et des attitudes des participants du groupe expérimental sur l'efficacité des retours entre pairs et de leurs résultats potentiels sur les étudiants. Les résultats obtenus ont révélé qu'il existe une différence statistiquement significative entre le groupe expérimental et le groupe témoin en termes de niveau de précision grammaticale qu'ils ont atteint en écriture grâce à la mise en œuvre des retours entre pairs. De plus, les résultats ont également indiqué que l'incorporation de l'enseignement de la grammaire dans les cours d'écriture par le biais des retours entre pairs donne des résultats positifs sur la précision de l'écriture des étudiants. Sur la base de ces résultats, plusieurs implications pédagogiques et recommandations ont été suggérées.

Mots-clés: EFL, lacunes grammaticales, interaction, retours entre pairs, rédaction

المستخلص

تسعى هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف دور مراجعة الأقران في التغلب على نقائص اللغة في التحرير الكتابي لطلاب السنة الأولى في قسم اللغة والأدب الإنجليزي في جامعة محمد بوضياف بمسيلة. ولتحقيق هذا الهدف، تم اعتماد نهج مختلط لجمع وتحليل البيانات. وقد تمت الدراسة عبر ثلاث مراحل. في المرحلة ما قبل التجريبية، تم جمع بيانات أولية لإعداد الأرضية للتجربة باستخدام استبيانين تم تصميمهما وتوزيعهما على طلاب السنة الأولى في تعلم الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية و اساتذة التعبير الكتابي في جامعة مسيلة. و في المرحلة التجريبية، أجرت مجموعتان كاملتان (المجموعة الضابطة و المجموعة التجريبية) اختبارًا قبل التجربة واختبارات تقدم واختبارًا بعد التجربة لإثبات أو دحض الفرضية المعلنة. اما في المرحلة ما بعد التجريبية، فقد تم تنفيذ طريقة تحليل التفاعل لشرح النتائج المحصل عليها خلال تجربة مراجعة الاقران. كما تم أيضاً إجراء مناقشات مجموعة التركيز للحصول على رؤى وتوجيهات نوعية من المشاركين في المجموعة التجريبية حول فعالية التغذية الراجعة بين الأقران ونتائجها المحتملة على الطلاب. ولقد أظهرت النتائج أن هناك فارقاً إحصائياً ملحوظاً بين المجموعة التجريبية والمجموعة الضابطة من حيث مستوى الدقة اللغوية الذي حققوه في الكتابة بسبب تنفيذ مراجعة الأقران. وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، أشارت النتائج إلى أن إدراج تعليم القواعد اللغوية في دروس الكتابة من خلال التغذية الراجعة بين الأقران يؤدي إلى نتائج إيجابية في دقة كتابة الطلاب. واستنادًا إلى هذه النتائج، تم اقتراح عدة تأثيرات تربوية وتوصيات

الكلمات المفتاحية : نقائص لغوية، تفاعل، مراجعة الاقران، التحرير الكتابي، اللغة الانجليزية لغة اجنبية.